Goal pursuit of socially responsible consumption with situational priming and the dark triad

Ning Lu

Submitted in accordance with the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

Leeds University Business School

University of Leeds

February 2020

The candidate confirms that the work submitted is his/her/their own and that appropriate credit has been given where reference has been made to the work of others.

Acknowledgement

First and foremost, I would like to extend my most sincere appreciation and gratitude equally to my supervisors: Professor Timothy M Devinney and Dr Phani Kumar Chintakayala. I still remember the day Tim interviewed me for the PhD scholarship. It was a daunting experience but it turns out that he's one of the best supervisors and mentors I have ever had. The kind of freedom and trust he showed me over the years have given me the opportunity to express myself and pursue something I am passionate about. Without him, I wouldn't win the national championship in data science. Tim has made me a better person and I always feel grateful for his mentorship. I also want to thank my second supervisor Phani who shows support and faith on me during the up and down period.

My research was made possible by the generosity of the Economic and Social Research Council (ESRC). Without the funding and scholarship, I could never have started the thing I feel passionate about. Also I want to express my gratitude to the administrative team at The White Rose Social Sciences Doctoral Training Partnership (WRDTP) and ESRC's Consumer Data Research Centre.

There are academics beyond my own university who have kindly showed me the light in the tunnel when I needed it most: Professor Delroy L. Paulhus, who leads the field of dark triad research, has helped me to verify the calculation on the dark triad measurement. Professor Scott J. Vitell, who developed the Consumer Ethics survey, has helped me to verify the calculation on the Consumer Ethics measurement. I also want to thank my examiners Professor William Young and Professor Giana Eckhardt for their great feedback and encouragement.

I would like to thank my family: Yuki Wang, who has shown unconditional love on supporting me over the journey; Patrick the Cat, who has always purred on me whenever I feel stressed or chaotic in life. A number of my colleagues in the Leeds Institute of Data Analytics have showed me again and again that there are plenty of "good triad" beyond the dark triad in human nature. These wonderful people are Kimberley Wright, Kylie Norman, Amanda Otley, Sara Gadd and Verity Tether. They remind me that we always can rise and meet the challenge of the darkness. This is how we make ourselves better and make the world a better place.

Abstract

The choice to engage in socially responsible consumption is reportedly being made more frequently, but evidence of an attitude-behaviour gap suggests that consumers often fail to translate their intentions or attitudes into actual behaviours, even when they have clearly expressed their commitment to that form of consumption. This ambiguity lies in whether ethical or socially responsible consciousness is motivating the consumers, or if other behavioural drivers have been overshadowed by the appearance of socially responsible consumption. This thesis demonstrates that situational priming such as the presence of others and salient goal priming, compared to having a goal of adhering to socially responsible consumption, are more effective in motivating the individuals to act upon that means of consumption. Moreover, when the situation piques the interest of individuals with a high Machiavellian trait, they're more likely to engage in socially responsible consumption. But again, the attitude-behaviour gap persists on the prediction of consumer ethics. This research makes theoretical contributions in using a goal-directed approach, with an emphasis on unconscious behavioural drivers such as situational factors and personality traits. Empirically, it supports the use of experimental studies to determine motivations underlying socially responsible consumption.

Contents

1 Abbreviations

DPC – Principal Component of the Dark Triad

DT – 3 personality traits of the Dark Triad;

DZS – Z-score adjusted measurements for the Dark Triad

EPC – Principal components for Consumer Ethics

ES – 7 measurements of Consumer Ethics scale;

EZS – Z-value adjusted measurements for Consumer Ethics

ACT – “actively benefiting from illegal actions”

PAS – “passively benefiting”

QUEST – “questionable, but legal actions”

NOH – no harm, no foul

DL – “downloading”

REC – “recycling”

GOOD – “doing good”

2 Introduction

Who is a socially responsible consumer? My research interest was initially sparked by the socially responsible behaviours of two celebrities. First, Walter Isaacson related a story about Apple's Product Red campaign in his biography of Steve Jobs:

"In 2006, Bono got Jobs to do another deal with him, this one for his Product Red campaign that raised money and awareness to fight AIDS in Africa. Jobs was never much interested in philanthropy, but he agreed to do a special red iPod as part of Bono's campaign. It was not a wholehearted commitment. He balked, for example, at using the campaign's signature treatment of putting the name of the company in parentheses with the word "red" in superscript after it, as in (APPLE) RED. "I don't want Apple in parentheses," Jobs insisted. Bono replied, "But Steve, that's how we show unity for our cause." The conversation got heated — to the F-you stage — before they agreed to sleep on it. Finally, Jobs compromised, sort of. Bono could do what he wanted in his ads, but Jobs would never put Apple in parentheses on any of his products or in any of his stores. The iPod was labelled (PRODUCT) RED, not (APPLE) RED." (Chapter 32, Isaacson, 2011)

Next, Time's magazine journalist Olivia Waxman penned an online article titled, "Of Course Kim Kardashian Took a Selfie While Doing the Ice Bucket Challenge":

"Kardashian, who is married to Kanye West and stars in *Keeping up with the Kardashians*, made the challenge her own by taking one of her signature selfies as Ellen DeGeneres dumped a bucket of ice water over the reality TV star's head on *The Ellen Show*. Just before she got soaked, the "selfie queen" exclaimed, "Oh my god, I don't even want to see this happening to me." (Waxman, 2014)

If we only look at the outcome of their behaviours, we would easily think of them as being socially responsible consumers — Steve Jobs agreed to launch Apple's Product Red campaign and Kim Kardashian raised awareness of ALS research by taking the Ice Bucket Challenge on national television. However, we would have hesitated to do so if we looked more deeply into the behavioural narrative — Steve Jobs only agreed to help when his friend Bono made a strong argument for the Red campaign and promised that the word "Apple" would never actually be linked with the word "Red", while Kim Kardashian was in fact more motivated by her status signalling than the charitable cause. This is disconcerting, as ethicality and social responsibility are often expected to be the primary drivers of socially responsible behaviours. However, the socially responsible behaviour of the two celebrities was seemingly motivated by

peer pressure and narcissism. In addition, it's not clear to what extent we can still maintain the distinction between socially responsible consumers and everyday consumers if ethics or social responsibility no longer serve as the primary drivers in the behaviours.

A great deal of consumer research literature has highlighted the existence of a gap between the behavioural drivers derived from ethicality or social responsibility and genuine socially responsible behaviours, often referred to as the attitude-behaviour gap (Carrigan and Attalla, 2001). When consumers are surveyed about their intentions or attitudes concerning socially responsible consumption, they tend to demonstrate the intentions or attitudes that indicate they are keen on the idea. However, in reality, consumers often fail to translate their intentions or attitudes into actual behaviours, even when they have clearly expressed their commitment to socially responsible consumption (Auger and Devinney, 2007). A number of reasons have been cited to explain the attitude-behaviour discrepancy, such as measurement bias, value conflicts, moral licensing/decoupling, lack of perception, lack of accessibility, lack of awareness and engagement (Hui et al., 2009; Merritt et al., 2010; Carrington et al., 2010; Steg et al., 2014; Kumar, 2016; Yamoah et al., 2016). Yet socially responsible consumption is still reportedly growing strong amid the continuing attitude-behaviour gap (Doherty et al., 2015). While it seems that people are growing more conscious about the ethical side of their consumption, the ambiguity remains as to whether ethical or socially responsible consciousness is really pulling in the consumers, given the multiple attributes ascribed to that consumption (Cornish, 2013), e.g., price, colour, brand, style, size, weight, volume, and material composition, as well as a variety of motivations. One study conducted by Yamoah et al. (2014) examined the TESCO loyalty card data and found that the continued improvement in product distribution and pricing were actually the main drivers of increasing fair trade retail sales. This contradicted the common belief that fair trade sales growth was motivated by a growing consumer consciousness or product promotion. This signals a need in understanding socially responsible consumption differently.

So, who are socially responsible consumers really? A focus on socially responsible consumers serves to highlight the generation of consumers who have begun to consider the impact of their consumption both on and beyond themselves and, more importantly, who actually engage in socially responsible consumption. However, for the purposes of this thesis, the working definition considers socially responsible consumers as those who act on that form of consumption as much as is possible. While this definition might sound naively simple, it works well across the wider context as well as for the intended experiments, with the intention of allowing indi-

viduals to qualify as socially responsible consumers with a minimal initial effort. This should allow individuals to do something simple and convenient with the goal of both igniting and maintaining the habit of socially responsible consumption. But the most important thing is that the individuals should be encouraged or see a way to build on their socially responsible consumption by realising their potential capability. This intends to re-orient the motivation of socially responsible consumers from being purely ethics-based to one that is based on behaviour. Last, over time, individuals should re-assess the priority of socially responsible consumption. A metaphor for the new working definition is to think of socially responsible consumers as those who are new to weight lifting and do not, as yet, know how much weight he or she can lift. In this case, the socially responsible consumption is seen as the weight and the act on socially responsible consumption is the lifting. At the beginning, you can try the minimal weight of 2kg. The heavier the weight you can lift, the more competent you begin to feel. The key is not just to show that you can lift the maximum weight once, but also whether you can maintain weight lifting as a habit. Some can still opt for the minimal weight of 2kg as a habit, while others might want to challenge themselves by targeting heavier weights. Motivation can come from a personality trait, goal setting or peer pressure – a friend lifting 20kg. The other thing is that you might realise that you can do more than just weight lifting and consider other forms of exercise, such as running or cycling. There are no limits set on how many forms of socially responsible consumption you must undertake as the key is to make that behaviour a sustainable habit. Also, there are no constraints on which or how many ethical dimensions you must actively promote. The value alignment or self-realisation should always centre on individual responsibility as well as individual capacity. In an experimental context, this new working definition is easier to implement and measure as we can see the differences prior to and after the experiments. Moreover, it's easier to tease out what matter most individually and what sort of behavioural drivers we would need to calibrate to make socially responsible consumption more sustainable.

One prospective increasingly seen in the literature is to embrace unconscious behavioural drivers when explaining socially responsible consumption (Carrington et al., 2010). Growing recognition of the issue of human unconsciousness should not come as a surprise. The work of Daniel Kahneman and the rise of behavioural economics have consistently shown how humans routinely make systemic mistakes and that these mistakes are not random (Kahneman, 2003; Thaler and Sunstein, 2009); they're the by-product of two distinctive thinking systems in our decision-making process (Kahneman, 2011). System 1 is dominated by unconsciousness

and automaticity; System 2 is marked by rationality and deliberate effort. In the socially responsible consumption literature, a large amount of effort has been made to explain the manifestation of value, beliefs, attitude and intention (Lawson, 2010). To a large extent, they are like the citizens of System 2 thinking – consumers are conscious, logical, and reasonable in that they tend to have a value compass, hold strong beliefs, show consistent attitudes, and make calculated decisions about their consumption. However, it's the System 1 thinking, which is dominated by unconsciousness and automaticity, that is actually the basis of many human daily decisions. A consumer might require a conscious thought to decide what coffee to consume tomorrow morning, but the likelihood of drinking the same coffee every day is extremely high once the decision is progressed into a habit. This brings in a potential consideration of a dual process mechanism in socially responsible consumption (Ryan and Legate, 2013; Zollo et al., 2018), i.e., the blending of behavioural drivers from both a conscious and unconscious level to explain socially responsible consumption. The idea of recognising both conscious and unconscious influence in the decision process is growing in the consumer literature concerning ethicality and social responsibility (Carrington et al., 2010), but it is still relatively small. Jung (1939; 2014) once suggested that we should really embrace a fair and open calibration between consciousness and unconsciousness if they had to wrestle, as none of them can totally suppress one or the other but we often either neglect or champion one only. In the world of socially responsible consumers, one consumption trajectory is that conscious behavioural drivers concerning socially responsible consumption might tend to move behaviour towards socially responsible consumption but unconscious behavioural drivers can act as a resistant force, causing movement to ultimately cease. Another consumption trajectory is that the conscious behavioural drivers might not move behaviour towards socially responsible consumption at all as the individual has not yet developed the intention to engage in socially responsible consumption, but, through peer pressure or status striving, unconscious behavioural drivers can act as a stimulus and move the behaviour towards socially responsible consumption. The question is to what extent do the conscious or unconscious behavioural drivers play a leading role in dictating behavioural development.

One of the unconscious behavioural drivers are situational factors (Carrington et al., 2010). Consumption is often conducted though social situations with other individuals or alone (Argo et al., 2005). Socially responsible consumption is no different. When individuals fall short in the area of socially responsible consumption, it's very likely that the individuals may not have access to socially responsible goods or are not under relevant environmental exposures.

More importantly, they can struggle against surrounding social forces (e.g., peer pressure or social norm) that can eventually halt the intended socially responsible behaviours or initiate the untended socially responsible behaviours (Argo et al., 2005; Griskevicius and Kenrick, 2013; Kniffin et al., 2016). It's the socially responsible behaviour with the presence of others that many consumer studies have failed to fully explore.

Personality traits have some promise in terms of motivating socially responsible consumption (Anderson and Cowan, 2014; Dermody et al., 2015; Arli and Anandya, 2018). Most consumer studies examining socially responsible behaviours with personality traits tend to focus on "virtuous traits", such as openness, conscientiousness, agreeableness, Honesty-Humility (Song and Kim, 2016; Engel and Szech, 2017; Riefolo, 2014). Only when explaining less desired socially responsible behaviours would "vice traits" such as narcissism, Machiavellianism and psychopathy enter the discussion. Yet "vice traits" could potentially reveal more insight as socially responsible consumption are often tangled with some manifestation of norm-violating or status-organising (Anderson and Cowan, 2014; Voyer, 2015). In addition, two common response bias in surveying socially responsible behaviours are strongly linked to the "vice traits", such as narcissism and Machiavellianism (Fernandes and Randall, 1992; Foster et al., 2006; Triki et al., 2017; Kowalski et al., 2018). When consumers are surveyed about intentions or attitudes concerning socially responsible consumption, they tend to overstate their 'good' behaviours and understate their 'bad' behaviours. This is often regarded as social desirability bias and it has been reported to have a strong association with Machiavellianism (Fernandes and Randall, 1992; Triki et al., 2017). Individuals are also prone to a self-monitoring bias, i.e., high self-monitors will adjust their behaviour according to situational cues. Self-monitoring bias are strongly linked to narcissism and Machiavellianism. The responses based on what is socially desirable are a sign of inflated self-consciousness, while high self-monitoring indicates strong situational awareness (Foster et al., 2006; Kowalski et al., 2018). Fewer studies have explored the effect of "vice traits" on the goal pursuit of socially responsible consumption across different social situations.

In this thesis, we intend to show that researchers in socially responsible consumption would benefit from a deeper understanding of the intention–behaviour gap modelled by goals, social situations and the Dark Triad of personality traits. The thesis will start by taking a holistic perspective of socially responsible consumers' ideology and classification. This offers a venue to reflect on the myth of socially responsible consumers, which is an ongoing misconception about the distinction between socially responsible consumers and everyday consumers. The

thesis then reviews a range of theoretical paradigms related to socially responsible behaviours, and, more importantly, the primary behavioural drivers and extensions have been made in the theoretical frameworks. Following the review of the concept, theoretical frameworks, and primary drivers of socially responsible consumption, the thesis will propose a theoretical framework that centres on goal-directed mechanisms, with an emphasis on the effects of situational priming and the Dark Triad of personality traits. This framework provides a good reminder that human nature is malleable and socially responsible consumption is no different, given the effect of situational influence and personality traits. Lastly, the thesis will present an empirical study of situational priming and the Dark Triad of personality traits (narcissism, Machiavellianism and psychopathy) in relation to socially responsible behaviours, concluding with findings and a discussion about the essence of this rising consumer behaviour.

3 Socially responsible consumers

3.1 Background

With socioeconomic and technology advancement, the nature of human consumption is evolving from consumption for necessity to consumption for variety (Ariely and Norton, 2009). Uber, Tesla, Airbnb and Deliveroo are just a few new forms of consumption, representing a new culture of consumers who explore different ways to satisfy their thirst for both a better consumer experience and value. But consuming for variety often comes with a price; it has not just nurtured creativity as to forms of consumption, but also disruption in business ethics (Ertz et al., 2018). Instead of offering permanent jobs, Uber and Deliveroo encourage individuals to take on short-term contracts or freelance work transporting passengers and delivering take-out food, but more importantly, both companies have been accused of exploiting employment loopholes to disregard minimum wage laws, workers compensation and injury benefits (Martin, 2016). One of the major casualties in new forms of consumption is food overconsumption (Swinburn et al., 2011). It has not only contributed significantly to the obesity epidemic in the US and many other developed countries, but has also sparked more exploitation in global food supply (Farmer et al., 2017). Philip Pettit (2018), who authored "The Birth of Ethics", argues that it's the desire to regulate people's behaviours that has given birth to ethics in human society. Ethics make people think about how they ought to act – whether or not those actions are valuable or worthwhile. In addition, ethics make people realise they will be blameworthy or punished if they don't behave appropriately (Pettit, 2018). In a way, ethics is more than altruistic behaviours because animals are fully capable of displaying such behaviours but humans must face more complicated ethical situations, such as "the trolley problem". Ethics is seen as the iteration process of maintaining the credibility of individuals and regulating their desires (Pettit, 2018). This is consistent with the rising concern in the media, activist groups, labour unions and local governments about the many new forms of consumption that lack ethics (Jericho, 2016; Hinsliff, 2018). While both consumers and corporations are increasingly encouraged to use their power to alleviate the impact of their own consumption as well as going beyond themselves (Shaw et al., 2005), the question remains as to whether either of them would be inspired or motivated to build such credibility and regulate their desire in the everyday consumption.

In the corporate practice, social responsibility and profit-maximising are increasingly seen as two sides of the same coin (Böcker and Meelen, 2017). The reason is that corporations are not

only under the scrutiny from governments, consumer right groups and social activists to deliver socially responsible products and services (Hosseinpour et al., 2016), but the label of socially responsible consumers itself is also reported to be highly brand-loyal and is expected to yield a higher profit return (Kim et al., 2010; Castille et al., 2018). This motivates an increasing number of corporations striving to tap into the socially responsible consumption market (Mohr et al., 2001; Hamelin et al., 2013). Companies like Tesla and Starbucks have begun offering full socially responsible products and services such as electric cars and fair-trade coffee, while others, like Uber and Deliveroo, have tried to adjust their business practices to adhere to the demands of socially responsible consumers by addressing some of their ethical and social concerns (Stone, 2019). Ultimately, corporations intend to utilise their submission to the new demands of socially responsible consumption in an effort to improve their reputations in terms of social corporate responsibility. But some critics argue that growth and profit-maximising are the fundamental nature of corporations and they are motivated to attempt any of the socially responsible behaviours if that will help them reach their goals (Kitzmueller and Shimshack, 2012). If corporations cannot survive in the market, it's unlikely they will continue the conversation on what social responsibilities they should be fulfilling. In other words, corporations must fulfil their financial duty to investors and shareholders, beyond their social responsibilities. These financial duties, including earning call, return dividends and capital appreciation, are the invisible hands that often turn the wheel of the corporations. Therefore, a corporate decision is expected to involve socially responsible as well as financial incentives. This signals a potential dual process mechanism underlying socially responsible behaviours in the corporate world, in which social responsibility and non-social responsibility behavioural drivers such as growth/profit seeking operate side by side. The remaining question is whether corporations will always prioritise product safety over market growth or public transparency over accounting transparency when financial and moral incentives clash. It's never straightforward to deem corporations as "unethical" if they prioritise financial incentives over moral ones within the law because that is the way in which their legal responsibility is often defined. Furthermore, if the goal is to make corporations more socially responsible, the question is whether pure altruism or social responsibility, one that is without a selfish or profit-maximising motivation, can really make corporations to sustain their pursuit of socially responsible consumption.

In the consumer practice, the story is similar. Given that the idea of socially responsible consumption is centred on individuals considering ethicality or social responsibility as they

pertain to their consumption, people who are able to commit to that form of consumption are, logically, often classified as socially responsible consumers (Sheth et al., 2011). However, everyday consumers are confronted with a great number of 'candidates' in social responsibility (e.g., fair trade, environmentally friendly, animal friendly, women's empowerment, localism and charitable donation) and they tend to act more like a voter in a polling booth when they decide on their consumption (Shaw et al., 2005; Papaoikonomou et al., 2012). This is considered as a more intended and conscious approach (Newholm and Shaw, 2007). Alternatively, socially responsible consumption can be untended with influences from unconscious level, e.g., mirroring and status-organising (Voyer, 2015). Devinney et al. (2012) cited the finding from a car-sharing study conducted by Bardhi and Eckhardt (2012) that the motivation of adopting car sharing was not necessarily carbon footprint saving, but more likely convenience and cost saving. Another new socially responsible form of consumption that indicates a duel drivers nature mechanism is a flashmob (Hoffmann and Hutter, 2012). A flashmob is a new form of co-producing socially responsible consumption that involves activists, consumers, bystanders and business vendors. The common belief is that the rise of this phenomena in the US suggests that there's a strong demand for consumer activism. Yet what is not known is that many business vendors are actually bidding for flashmob events in their retail venues, because the attention expected to spread across social media platforms is far more cost-effective than simply buying ads on those platforms (Grant et al., 2012; Hoffmann and Hutter, 2012). From the aspect of socially responsible consumption, it's unlikely to conclude that flashmobs are primarily motivated by the rising demand for a consumer ethical orientation or that the encouragement of flashmobs by business vendors is primarily motivated by their ethical orientation. Although this does not suggest that all the individuals attending or consuming in flashmob events are motivated by anything other than ethical or socially responsible incentives, but it does raise the question of whether a pure ethical or socially responsible value orientation can inspire the individuals to initiate socially responsible consumption. Moreover, it remains unclear which behavioural driver is more effective in helping the individuals to sustain that consumption. As a result, this leads to the discussion on a potential dual process mechanism underlying socially responsible behaviours in the consumer world, which binding social responsible consciousness as well as unconscious behavioural drivers, but more importantly, whether it's still legitimate to regard people who are motivated by multiple drivers in their socially responsible behaviours as actually being socially responsible.

3.2 Definition

Academic literatures on socially responsible consumption or green marketing has become a prominent research theme in marketing, business and management journals for the past 25 years (McEachern and Carrigan, 2012; Kumar, 2016). The concept of socially responsible consumption tends to have multiple facets (Hall, 2011). This means that there is more than one conceptual term related to consumption in reference to ethicality and social responsibility. Although there's a wide range of the conceptual terms associated with a variety of connotations indicative of different aspects of socially responsible consumption (McEachern and Carrigan, 2012; Saricam and Okur, 2019) in the literature, most of them tend to share the same direction – thinking consciously about socially responsibility in the pursuit of consumption.

For example, Webster (1975) found that socially conscious consumers were more like a group of individuals who can be distinguished by a range of demographics, and more importantly, such group of individuals tend to consistently express the willingness to engage in purchase behaviour related to ethicality or socially responsibility. Webster and Frederick (1975) also discussed socially responsible consumers as individuals who would consider the impact of their consumption in relation to the society. Muncy and Vitell (1992) approached socially responsible consumers as individuals who would apply ethical or socially responsible principle into their consumption. Roberts (1993) described socially responsible consumers as individuals who consume with a strong value orientation on the benefit of environment and the society. Mohr et al. (2001) defined socially responsible consumers as individuals who tend to use a sort of cost-benefit criteria when facing consumption decision and the goal is always minimising the negative impact and maximising the positive impact from their consumption to the society. Sen and Bhattacharya (2001) approached socially responsible consumers as individuals who tend to align and express loyalty towards organisations who share similar socially responsible orientation. Caruana and Chatzidakis (2014) described socially responsible consumers as a group of individuals with strong belief on moral logics and desire on improving improve consumer-based social responsibility. Quazi et al. (2016) suggested socially responsible consumers as individuals who show individual and collective responsibility when they interact with product or service vendors. Having reviewed a list of definitions related to socially responsible consumers in the literatures, Berné-Manero et al. (2014) conclude that socially responsible consumers are individuals with strong ethical orientation, good knowledge of corporate social responsibility (CSR) and ability to combine the ethical orientation and

knowledge of CSR as consumption criteria. de Groot et al. (2016) explained green consumer behaviour as "a behaviour that benefits the greater good, in particular the environment, and it is often motivated by ethical considerations" but they also cited Moisander's (2007, p. 4) definition for green consumer behaviour as "a complex ethical issue that it is a question of normative ethics, which involves ethical judgements and disputes over what should be done and thought about consumption and environmental protection." Small and Cryder (2016) defined pro-social consumer behaviour as individuals who "purchase behaviour involving self-sacrifice for the good of others or of society". Brinkmann and Peattle (2008) argues that the definition could be "… a consumer's obligation to maximize his/her positive impact on stakeholders and to minimize his/her negative impact through four kinds of … responsibility: legal, economic, ethical and philanthropic…". Carrigan and Bosangit (2016) then adopted Harrison's (2005) definition for ethical consumption as it covers a wider range of categories, such as "political, religious, spiritual, environmental, social or other motives for choosing one product over another".

Regardless what ethical orientation the concept has, they argue that it should have a value orientation more than ego or self. All the definitions signal the potential motivations or behavioural drivers activating socially responsible consumption, such as sustainability, environmentalism, altruism, moralism, fairness, ethical obligation, localism, empathy, well-being, personality traits and self-identity. For every element, there are supporting cases that contribute empirical evidence, e.g., fair-trade coffee to the aspect of fairness, eco-friendly wall paint to the aspect of environmentalism, organic and ethical cosmetics to the aspect of well-being and ethicality, and sustainable clothing to the aspect of sustainability (Cailleba and Casteran 2010; Montagnini et al., 2016).

Conceptual terms used to describe the consumption in reference to ethicality and social responsibility

- Terms ending with 'consumption': sustain consumption, ethical consumption, ethically minded consumption, green consumption, green product consumption, green food consumption, organic consumption, organic food consumption, sustainable food consumption, eco-fashion consumption, sustainable sports fashion consumption, fair-trade consumption, collaborative consumption, ethical luxury consumption, responsible consumption, mindful consumption, conscious consumption
- Terms ending with 'products': eco-friendly products, sustainable products, sustainable

fashion-products, ethical products, green products, socially responsible products, environmentally friendly products, eco-labelled minimally processed fruit product, organic food products, fair-trade non-food products, fair-trade product

- Terms ending with 'behaviours': ethical consumer behaviours, environmental behaviours, pro-social behaviours, pro-environmental behaviours, pro-environmental purchase behaviours, unethical behaviours, pro-environmental purchasing behaviours, sustain consumer behaviours, non-green consumer behaviours, green purchase behaviours, socially responsible purchasing behaviours, environmental responsible consumer behaviours, green consumer behaviours, green purchasing behaviours, health related behaviours, fair behaviour, donation behaviours, socially conscious consumer behaviours, unsustainable consumer behaviours, environmentally conscious consumer behaviours.

- Terms ending with 'consumerism': ethical consumerism, green consumerism

- Other related terms (concept-specific): donation, fair-trade retail sales, socially responsible purchase, pro-environmental purchase, eco-labels, green and eco-labels, consumption for good, counterfeit purchase, energy conservation, environmental conservation, charitable giving, ethical luxury, ethical food, locally-produced food, healthy food, slow food, overeating, animal testing, volunteering.

- Other related terms (product-specific): Eco-friendly wall paint, oddly shaped food, sustainable clothing, organic fair-trade coffee, body weight, water use, energy use, food disposal, blood donation, debt management, organic and ethical cosmetics, smoking, shopping bags, organic cotton apparel, luxury fashion apparel made in sweatshop, clothing disposal.

While different connotations in socially responsible consumption relate to contributions made by researchers across different disciplines, as well as priorities set by the interest of stakeholders, it raises the concern that academic researchers, business vendors and consumers might ascribe to different interpretations of what constitutes socially responsible consumers, and more importantly, any of these conceptual terms is value-laden and destined to create conflicts of interest (Carrigan and Attalla, 2001; Newholm and Shaw, 2007). Papaoikonomou et al. (2012) suggested that several, diverse connotations are necessary to understanding socially responsible consumers. Lim et al. (2014) found that even for a simple connotation

in socially responsible consumption, such as organic consumption, consumers would come up with completely different interpretations. For instance, some consumers may see organic consumption as something both expensive and good for health, while others can describe it as being environmentally friendly. One explanation for such ambiguity is that people tend to learn about the connotation of socially responsible consumption through a variety of venues (Lim et al., 2014). In the case of organic consumption, some people hear about it from their friends and family while others might pick up the idea through their local retail vendors. Hamelin et al. (2013) argued that ethical consumerism is often hindered by the socioeconomic status of the consumers. For instance, people in Morocco are already struggling to achieve a living wage; hence, their interpretation of socially responsible consumption is clearly hindered by its socioeconomic impact. They might not care whether the food products bear a high carbon foot-print; they might be more interested in knowing if those food products are satisfying quality and religious criteria. This raises a question of who should dictate the connotations in socially responsible consumption and/or who qualify as socially responsible consumers. Should people in developed countries or higher income groups making that verdict because they have better knowledge, regulation or socioeconomic status? Often, consumers might just neglect certain connotations, even though they should be part of that decision. Reimers et al. (2016) found that most consumers might associate the definition of ethical fashion with environmental responsibility, but fewer consumers showed immediate concern about animal and employee welfare. Hassan et al. (2013) suggested that calibrating the connotations in socially responsible consumers might in fact introduce a state of confusion, as people don't just include incomplete knowledge, but also competing value orientation in in their perception of socially responsible consumption. Moraes et al. (2012) argued that socially responsible consumption is often in the mode of self-contradiction. Take the case of buying fair-trade coffee. One person might have bought some Starbuck's coffee as he or she believes that buying fair-trade coffee from Starbuck can provide those overseas coffee workers with the fairest wage. However, transporting the coffee across the world could dramatically increase the carbon footprint of that consumption. Another person might prefer to support a local coffee shop, which only hires local people and uses local materials, instead of going to Starbuck. However, the local coffee shop secretly uses a tax avoidance scheme by not paying for health insurance for their employees. The question is, which person qualifies for the title of socially responsible consumer? The idea that individuals are free to pursue any facet of socially responsible consumption is further reinforced by the fact that consumers tend to act

like voters, using their purchase to cast their ballots based on the social impact they wish to make, such as carbon footprint, food waste or fair trade (Wright et al., 2006). Consumers can either choose to abstain from consumption that disregards ethicality and social responsibility or bank on more consumption that promotes ethicality and social responsibility (Shaw et al., 2005). This means that there is scarcely a universal consensus among socially responsible consumers on which form of socially responsible consumption should be considered first, and more importantly, individual decision making in socially responsible consumption is often the product of internal and external influences. One potential solution is to examine the primary motivations rather the connotations or labels when understanding socially responsible consumers. It's often not the end of transaction or the name of product category defining those consumers, but rather their intentions and motivations. The encouragement of multiple value orientation or connotations in socially responsible consumption can make the concept of socially responsible consumers more fruitful and democratic, but the value-laden concept can face ambiguity and challenges from sociological, philosophy and practicality dimensions.

3.3 Sociological dimension

In a sociological discussion, Humphrey (2016) argued that, without a strong base of consumption culture, consumers are less likely to use their consumption power as a means to direct the ethicality or morality of consumption. This point is often neglected in the discussion of socially responsible consumers as the common belief is that everyone in the affluent society has been granted the "voting power" (Wright et al., 2006). Yet that power is only granted if the individuals consume in the product or service category they wish to influence or they fall into a particular income group. If the individuals have not yet formed a strong consumption pattern or social status, they're less likely to influence the behaviour of vendors. Furthermore, when discussing socially responsible consumption, it seems that we're often neglecting the consumption of family and friends as a part of the socially responsible movement. One explanation is that the ethical or socially responsible dimension is often discussed in relation to the care we express beyond our family, friends and ourselves. In other words, it feels like socially responsible consumers are those that think consciously about the people beyond their own environment. This might be reasonable if income, health, education, housing were more equal in many affluent societies. However, as inequalities are continually rising in many affluent societies, it seems cruel to completely rule out the most considerate consumption for many individuals is to care and consume for their family and friends. While there's a

fine difference between buying basic sportswear or a pair of GUCCI slacks as a gift for one's mother, the remaining question is who should judge or police how someone should spend their hard-earned income. Moreover, a bottle of tap water can be considered as basic consumption in one context but the same chemical product can be regarded as conspicuous consumption if it's a bottle of Fiji water. This raises the question about one of many motivations behind the rise of socially responsible consumption – distrust. It's not just the distrust of individuals as to how they should spend their hard-earned income, but also the distrust of capitalism as an effective social and economic system (Sassatelli, 2006). The efficient marketplace is no longer considered to offer the confidence that it is still the best system to distribute the wealth and care to the people in need (Balsiger, 2014). This is why many forms of socially responsible consumption are strongly linked to social justice, such as MeToo movement in the film and other industries (O'Connor, 2018; Ger, 2018). Consumers are increasingly encouraged to step up to assume the roles of a failing marketplace and personally undertake righting this wrong (Schlaile et al., 2018). However, the idea of using consumer power to correct faulty behaviours is not as straightforward as expected. Corporations are neither non-profit organisations nor the guardians of societies (Carrigan and Bosangit, 2016). Their primary motivation is to gain profit or maximise the return for shareholders, and it's unlikely that they would always sacrifice that for social responsibility. Moreover, if socially responsible consumption is about consumers pointing their finger at their consumption, this might turn into another "measurement fiasco". In the measurement evaluation, there's a distinction between accuracy and precision – accuracy refers to how close all the measurements fall in respect to normative value and precision refers to how close all the measurements are to each other. Without top-down or normative value guidance, a consumer-finger-pointing-determined socially responsible consumption can be precise but not accurate. In the case of vaccination, when individuals falsely consider it's less ethical to get their children vaccinated, they would abstain such socially responsible consumption. However, the herd immunity would break if not enough individuals decided to get vaccinated and vaccination would become less likely to benefit the community (Sobo, 2016).

3.4 Philosophical dimension

The philosophical discussion of socially responsible consumption has four dimensions: consumer freedom, moral relativism, moral responsibility and altruism or ethicality as primary behavioural drivers.

People have preferences in their consumption and the idea of consumption for variety is often considered as one of the key issues in modern consumer behaviour. Yet consumption for variety is now considered as the bullseye in the movement toward socially responsible consumption – do we really consume due to a need for variety every day? Most people certainly don't need to consume everything that is available in a supermarket but one of the fundamental goals of supermarkets is to satisfy, not just one consumer, but the full range of consumer preference at the population level. Jung (2014) argued that it's always difficult for someone to hand down a moral or socially responsible verdict. He said, "No amount of insight into the relativity and fallibility of our moral judgement can deliver us from these defects, and those who deem themselves beyond good and evil are usually the worst tormentors of mankind, because they are twisted with the pain and fear of their own sickness" (Jung, 2014). In the context of socially responsible consumption, the question is who would be qualified to or responsible for telling consumers whether the contents of their shopping basket shows socially responsible consumption. The idea of having a church-style-regulator to guide socially responsible consumption is unsound as it's more likely to diminish most of the incentives in modern consumption – people want to have freedom to explore and consume according to their preferences. In addition, the reason that people can experience or reassess morality across all levels of society cannot be credited to some regulators who are keen on externally imposing a moral or socially responsible code on consumer behaviour; it's due to a successful negotiation on a comfortable living code among the majority of individuals. In the discussion about good versus evil, Jung (2018) warns that "Without mistakes or sins, the best moral qualities would never have developed. For what is morality without freedom?" In a way, the desire to consume for variety is always lurking within human nature as well as our social circles. But such freedom to explore has given modern consumers the space to quell their moral qualities or social responsibilities. Jung (2018) compared a moral good without freedom as being just like the thief in jail – "The thief in jail is not moral just because for the moment he cannot steal; he is a caged animal. Let him be made cashier of a big bank where he has the opportunity to steal every day, and then if he doesn't steal, you can say he is all right, he is no thief any longer. If there is no freedom to do wrong, there is never the choice between good and evil, so a specifically moral action is simply prohibited by a sort of moral cage. If there is freedom, there is the chance of choice, there is the ultimate fight between good and evil." The same can be said of the idea of socially responsible consumption. The socially responsible verdict cannot be determined without the freedom of temptation or roaming, which shapes modern consumption

– consumers don't live in a vacuum and must interact with all forms of consumption, as well as all the tangled influences along with whatever moral or socially responsible code they try to obey. If the decision to be socially responsible was so straightforward or effortless, new forms of consumption such as Uber, Airbnb, e-Sport, adult braces, and embryo compensation wouldn't be attracting millions of endorsements as well as condemnation. Consumption for variety remains a fair pathway to iterate the socially responsible verdict, at least in that it supports the freedom to reassess the socially responsible code in one's life. Otherwise, nobody can really know what moral or socially responsible dilemma or influences consumers face when confronting their own habits of consumption.

Besides consumer freedom, socially responsible consumption faces another complexity emerging from the concept of moral relativism. Jung (2018) argued that the morally wrong dilemma might only be highlighted when it's scaled up to thousands of individuals. For example, an individual who wants to acquire braces might not incur a foul in terms of socially responsible consumption, but a quarter of young males who want to have straighter teeth might raise some concerns as to social justification, i.e., whether it's a trend of conspicuous consumption. But moral relativism is more than just the game of numbers. Blackburn (1999; 2013) notes that moral relativism highlights the fundamental idea of individual differences in morality, meaning that it's dependent on the circumstances. One discussion in moral relativism is focused on consumer culture in a national level. While eating dog meat remains permissible in South Korea and China, it's considered to be not only unlawful, but also completely unethical in most Western countries (Oh and Jackson, 2011). However, Blackburn (1999; 2013) argues that there's still a difference between local custom and moral relativism, although both can cause disagreement as to socially responsible consumption. A local custom might constrain individuals to consuming in a particular manner and most people living within that location would follow the custom. For example, an HSBC advertisement titled "Clearing plate" was to promote its global banking service. The ads showed a scene involving a businessman travelling to Hong Kong from a foreign country. His client invited him to conduct the business over dinner. His cultural dining custom was to finish all the food on his plate, which signals good table manners and appreciation to the host. However, in Hong Kong, the local culture dictated leaving some food on the plate when you've finished eating, signalling the desire to "have a fulfilling meal again next time". But, as the businessman didn't know the local custom kept finishing all the food on his plate, his client continued to serve him more food. The misunderstanding continued until the businessman confessed he was too full and his client asked

why he didn't indicate that earlier. Based on Blackburn's argument, most of the local people would respect and conform to the dining etiquette. But this is more like a form of absolutism for etiquette or custom rather than moral relativism – the former is just a sociological fact and there's no moral element involved. Moral relativism is really about having different views, values, positions, prospectives (Blackburn, 1999; 2013), and more importantly, it reminds us the danger of using moral absolutism as navigation. If socially responsible consumption is also about one single socially responsible truth rather than a number of relative truths, consumer consensus might never ultimately be reached. Dancey (2011) argues that, unlike other line thoughts, morality is the resident of principles. If the principles within morality are too flexible or circumstance-dependent, there's no point of maintaining the concept of morality as people would always bend the rules when it's convenient for them. That makes the whole premise of socially responsible consumption unsustainable. In a sense, moral relativism is like constantly scanning for the best position on morality on a scale between moral absolutism and moral nihilism. Dancey (2011) referred this as moral particularism and this might be what the society needs in socially responsible consumption. Rather than taking up the cause of morality with whatever principles apply, the solution is to examine every circumstance and decide what principles should be stuffed into that morality bag. This would mean embracing the differences in moral principles across the variety of consumption and recognising the need of being open to different views, values, positions, and prospectives. However, the priority of socially responsible consumption might involve a different form of ethicality. For example, someone might demand more free-range eggs in the supermarket but others might just want inexpensive eggs with eco-friendly packaging. While both are equally important, the ultimate decision might not have anything to do with either ethics or morality.

The idea of socially responsible consumption implies that consumers have a moral responsibility when shopping, drinking, eating, watching, and playing; thus, they should conduct their consumption in an ethical or socially responsible manner. That idea has been challenged by Rosen (2004) as individuals are, to some degree, always ignorant when they undertake actions. In other words, nobody can be 100% certain about the morality or social responsibility of their act as it's almost impossible to thoroughly assess the way in which consumption adheres to social responsibility. An individual might think he or she has done their best by checking for an "eco-friendly" label. However, they might unintentionally ignore other dimensions of socially responsible consumption, such as fair wage, carbon footprint and package recycling. The challenge is at what stage the individuals should be held blameworthy if they fail to

consider their consumption. Rosen (2004) argues that very few people would put the blame on an animal (a cat or dog) if the animal fails to act morally or socially responsible because it just doesn't have the sophisticated thinking system of a human. However, humans are a different species; compared to animals, human are seen as more intelligent, rational, and logical. Therefore, we are supposed to act in a more rational and moral manner than the bear. However, Daniel Kahneman and others from the field of behavioural economics have consistently demonstrated how human decisions often fall into the realm of irrationality rather than rationality (Kahneman 2011; Thaler and Sunstein, 2009). If the cat or dog can be excused for their immorally or socially irresponsible behaviour, perhaps humans should get some benefit of the doubt as they also have these irrational flaws in their decision-making mechanisms. The potential danger of such thinking is obviously that people might always excuse themselves from committing to moral or social responsibility and blame their biology, physiology, education, or social environments for their failure to act on socially responsible consumption. One of the key debating points in moral responsibility is intention and ignorance, which are similar to two sides of the same coin (Harman 2011; Rosen, 2015). If individuals become more conscientious in their responsibility to engage in socially responsible consumption, they should become less ignorant about that responsibility. While constantly assessing whether an intention's praiseworthy or blameworthy seems a reasonable solution to encourage individual moral responsibility (Rosen, 2015), the thinking is flawed in a linear and deterministic way. The reason is that you might fully intend to act in a moral or socially responsible manner, and consciously think about the potential consequences, but then you still act in a contradicted way. For example, if you ask people who commit stealing if they think stealing is wrong, they'll say yes. But then you ask them, if they knew it's wrong, why did they still do stealing? They would then come up with many non-moral or so-called 'reality' reasoning. The same can be said of socially responsible consumption. It's easier to tell people that they should be less ignorant about or more conscious of their social responsibility, but the reality is more brutal. The battle in consumers' minds could start with a single intention or multiple intentions to act on socially responsible consumption, but then the intention struggles with many forces, from alliances to resistance motivated by different sources. The behavioural ending or the final act is just what remains after both the casualties and survivors of those influences.

The last element in this philosophical discussion is altruism or other ethical artefacts as primary behavioural drivers in socially responsible consumption. The common call to socially

responsible consumption is to consciously think about consumption beyond our own interest. This means that proponents of socially responsible consumption have a strong tendency to highlight the need for altruism in consumer behaviour. However, altruistic behaviours remain highly unpredictable and their motivation can be suspicious. Take organ donation. Most national or international regulators such as the World Health Organisation (WHO) consider organ donation to be a purely altruistic act (Joralemon 2001). This means that financial incentives should not be involved as the poor and sick could be exploited through a so-called market mechanism. However, the shortfall in organ donation suggests that altruism is an ineffective behavioural incentive (Becker and Elias, 2007). If organ donation is considered to require too much sacrifice for individuals, blood donation should then be an easier altruistic behaviour as it requires minimal harm. Yet, in the UK, the national blood service still remains short of regular donors (Partos, 2019). As altruistic behaviour continues to diminish, there's a consistent call to introduce financial compensation or incentives for biological donations (Becker and Elias, 2007; Schnier et al., 2018). As to socially responsible consumption, a similar question can be raised – whether altruism or other forms of ethical artefacts can be an effective incentive. If people fail to engage in altruistic behaviours, such as blood donation, why should we expect them to turn up for socially responsible consumption? If there's a utility beyond altruism or social responsibility that the consumers can exploit, then the two alone might not be strong enough to act as behavioural incentives; they might need reinforcement from other stimuli to have an impact. However, very few governments would want to play a "butcher-style" role to manage "human bodies transaction". The risk of wrongdoing is so much greater than the chances of behaviour inspired by altruism. It's lucky that the self-sacrifice required for socially responsible consumption is not expected to involve the loss of organs or blood. However, consumers should still be prepared to pay a premium price for that consumption. People with lower incomes would then face an injustice similar to that of an organ transplant – compared to those with greater resources, they might need to spend a larger percentage of their income to be socially responsible consumers. If responsible consumption is about fairness, are those with lower incomes getting a fair deal? In other words, the ability to make sacrifices in consumption just seems to be an indication of individual financial capability rather than individual altruistic capability. Another debate on tapping into using other forms of incentives is concern about the distortion of current altruistic motivations. If someone is willing to pay for an organ for his mother and another person is happy to make the donation for the financial incentive, both parties can clearly attain a fair transaction. However, the

financial incentive might distort the interest of those potential donors who are willing to act on pure altruism, as they're concerned about being seen as doing it for the financial incentive. The same can be said about socially responsible consumption. There have been a great many financial incentives offered to providing one's own cup when buying coffee in a cafe (Poortinga and Whitaker, 2018). However, it's almost impossible to distinguish if those cup-carriers are motivated by their belief in recycling or the financial discount they receive. Some consumers might choose to never bring a reusable cup as they don't want to be seen as money pinchers or discount seekers. The potential solution is to find a compatible incentive with altruism, especially those non-financial incentives. One interesting case having to do with non-financial incentives is an egg-sharing scheme. If a woman needs a IVF treatment and she happens to have extra healthy eggs, in some private clinics, she could receive a free treatment if she's willing to donate some of those healthy eggs to others. While that sounds like altruistic behaviour without financial incentives, that free treatment is just a different form of financial incentive; it's difficult to predict if the women would still share their eggs without it.

Complex concept

Consumer behaviour is a complex system issue and socially responsible consumption is only going to make things more complicated (Nair and Little, 2016). Ariely and Norton (2009) used a case of cookie consumption to illustrate the process of consumer behaviour as a complex system issue. The psychology process for a dog to consume the cookie is very straightforward – just eat it. However, the psychology process for a human to consume the cookie can iterate through a number of reasoning. For example, "Should I share the cookies with the people in my office?" "Should I let my wife know I would eat cookies for my lunch today despite my diet goal?" "Should I buy those cookies with charity donation labels and make the consumption less guilty?" "Should I buy a meal deal with free cookies and makes the cookies consumption less salient?" Moreover, there are many ongoing influences intersecting consumer behaviours and some of them act as "resistance" to motivation. For example, people face both feature fatigue, where vendors just keep adding more new product features (new avocado flavour, new low in calorie, new fair-trade label), and strategic memory protection, where consumers don't want to contaminate how they used to consume the product (Zauberman et al., 2008). Ariely and Norton (2009) argue that humans are capable of simulating all sorts of motivates and reasoning on a particular consumption, but the most interesting part is the calibration of multiple influence. Gęsiarz and Crockett (2015) agree that there might be more than one

decision-making process activating during the process of prosocial behaviour. The decision mechanism of prosocial behaviour might start off with a goal-directed system that people can see what they would get at the end of the consumption. Then the consumption pursuit might light up the habitual system that people would apply their formal experience to the current pursuit and a Pavlovian system could also act to calibrate the action-responses on the pursuit. Such multiple decision mechanisms have been discussed in the field of cognitive neuroscience in relation to prosocial behaviours. In the case of buying luxury goods, Davies et al. (2012) found that there's actually a low likelihood to adopt socially responsible consumption and this particular consumer context might demand a different decision mechanism in promoting socially responsible consumption. Gruber (2012) suggests that this is why the socially responsible consumption needs a multilevel approach as people always consume in a nested environments. These nested environments are not just related to human ethics and responsibility, but also social, political and environmental dimensions. This is consistent to the finding from Gleim and Lawson (2014). They found that when people were surveyed on the factors that preventing them to act on socially responsible consumption, they often cited the influencing factors that not directly associated with social responsibility. This could sound strange as the whole idea of socially responsible consumption is really about consuming for social responsibility and consumers are expected to accept compromise or trade-off on non-socially responsible product features. If consumers reject the price hike or feature compromise in the socially responsible products, it might suggest that consumers assign equal weighting or utility between social responsible features and non-social responsible features. This again signals the way we should understand or model social responsible consumers should go beyond the world of ethicality and social responsibility. do Paço et al. (2013) suggest that while the socially responsible consumption is a complex system issue, a single behavioural model wouldn't cope with all the nested behavioural drivers and covariants. Therefore, the solution seems to develop a succinct behavioural model that considering the multiple motivates situations.

3.5 Classification

As the discussion of socially responsible consumption remains fragmented, the next effort is to look into how to classify socially responsible consumers. One venue is a quantitative threshold. The concept of socially responsible consumers gives the impression that they are capable of thoroughly considering the ethicality or social responsibility around their consumption.

However, most people might only consider one or two aspects of ethicality or social responsibility (Schlaile et al., 2018), for instance, fair trade and recycling. People rely on labels demonstrating socially responsible practices as being indicative of socially responsible consumption (Valor, 2008). Gregory-Smith et al. (2013) argue that any self-conscious behaviour is context-dependent rather than person-dependent, making it extremely problematic if the classification of socially responsible consumers is just a simple and binary code. In the domain of statistical classification, people are very accustomed to deploying methods or algorithms to classify samples into two or three categories, such as diabetes and non-diabetes. However, an oversight can occur when classifying items such as foods into a binary outcome. Telling people whether a food is "hot dog" or "not hot dog" provides very little practical value as the "not hot dog" label would just capture all the miscellaneous. Such classification bias can be seen in the study conducted by McDonald et al. (2006) on examining consumers through the lens of voluntary simplicity. They found that the majority of consumers were reported as being in the category of "beginner voluntary simplifiers", as they all evidenced a pattern of both socially responsible and irresponsible consumption. This shows that the category of "beginner voluntary simplifiers" would capture all the miscellaneous, with the two remaining categories being occupied by those who reported either only or never acting on social responsible consumption. This raises a paradox of socially responsible consumers. On one hand, if an individual who carefully looks at the all aspects of ethicality or social responsibility around their consumption is regarded as a socially responsible consumer, then people who only consider one or two sides will be disqualified as a socially responsible consumer. While the all-round threshold is a good way to motivate people to achieve more than just one aspect of social responsibility, it can prove too much for other individuals. On the other hand, if an individual who only considers one or two sides of ethicality or social responsibility around their consumption is regarded as a socially responsible consumer, it is impossible to mark the distinction between socially responsible and everyday consumers. Everyday consumers are fully capable of engaging in the same behaviours as socially responsible consumers, but without the glamorous title. The low threshold introduces a high incentive in motivating individuals to become socially responsible consumers, but it also artificially converts a large number of everyday consumers into something they already are (Gregory-Smith et al., 2013). This brings up the question of whether it is still meaningful to refer to individuals who often consider ethicality or social responsibility around the consumption as a partially socially responsible consumer, and more importantly, how much more involvement a consumer should

have to be regarded as being socially responsible (Carrigan and Attalla 2001; Newholm and Shaw, 2007). A concept or classification is truly meaningful when it serves the uniqueness. In the case of socially responsible consumer, it's hardly the case. It is possible that the existence of socially responsible consumers is either rare or overstated, but the higher prevalence of socially responsible consumers might suggest that a low threshold is implicitly promoted in classifying and discussing socially responsible consumers.

Another venue to look into when classifying socially responsible consumers is to determine the primary motivation driving their behaviours. The concept of socially responsible consumers gives the impression that ethicality or social responsibility always serve as the primary motivation to commit to socially responsible behaviours. However, the existence of attitude-behaviour gap suggests that consumers often fail to translate their intentions or attitudes about ethicality or social responsibility into the actual behaviours, even when they clearly express their commitment to socially responsible consumption (Devinney et al., 2012). One strong explanation is that ethicality or social responsibility is not often as effective as a primary motivation, despite the increasing number of socially responsible consumers feels like the rising of ethicality or social responsibility (Guarin and Knorringa 2014; Shaw et al., 2016). This means that there are other primary behavioural drivers that have possibly reinforced ethicality or social responsibility in motivating socially responsible consumption. Thøgersen et al. (2012) argued that socially responsible labels seem more like social signals as the surveyed participants showed no lag time in decision making during their routine shopping pathway. This raises the question that if the consumers really considered the green label critically or whether the meaning of a green label is consistent with their value orientation. Moreover, it seems that as long as socially responsible consumption has a shopping pathway no different from the everyday purchase of products or that socially responsible consumption creates no routine conflict, consumers would readily commit to socially responsible consumption (Thøgersen et al., 2010). Yet such a mindless consumption mode can be wrongly manipulated by other types of consumption, if critical thinking is actually minimal. In addition, consumers with high scores on socially responsible issues were often classified as innovators and early adopters (Thøgersen et al., 2010). This means that socially responsible consumption can be defined as a niche market or consumer segment. This is further reinforced by the finding by Cailleba and Casteran (2010), that fair trade was not only a niche market with a particular price segmentation, but also the least attractive attribute to motivate mainstream coffee buyers. In addition, Carrigan and de Pelsmacker (2009) raise concerns about the malleability of socially

responsible consumption under constraints such as a recession. This returns to Jung (2018)'s point that a freedom or space is needed to distinguish the socially responsible consumers from everyday consumers – the latter of which consider a variety of consumption modes such as one that is socially responsible when the economy is booming but quickly abandon it when the economy is in decline. More empirical studies are needed to determine the effectiveness from ethicality or social responsibility and other behavioural drivers in actually delivering the socially responsible behaviours. Nevertheless, this still raises another paradox about socially responsible consumers. If we look at the behavioural outcome of socially responsible consumers, we could easily refer to those who engage in socially responsible behaviours as socially responsible consumers. However, what if the people who performed socially responsible behaviours are motivated by behavioural drivers other than ethicality or socially responsibility and, in fact, ethicality or socially responsibility has little influence on the behaviours. That being the case, it is very unlikely we can refer to them as the socially responsible consumers.

One thought experiment is that a person buys a homeless person groceries and gives the homeless person a hug. However, it turns out that the person performing that behaviour was playing 'Truth or Dare' with his or her friends and the person was dared to help the homeless person. Once we learn that ethicality or socially responsibility was not the primary motivation of socially responsible behaviours, it is very unlikely that we can still refer that individual as being a socially responsible consumer. That is the same reason that we seldom refer corporations as socially responsible corporations, because we tend to recognise the potential dual motivation (being driven by issues such as profit or growth in addition to ethicality or socially responsibility) in corporate socially responsible behaviours. For socially responsible consumer research, the idea of dual motivation is often neglected, and more importantly, ethicality or socially responsibility may play a less significant role in driving socially responsible behaviours.

3.6 Conclusion

In conclusion, the idea of socially responsible consumers is to highlight the generation of consumers who start considering the impact of their consumption on themselves as well as the impact going beyond themselves, and more importantly, those who actually turn up in socially responsible consumption. According to the attitude-behaviour gap, individuals are more successful to declare their intention than action in socially responsible consumption. They either barely comprehend the concept or consciously use the power to vote or abstain

on socially responsible consumption. Such self-serving attitude gives a strong consumer voice in directing resource allocation on socially responsibility, but it also creates pockets of socially responsible consumption rather than coordinating outcomes. The real challenge remains in the qualification of socially responsible consumers. If the qualification is threshold-based, it's very likely to get high false positive (artificially converts everyday consumers into something they already are) or high false negative (ruthlessly disqualify a large number of consumers who just start considering one or two sides of ethicality or socially responsibility). If the qualification is based on the primary motivation underlying socially responsible consumption, ethicality and social responsibility seems less likely to survive in all forms of behavioural resistance and might require reinforcements from other behavioural drivers. In other words, ethicality or social responsibility could just be the byproducts of people's ordinary consumption rather than the prominent behavioural drivers at the wheel of socially responsible consumption. As a result, the concept of socially responsible consumers provides an ineffective classifier for consumers involved with socially responsible consumption. Furthermore, the concept remains value-laden and contention on priority setting, and perhaps it's more fruitful to explore how a dual process mechanism could warrant the actual behaviour (Cornish, 2013). Given the concept is less straightforward in practice, the constraints of the concept should start a rethink of the behavioural drivers in socially responsible consumption and which drivers are easier to establish the consensus and motivation among consumers.

4 Behavioural drivers

There's a vast number of behavioural drivers capable of motivating socially responsible consumption. Yet some are more commonly used than others in the literatures, and more importantly, some of the behavioural drivers have been consistently assembled into theoretical frameworks or recognised as an effective extension to the current theoretical framework. Before moving into the theoretical frameworks, we review the dominant behavioural drivers in exploring socially responsible consumption.

4.1 Values as a driver

Values related to ethics are often considered as the primary motivation to socially responsible consumption. There are several concepts have been used to capture ethical values involved in socially responsible consumption. They are including altruism, collectivism, hedonism, equality, welfare, law obedience, health and environmental consciousness. Schwartz (2012) noted that value-based behavioural drivers are relatively stable across time and are able to manifest across different situations. This means that individual value can be seen as a common navigating system for people's consumption. However, it's unlikely that everyone shares the same set of values and competing values can create gaps in socially responsible consumption. Moreover, value-based behavioural drivers seem to heavily rely on consumers' rational side but behavioural economics have consistently showed the dominance of their irrational side (Kahneman 2011; Thaler and Sunstein, 2009). The behavioural mechanism behind values is that consumers are made to realise their 'civic duty' and moral concerns. In return, they will direct their consumption more like political voters (Wright et al., 2006). In a way, the ethical values influence beliefs and the beliefs translate into intentions and the intentions dictates the individual consumptions (Shaw et al., 2006; Soper, 2007; Balderjahn et al., 2013; do Paço et al., 2013). One study examined the relationship between ethical values and socially responsible consumption through Green Party registered voters in California (Kahn, 2007). The self-declared Green Party registration enables an indirect comparison between residents with and without high environmentalism. The study found that the residents who registered as Green Party voters would use more public transit and less driving compared the residents who're not Green Party voters. Another study found that consumers were more likely to pursue energy efficient household appliances if they had declared beliefs associated with altruism (Nguyen et al., 2017). One study examined the relationship between ethical values and fair-trade non-

food products (Ma and Lee., 2012). It found that ethical values tend to have a positive effect on the attitude and intention to commit fair trade products. Another study examined the relationship between environmentally friendly products and green consumption values, which is the tendency to express the desire of environmental protection through the consumption and the preference for environmentally friendly products (Haws et al., 2014). The study found the green scale was highly correlated with the consumer preference for environmentally friendly products. Another form of value-based drivers discussed in the literatures by Azizan and Suki (2017) is religious value. The study shows that religiousity has a significant impact on the intention to purchase organic food, especially the role of halal and eco-labelling might potentially act like signalling consumers' interpretation of the products. When comparing whether Muslim and non-Muslim consumers on the intention of green food consumption, Muslim consumers follow a strict diet that complies with religious dietary laws.

There are three commonly cited, value-based behavioural drivers: egoistic, altruistic and biospheric (De Groot and Steg, 2009). The key distinction is that people with a strong egoistic value orientation are more likely to endorse the socially responsible consumption if the personal benefit outweighs the personal cost. Those with a strong altruistic or biospheric value orientation tend to endorse socially responsible consumption so long the collective benefits (either for the environment or for other individuals) are larger. Therefore, the common strategy to activate value-based behavioural drivers is to highlight altruistic or biospheric value as well as reduce the conflict of competing values. The rationale is that if the socially responsible consumption is only powered by egoistic orientation, that consumption can be fickle as the individual could cease that behaviour when the personal cost outweighs the personal benefit. In the case of people with a high altruistic or biospheric value orientation, they are expected to be more resilient to the change of personal circumstances. However, it remains unknown if people with high altruistic or biospheric value orientations would still be able to continue when they're under the influence of peer pressure, social norm or emotional-based behavioural drivers such as guilt or sadness. Although egoistic value orientation seems to oppose an altruistic and biospheric value orientation, one recent suggestion is that egoistic value orientation should still be tied to altruistic and biospheric values orientation when value priming is directed (De Groot and Steg, 2009). While this might be an attempt to stabilise the 'flicking personal situation' in egoistic value orientation, the opposite might be true in that an altruistic or biospheric value orientation might not be supported across situations.

Moral licensing

One recent emerging area highlighting the challenge of using ethicality or social responsibility as a primary behavioural driver is moral decoupling and moral licensing. Consumers can either isolate the ethical component out of the consumption or resist further socially responsible consumption if they feel they have been 'immunised' from a previous socially responsible consumption (Merritt et al., 2010; Campbell and Winterich., 2018; Chen et al., 2018). Also some consumers to commit their act as they feel they're being forced to accept someone's value orientation instead of their own, they would feel internal dissonance and compelled to deviate from the assigned or normative value orientation (Voyer, 2015). Bhattacharjee et al. (2012) shows that individuals can often come to the terms with the moral violation of their desired public figure and still show their endorsement. For example, despite the presidential impeachment Bill Clinton was still able to yield the highest approval rating since World War II. This shows why many sports fans remain faithful to their desired sport starts, such as Wayne Rooney, David Beckham, Kobe Bryant even they all found cheating in their marriage. One recent moral decoupling incident is Jay Z's cheating on his wife Beyoncé (Kaplan, 2018). While the moral violation was clear, there's very little condemnation or negative comments made towards Jay Z's behaviour. Moreover, Jay Z has become the first billionaire rapper after making the moral confession two years later. In 2019, a media investigation reached a similar conclusion on Facebook as its users remain on the rise despite the previous data privacy scandal (BBC, 2019). McDonald et al. (2015) suggest that most of consumers would experience cognitive dissonance on consumption touching on ethical or socially responsible issues. While different coping strategies have been attempted, there's no easy way to settle down or agree on what the best strategy is to overcome the dissonance. It just show that altruistic and biospheric value orientation are neither consistent nor resilient in helping people to navigate every socially responsible consumption. Given the diverse orientation in morality and ethics, consumers are expected to continue struggling with universal moral code and deviate their act depending on the consumption and context. In addition, the moral licensing might have a spillover and immunisation effect on the individuals (Engel and Szech, 2017). This means that consumers might not want to look into another socially responsible consumption any time soon or it would make them want to commit on socially irresponsible consumption. Hui et al. (2009) used in-store behavioural data to show that consumers tend to buy junk foods such as beer and ice cream after picking up virtue foods such as vegetables and organic food.

4.2 Attitudes as a driver

The theories most commonly used to explain behaviour mechanisms in consumption are the theory of reasoned action and the theory of planned behaviour (Carrington et al., 2010). The theory of reasoned action starts by decomposing the attitude-behaviour relationship into beliefs, attitudes, intentions and behaviour (Madden et al., 1992). It argues that individual behaviour is conditional on individual intentions while individual intentions are conditional on both individual attitudes and subjective norms (Olson and Zanna, 1993). This means that the intentions of socially responsible consumers are likely driven by personal values, internal ethics, and other similar internal factors. If an individual expresses his or her desire to commit to socially responsible consumption and if he or she truly believes that the action fits the social norm, that individual is more likely to match his or her behaviour with his or her socially responsible attitude. One of the main downsides is that the theory of reasoned action fails to take individual perceived behavioural control into account (Sideridis et al., 1998). For instance, a person with an addiction of conspicuous consumption may possess a positive attitude and strong intention to stop conspicuous consumption. However, many conspicuous consumers express a low level of perceived behavioural control of their conspicuous consumption addiction, creating an attitude-behaviour gap. Pagiaslis and Krontalis (2014) show that intentions to use and beliefs about biofuels have a significant positive relationship with the intention to willingly pay a premium price for those fuels. Another study examining the influence of consumer attitudes on the intention to purchase green products revealed that the greater the consumers' awareness of environment, greater their intention in purchases (Handayani, 2017). Göçer and Oflaç (2017) explored the factors influencing eco-labeled products in Turkey and found that the perceived environmental knowledge of young consumers had an positive relationship with tendencies to purchase eco-labeled products, with environmental concerns having a mediating effect. However, Nittala (2014) examined the relationship between environmental concerns and the willingness of university instructors to purchase green products and found that relationship was not significant. Uusitalo and Oksanen (2004) found that common problems when examining the link between consumer attitude and intention in socially responsible consumption were a lack of knowledge about actual purchasing behaviour and reliable information about products related to socially responsibility. Moreover, Leonidou et al. (2015) argue that consumer attitudes related to ethical and social responsibility are not free from influence; there are background forces that are often neglected that are in fact responsible for motivation. This raises the fundamental question of how we could possibly

know that consumers' attitudes only reflect one aspect of social responsibility while being unaware of other elements present when they choose socially responsible consumption.

The planned behaviour theory is built on the theory of reasoned action (Madden et al., 1992). By including the component of individual perceived behaviour control, the theoretical model more comprehensively addresses the attitude-behaviour gap (Sideridis et al., 1998). Recent evidence has continually shown the positive relationship between consumer attitude concerning socially responsibility and socially responsible consumption. A study examining the relationship between environmental attitudes and behaviour shows that the environmental attitudes had a positive relationship with a high degree of collectivism and law obedience, but more importantly, it's a significant impact on the adoption of the environmental behaviour (Leonidou et al., 2010). Another study examining the relationship between the attitude and environmentally friendly products found that people who had a more approving attitude tend to have a higher likelihood to buy environmentally friendly products (Cheah and Phau, 2011). Another study examining consumer attitude and willingness to pay a premium for a local and organic cotton shirt (Ha-Brookshire and Norum, 2011). It shows that people with high socially responsible attitudes tend to have a higher willingness to pay a premium for the apparel. Finally, consumers who believe they have the ability to affect social responsible issues are more likely to commit to socially responsible consumption (Antonetti and Maklan, 2014). However, attitudes are often failed to translate into actual behaviours, particularly when consumers face abundant ethical prepositions (Uusitalo and Oksanen, 2004). Another challenge in examining consumer attitude concerning socially responsibility and socially responsible consumption is common method bias (Strizhakova and Coulter, 2013; Tsarenko et al., 2013; He et al., 2016; Nguyen et al., 2017). Researchers tend to measure the consumer attitude and behavioural outcome through the same survey and the correlation is obviously expected to be positive. Also the actual behavioural outcome is based on self-reported measure and seldom verified.

4.3 Goal as a driver

Consumer behaviour is often no different from many of human endeavours – it's considered to be a goal-directed activity (Bagozzi and Dholakia, 2005; Aarts and Custers, 2012). Haugtvedt et al. (2018) once quoted Aristotle as saying (1953, p. 3), "every act and every investigation, and similarly every action and pursuit, is considered to aim to some good … Happiness, then, is found to be something perfect and self-sufficient, being the end to which our actions are directed" (1953, p. 15). Between the beginning and the end of a pursuit, goals are arranged

in order of priority or a hierarchical structure; they'd face resistance as well as reinforcement from all types of sources and either arrive at their destination or completely deviate into another direction. It's the simplicity of the mechanics that have made goals effective as a primary behavioural driver for socially responsible consumption. Goals are established from self-determination, participation or assignation (Locke and Latham, 2002). Self-determined goals are the most immediate source for goal-directed behaviour (Locke and Latham, 2002). This occurs when consumers develop priorities based on their needs, desire or intention. For example, when a consumer feels hungry, he or she may establish a goal to go out for food. Assigned goal is often involved with external stakeholders, such as authorities, professionals, managers or social group (Locke and Latham, 2002). For example, a consumer may consult a doctor to establish a goal to eat healthily. Participative goals are a joint goal setting process between self-determination and assignation (Tubbs, 1986). The behaviour performance set by a participative goal is superior to the behaviour performance set by an assigned goal when the goal is established in a blunt manner (Tubbs, 1986). However, when the assigned goal is given with a clear rationale, it can reach the same behaviour performance as the one set by participative goals (Locke et al., 1988). Subsequent research has shown that participation in goal setting tends to increases self-efficacy, and it, in return, leads to a higher performance (Locke and Latham, 2002). Thus, self-efficacy is a mediator in the participative goal relationship. When setting an assigned goal, one must try to increase the self-efficacy of the individuals for the task. McCalley and Midden (2002) show that self-assigned and assigned by others goal pursuers were both able to reduce their energy use significantly. Given the nature of the experiment, the goal in the conceptual framework is the assigned goal.

Goals should also be specific, challenging and salient if the goals are considered to be effective in motivating individual behaviours (Locke and Latham, 2002). Most people tend to have a vague goal such as 'do your best' (Locke and Latham, 2015). The difference is that trying your best cannot provide explicit evaluation for an individual, while a goal with a specific reference point can help individuals strive and improve (Wood et al., 1987). When comparing a group with and without a goal, the group without a goal is always asked to 'do your best'. An earlier study related to socially responsible consumption found that setting a goal to recycle a specific waste was able to increase citizen participation significantly (Folz and Hazlett, 1991). Strecher et al. (1995) found a similar effect of goal priming in healthy diet when compared participants with no goals or vague goals. One energy conservation studies found that households with a stated goal saved more energy (Van Houwelingen et al., 1989). While the nature of goal

setting seems to impose no impact on the energy saving, as participants with either a self-determined or assigned goal saved relatively the same amount of the energy, individuals with a pro-self attitude saved more energy under a self-determined goal and individuals with a pro-social attitude saved more energy under an assigned goal (McCalley and Midden, 2002). However, one recent study found that consumers would find greater values if they see the goal as self-determined rather than imposed (Wehmeyer et al., 2011). As consumers on a shopping trip often have vague goals, coupons have been shown to improve goal developing (Lee and Ariely, 2006). By applying an endowed progress effect in goal setting (giving two stamps first on a car wash loyalty card), consumers were reported to show greater persistence towards goals (fulfilling the remaining stamps on the loyalty card) (Nunes and Drèze, 2006). A recent study found that visual representations of goal progress can enhance the motivation of goal striving (Cheema and Bagchi, 2011), for instance, setting discrete subgoals or using a high-low range goal (lose 3 – 5 pounds) rather than a precise number (Gal and McShane 2012; Scott and Nowlis, 2013). Alternatively, a consumer could focus on the smaller amount of the goal progress (what has been stamped versus what is left on the reward card) (Koo and Fishbach, 2012). One potential explanation for the success of loyalty cards is that the fixed sequence of subgoals is more likely to facilitate goal completion compared to a flexible goal structure (Jin et al., 2013). Another way to understand feedback in goal mechanism is self-regulation. To engage in socially responsible consumption, individuals don't just need a new target or the willingness to make change. They also need a way to consolidate their attention (Sekerka et al., 2015). Schweitzer et al. (2004) found that when people fail to reach their goals, they're more likely to record unethical behaviours than people who just tried their best in post-goal pursuit. Miniero et al. (2014) found that strategically oriented individuals, who share the characteristics of high self-regulation, tend to find ways to overcome resistance to reach their goals. This is why gamification is becoming popular in consumer behaviour as it signals the individuals to gather feedback and find ways to reach their goal. One potential self-regulation is social media; as Sekerka et al. (2015) argued, it gives the goal pursuers demonstrative or visual feedback. Beside self-regulation, goal salience is another way to maximise the likelihood of succeeding in the pursuit of a goal. Hamilton and Biehal (2005) showed that, by making the goal salient through advertisement, consumers are more likely to consider the pros and cons of their consumption and decide if they should act on one that is particularly socially responsible. Gal and McShane (2012) found that highlighting sub-goals in debt management motivated individuals to clear their debt. Ariely and Norton (2009) described a similar study in which, by

highlighting individualised instead of aggregated victims, such as providing more personalized information about particular victim, donations became significantly more generous.

Goal intentions is not sufficient for completing a goal-directed behaviour (Fennis et al., 2011). This means that goal needs to work with other behavioural drivers to reinforce the motivation. Aarts and Custers (2012) examined past and current goal-priming effects and found that human goal pursuit was more often inspired by unconscious sources. In other words, people are exposed to all kinds of goals via their subconscious radar; these goals can be activated without the knowledge of the individuals (Chartrand et al., 2008). This is sometimes referred as goal contagion (Laurin, 2016), which is a phenomenon in which individuals can unconsciously adopt the goals of others. Therefore, Laran (2016) suggested that goal-based consumer behaviours should be examined through both conscious and unconscious behavioural drivers because the unconscious behavioural mechanism tends to capture a great deal of background information, as well as being affected by inexplicit influences. This dual system approach is like using a Google map app used to determine or simulate how a goal pursuer navigate over situational blocks or incidents to arrive at their destination. The ultimate route might not necessarily the most cost-efficient in terms of energy, but it might offer the most emotionally satisfying scenery. Goal setting is prone to situational influences, such as managing financial risk (Hamilton and Biehal, 2005). When an investment is framed as a trading account, consumers were shown to make riskier decisions than when they were placed into a retirement account (Zhou and Pham, 2004). Tate et al. (2014) found that those who were primed to undertake an environmental-protection goal through situational messaging tend to take longer to evaluate their decision, which often leads to pro-environmental consumption. In the failure of restrained eating, eating environments, including food smell, menu and dining area, often make the goal of eating enjoyment salient but reduce the goal of restraining eating (Stroebe et al., 2008; van Koningsbruggen et al., 2013). However, when consumers were previously exposed to non-actionable food temptations, they were prone to consumption now while being more resistant when they were exposed to actionable food temptations first (Geyskens et al., 2008). One indication is that there can be a passive guidance mechanism unconsciously directing individuals in the situation of goal conflict (Laran and Janiszewski, 2009). In their review of goal-setting studies over a decade, Locke and Latham (2015) identified goal strength as a behavioural driver involving the ability to highlight and consolidate one's consciousness. However, that strength is also the biggest weakness of goal as a behavioural driver because it only stresses conscious thought, leaving goal-setting exposed to the influence of unconscious-

ness. Therefore, the potential solution or integration for a goal-based theoretical framework is to embrace both consciousness and unconsciousness as one gives individual a purpose while the latter carries all of the background information, as well as, at least potentially, other unseen influences. Like Newton's Laws, when considering a goal-based theoretical framework, Locke and Latham (2015) argued that the theory might be applicable in most of situations but understanding the boundary conditions is the key. In other words, it is necessary to understand in what context or situation a goal works best and interacts with other behavioural drivers. In addition, according to Locke and Latham (2002), the presence or absence of a goal can predict individual personality effects.

4.3.1 Hypothesis 1

The results of research done on value-based and goal pursuit found in the literature formed the basis of the first hypothesis, i.e., that positive goal priming will lead to higher socially responsible consumption. The intention of that hypothesis is to make a contribution by examining socially responsible consumption through the lens of goal pursuit, as the common understanding is that consumers will direct their consumption in a way similar to those voting in an election when they are made to realise and accept both their 'civic duty' and moral concerns. In a way, ethical values influence beliefs, beliefs translate into intentions and intentions dictate individual consumption (Shaw et al., 2006; Soper, 2007; Balderjahn et al., 2013; do Paço et al., 2013). The remaining challenge is how to place the intention to adhere to socially responsible consumption as well as the resultant self-realisation into a consumer context. That can be achieved via goal priming, which can serve as the natural behavioural vehicle to initiate an individual's socially responsible behaviour. In the theoretical framework of understanding socially responsible consumption, goal priming involves establishing a solid foundation for examining that consumption, one that can be expanded upon in future research. Therefore, the study aims to compare the goal priming on the socially responsible consumptions with a control case. In the intervention group, the participants were asked if they were interested in taking up a goal pursuit to become more socially responsible and, in two weeks, retake the survey to gauge their progress. Once the participants completed the questionnaire, they chose their reimbursement individually. In the control group, the participants were given no goal priming; they were only invited to complete a questionnaire at their convenience and simply collect a reimbursement. We predict that it's very likely that the effect of priming a socially responsible goal is positively associated with the socially responsible behaviour.

4.4 Situations as a driver

Situational drivers refer to the contextual influence that consumers can potentially encounter. Contrasting to conscious information processing, situational drivers are subtle, unconscious, and activating social conformity as well as the automatic goal pursuit within the individuals (Dijksterhuis et al., 2005; Dahl et al., 2016). For socially responsible consumers, they are susceptible to situational influences like everyday consumers (Schultz et al., 1995; JK Simpson and Radford, 2014). Situational drivers are multilevel (Nair and Little, 2016), as the behavioural drivers tend to interact across multiple levels (Milfont and Markowitz, 2016). At higher level, situational drivers can expand into social, economic, political, technological, temporal, media, government, cultural influence, lifestyle (Lee, 2010; Chen and Lobo, 2010). One recent study examined pro-environmental behaviour between French and Slovenian consumers (Culiberg and Elgaaied-Gambier, 2016). It found that Slovenians consumers were more likely to score higher than average in self-reported pro-environmental behaviour than French consumers. In other countries, cultural difference have been consistently highlighted. Cho and Krasser (2011) found that consumers in Austrian had a greater motivation to engage in socially responsible consumerism than did consumers in South Korea. Dermody et al. (2015) also found that, compared to their UK counterparts, Chinese consumers tended to express more desire for symbolic as well as socially responsible consumption. This might be due to cultural differences in defining well-being. Hamelin et al. (2013) showed that the idea of socially responsible consumption in Moroccan consumers is based on both environment and religion. When expanding the concept into food, it's just really about safety standards. Morren and Grinstein (2016) conducted a meta-analysis on environmental behaviours; their findings supported the "affluence hypothesis", i.e., that people in countries with high socioeconomic status are more likely to act on environmental behaviours. Moreover, people in countries with high individualistic traits are more likely to act on environmental behaviours, compared to those in countries with high collectivistic traits. However, the effect of culture differences might just be due to variances in translation (Erffmeyer et al., 1999).

At individual level, situational drivers are often discussed in relation to the presence of others or engagement. One study examined the bystander effect in helping and found that people who live in a large urban area tend to experience more bystander effect than people living in small villages (Janssen and Vanhamme, 2015). Such effect is also said to hold in online social world (Voelpel et al., 2008). Dahl et al. (2016) noted that some socially responsible behaviours, such as weight loss interventions, can be delivered through social media platforms, which

can allow individuals to overcome access barriers and reach more target groups. Another way to examine the impact of situational variables is focused on the context the socially responsible consumption is conceived. For example, a review study of food consumption context found that food size, plate shape, lighting, dining groups and food variety can have a significant impact on the amount of food consumption (Wansink, 2004). Also the layout of food choices could alter how consumers approach healthy foods (Wilcox et al., 2009). One consumption situation is involved with special objects drawing the consumers. For instance, a study examined food shape abnormality and purchase intention and found that only large deviations in food shape influence purchase decisions, but not small deviations (Loebnitz et al., 2015). Participatory situation remains a powerful means to increasing the likelihood of socially responsible consumption. One study recommends nonprofit sectors to consider introducing participatory situation for potential donors as it found that consumers would have a higher likelihood to respond to the social responsible campaign when they are given the choice to nominate their own sponsored cause (Howie et al., 2018). Such effect was referred as Ikea effect (Norton et al., 2010). The original study showed that consumers tend to express a higher valuation on their own creating products than the given products despite all the associated cost. The participatory situation activates the self-consciousness and make the consumers more appreciative and mindful. There are some situational drivers that are psychological. Ertz et al. (2016) examined consumer perceptions in relation to socially responsible consumption and found that the perception consumers have of time, money, and power can have a significant impact on cardboard and used batteries recycling. While situational priming are effective on motivating socially responsible consumption, one study examining the impact of the choices made by others found that there was a strong heterogeneity across different consumer groups and segmentation is the key to dissect the underlying threshold (Wheeler and Berger, 2007). One way to explore the heterogeneity is through personality traits (Haws et al., 2012). For instance, Narcissism is one personality trait that have shown a positive relationship with prosocial behaviours committing in public (Naderi and Strutton, 2014). Other situational drivers are including emotional situation, such as dire situation or opportunistic situation. Goal contagion is another effective situational driver (Aarts et al., 2004; Reis and Holmes, 2012). Consumers deal with multiple goals each day – shopping, dining, watching television, and they do it in either isolation or group. Yet they are very likely to adopt another person's goal when they are becoming deeply involved with each other. Sela and Shiv (2009) shows that goal-directed behaviour can be activated

through subtle environmental cues, such as semantic activation. One advancement from goal contagion in socially responsible consumption is collaborative consumption (Lamberton, 2016). It describes a goal sharing form of consumption involved with car sharing, community gardens and toy. One recent study shows that when people were first in a shared pursuit, they developed a tendency to seek support and alleviate uncertainties as 'friends' (Huang et al., 2015). However, the sharing dynamic was soon reduced when people were more advanced and more thoroughly comprehended goal striving. Papies (2016) found that environmental cues were more likely to activate short-term hedonic goals than long-term investment goals. Knox et al. (2011) examined different types of household goals (such as abstract or detailed goals) assigned to shopping trips across four countries. They found that unplanned consumption was significantly higher when the goal was abstract, an effect that was sustained across all four countries. Malti and Dys (2018) cited that infants and young children could demonstrate prosocial behaviours toward their close peers who also showed patterns of prosocial behaviour. This reminds us that, for consumers, the most frequently seen situational factor is social situations causing them to become involved with others.

4.4.1 Presence of others

The presence of others often brings up a different nature of situational influence (O'Fallon and Butterfield, 2005; Handayani, 2017). For instance, an experiment on the presence of others, conducted by Triplett (1898), showed that cyclists were able to complete their goals in their best time when they competed against others but the cyclists significantly underperformed when they competed in isolation. The presence of other riders was a stimulus to the competitive instinct as well as a motivation to match their efforts. Another study of the effect of the presence of others is the tipping effect between individual customers and customers in a group (Lynn and Latane, 1984). The study showed that single customers, tipping an average of 19%, were the most generous, while groups of diners (four or more), tipping an average of 11%, were the least generous. The presence of others tended to reduce individual contributions, an effect that was particularly significant when the size of the group increased. One explanation is that people in a group are under the impression that others can always contribute more. The tipping predicament has led many restaurants to impose a mandatory tip policy on large parties (Lynn and McCall, 2000). Another study examined the relationship between food consumption and the body type of others in presence (McFerran et al., 2009). People tend to lower their portion size when they face an 'obese' group but often match the

portion size when they see people with similar size selects a large quantity. Goldstein et al. (2008) showed that, by just learning about the behaviours of others, the likelihood of hotel guests' reusing their hotel towels significantly increased. In a study using in-store field data of the grocery stores, the presence of other shoppers was able to attract more consumers (Hui et al., 2009). A similar social norm has been observed in donation (Small and Cryder, 2016). When individuals are made aware with others giving less than they considered, they would match to the lower donation. Vice versa. One recent study explored the group effect in dining and found that men were under a different consumption goal in dining (Kniffin et al., 2016), as they consumed 93% more pizza and 86% more salad when dining with a woman than dining with men; women consumed relatively the same, regardless of the gender of their dining partners and food types. Finally, the closeness of a relationship can determine the effect of the presence of others (Cavanaugh, 2016). The closer the relationship, the more likely individuals would make similar choices in terms of goal pursuit and consumption. The motivation is the desire to make a good impression on one's social circle. Therefore, consumption seen in closer relationships often involves the purchase of gifts or consumption shared with family and friends. O'Neill (2012) suggested that peer influence is one of the key contributors to childhood obesity as children tend to mirror eating behaviours such as food choice and quantity with their friends. Wansink and Chandon (2014) found a similar effect in adults as people would adjust both their manner and quantity of consumption according to their dining peers. Wang and Yu (2017) shows that peer influence can go beyond food consumption as there's a similar effect among younger generations when they consider fashion purchases. One of the most common ways to experience peer influence is on social media platforms such as Instagram. Tsarenko et al. (2013) showed that self-image is critical to influencing environmentally conscious behaviour but the effect was relatively small compared to concerns for the environment. Salazar et al. (2013) referred to behaviours influenced by colleagues, family and friends as "herd behaviour" or social learning, finding it had a significant impact on the intention to purchase environmentally friendly products. As a result, the goal of individual consumption can deviate in the presence of others and possibly be substituted by a new goal.

The effect of the presence of others has not always been consistent in the evidence (Uziel, 2007). On one hand, the positive effect of the presence of others was reported in cases of taking a test in a classroom or cycling with friends. One study showed that when people were being watched exercising in a weight room, they were able to lift heavier weights (Strauss, 2002). On the other hand, contradicting evidence showed that the presence of others could simulta-

neously induce both a positive and negative impact (Aiello and Douthitt, 2001). One study showed that although people in groups were able to produce higher scores than individuals in isolation, the quality of products were much lower compared to the ones produced by isolation (Allport, 1920). This contradicting evidence was later explained by Zajonc (1965) through the difference between social facilitation and social interference (Markus, 1978). When the task is familiar to the individual and is dependent on instinctual responses, such as lifting weights, bicycling, or eating rapidly, people perform better on particular tasks in the presence of a group. This is referred as social facilitation. When the task is unfamiliar to the individual and is dependent on novel responses, such as solving math problems or writing poetry, people perform worse on particular tasks in the presence of a group. This is regarded as social interference. One meta-analysis of 241 different studies involving 24,000 participants showed that the effect of social facilitation was strongest when speed and quantity counted more than correctness and quality (Bond and Titus, 1983). It is clear that group effect is not always as productive as individual. When group effect is less productive, it is often due to a faulty group process related to process losses and coordination losses (Williams et al., 1981). There is a possible moderating effect from gender, ethnicity or means of interaction. Hui et al. (2014) noted a number of performance deviations among different demographic groups. For example, female participants showed a worse performance after interacting with a dominant-fashion man; participants from minority racial groups showed a better performance if they felt a strong sense of belonging; and participants showed a worse performance during awkward interpersonal interactions with others. Social loafing is another manifestation that downplaying the individual effort when people work in a group (Karau and Williams, 1993). When people believe their distinct efforts are identifiable, that their effort will make a difference and the task is relevant to themselves, they tend to get motivated to contribute to the group. Another situation is that people become less likely to conform when the people in presence have completed their consumption (Tu and Fishbach, 2015). It is possible that the rise of socially responsible consumption is driven by situational factors such as the presence of others. The possibility of connecting with others or having a virutal presence in the social circle has become easier in recent years. The ice-bucket challenge is one symbolic example of tagging friends and colleagues and posting videos on social media to facilitate altruism (Konrath et al., 2016). In addition to the ice-bucket challenge, there were other social media-facilitated consumer campaigns, such as the Movember campaign and No Makeup campaign (Payne et al., 2014).

4.4.2 Hypothesis 2

Literature speaking to the effect of the presence of others formed the basis of the second hypothesis the positive presence of others will lead to higher socially responsible consumption. Finding support for that hypothesis will make a contribution by exploring the effect of introducing a second behavioural driver on socially responsible behaviour. The extension is focused on the non-deterministic nature, such as situational factors (Belk, 1975; Carrington et al., 2010). The common understanding is people tend to adjust how they behave in reference to the people that surround them and the environment in which that behaviour is taking place. In a study using in-store field data of the grocery stores, the presence of other shoppers was able to attract more consumers (Hui et al., 2009). A similar social norm has been observed in donation (Small and Cryder, 2016). When individuals are made aware with others giving less than they considered, they would match to the lower donation. Vice versa. When people were assigned to eat with an 'obese' group, they tend to lower their portion size but often match the portion size when they see people with similar size selects a large quantity (McFerran et al., 2009). Wansink and Chandon (2014) also found a similar effect in adults as people would adjust both their manner and quantity of consumption according to their dining peers. Another way to explain people adjusting their consumption in reference to the people and place surrounding is "herd behaviour". Salazar et al. (2013) found "herd behaviour" or social learning, whose behaviours influenced by colleagues, family and friends, had a significant impact on the intention to purchase environmentally friendly products. This suggests that the closeness of a relationship can also facilitate the effect of the presence of others on individuals making similar choices in terms of goal pursuit and consumption (Cavanaugh, 2016). The motivation is the desire to make a good impression on one's social circle. Therefore, consumption seen in closer relationships often involves the purchase of gifts or consumption shared with family and friends. For those individuals who had already formed a group relationship, the "herd behaviour" can potentially form a group identity and the individuals would wrestle with the qualifications and emotions of group membership as part of identity enactment (Coleman and Williams, 2013). The idea of the belongingness in a group is likely to motivate the individuals to conform to group behaviour (White and Simpson, 2013; Sekerka et al., 2015; Yang et al., 2015). A recently developed theoretical framework built on the interdependency of personal and situational components clearly noted situational factors as significant elements in understanding socially responsible consumption (Carrington et al., 2010; Hassan et al., 2016; Grimmer and Miles, 2017). The second hypothesis is built on the

first hypothesis in that its goal is to determine the effect of simple goal priming on social responsibility while adding a second behavioural driver of group priming. The study aims to compare the intervention group for the group priming studies with a control case. In the group priming, the participants were either recruited as a group or invited to join a group of between three and five participants. The participants were asked if they were interested in taking up a goal pursuit to become more socially responsible and, in two weeks, retake the survey to gauge their progress. They then completed the questionnaire together and had 5 minutes to consider their reimbursement choice in the presence of others. In the control group, the participants were only invited to complete a questionnaire at their convenience and simply collect a reimbursement. We predict that the effect of having the presence of others is positively associated with the socially responsible behaviour.

4.5 Ego and identity as a driver

Ego and identity are two behavioural drivers that share similar aspects of manifestation. First, egotism: it shares many characteristics of narcissism – with its emphasis on the self and its exaggeration (Zaharia and Zaharia, 2015). In the context of socially responsible consumption, egotism and narcissism are often used interchangeably, such consumption being increasingly discussed with altruism. Altruism is considered to be one of the main primary motivations for socially responsible consumption. Yet, recent studies have shown that the primary motivation in socially responsible consumption is more like a joint calibration between altruism and egotism (Janssen and Vanhamme, 2015; Kulow and Kramer, 2016; Barbarossa and De Pelsmacker, 2016). One study examined organic food consumption in a young population in India (Yadav, 2016). It found that both altruism and egotism were shown to have a positive impact on the intention of organic food consumption, but the larger effect came from egotism as younger participants preferred to evaluate their consumption through their own interest first.

Second, identity: in socially responsible consumption, identity can often be divided into personal identity and group identity (Dermody et al., 2015; Loebnitz et al., 2015; Reese and Kohlmann, 2015). With personal identity, the behavioural mechanism is often associated with social signalling and comparison (Sääksjärvi et al., 2016). Consumers are more likely to commit a socially responsible act of consumption when a distinctive identity of themselves, such as music or hairstyles, gets highlighted (Berger and Heath, 2007). Such self-presentation is particularly salient in younger consumers, as older consumers tend to develop a resistance to

change (Hwang, 2016). Nguyen et al. (2017) examined the relationship between environmental self-identity and green purchase behaviour among young consumers in Vietnam. The finding shows that environmental self-identity, which is to consider the environmental impact into self-judgement, has the most predicting power in green purchase behaviour. As a result, the newly emerging identity of socially responsible consumers is more likely to be adopted by younger consumers. Another self-presentation behaviour case is charitable donation. In the US and UK, charitable donation is closely associated with tax incentives. Identity signalling has motivated individuals to demand naming rights of building or stadium (Small and Cryder, 2016), while they broadcast their 'grand gesture' or donation through social or other media. As to the fundraisers, they often choose to reinforce identity signalling, making more potential donors aware of the donation. One explanation for the attitude-behaviour gap is the failure of embracing identity signalling (Hillenbrand and Money, 2015). Many socially responsible consumption campaigns target normative identity (i.e., ideal/expected) but they often leave the individuals to interpret the connection between the ethical value of consumption and the identity of themselves (Du et al., 2015). For example, self-identified Apple fans tend to improve their identity by owning the latest release of Apple products as well as preserving their brand loyalty by choosing their consumption within the range of Apple products. In another example, van der Wal et al. (2016) showed that when consumers shopped at a high-status sustainable grocery, they were more likely to use the shop-branded bags than people shopped at a low-status sustainable grocery. In other words, the branded shopping bags were often used as an identity for people who could afford to shop at the high-status store. This is an extension of a previous finding that consumers of high-status sustainable grocery are more likely to utilise new bags than recycle those that had been used previously. It shows that individuals often exploit some of the features of sustainable consumption, such as bag consumption, to signal their status through conspicuous conservation. Another study looked at the relationship between identity and intentions towards green consumption. It found that the green consumption would vary on the salience of personal identity; the stronger the personal identity, the stronger the impact on green consumption appeared to be (Costa Pinto et al., 2016). Dagher and Itani (2014) also found a significant relationship between green purchasing behaviour and concern for self-image in Lebanese consumers. The effect on personal identity can also be induced by external forces, often referred to as the identifiable victim effect. By making the victim identifiable, such as those with certain life-threatening diseases, people would show a much higher likelihood to make a donation than to donate

to charitable organisations (Ein-Gar and Levontin, 2013). Personal identity can often go beyond the common extent. Belk (2016) referred to this as the extended self, which means that people can experience a sense of ownership in their thinking, mind, body, and social circle. For example, Kettle and Häubl (2011) examined the impact of name signing and consumption, finding that consumers became more engaged with consumption when they used their signature. Lee et al. (2014) noted that consumers with a strong moral identity would not engage in charitable donations if they felt the recipients should have taken better responsibility for themselves. That effect only changed when participants with a strong moral identity recalled their own failings, regardless of recipient responsibility.

Group identity is often involved with the belongingness of a group, but more importantly, it is about social conformation (Sekerka et al., 2015; Yang et al., 2015). For example, Individuals tend to conform to group behaviour when what others think one should do and/or what others are doing are highlighted (White and Simpson, 2013). When an individual interacts with a group identity, they tend to wrestle with the qualifications and emotions of group membership as part of identity enactment (Coleman and Williams (2013). One study examined the relationship between identity and donations across in-groups and out-groups. While both are positively associated with moral identity, female participants tended to make more donations to the out-groups while male participants tended to make more donations to in-groups (Winterich et al., 2009). Another study examined global cultural identity and environmentally friendly tendencies. In emerging markets, individuals with a global cultural identity tend to have greater environmentally friendly tendencies and materialism (Strizhakova and Coulter, 2013). However, one study suggested that when individuals face identity conflict with a place, for instance, wearing gym clothes in a luxury boutique, it could spur those individuals to protect their individual identity through conspicuous consumption (Bellezza et al., 2014). In addition, Reese and Kohlmann (2015) showed that people who identify with stronger ties with other human beings are more willing to sacrifice their own benefit and choose a fair trade product. Lee et al. (2016) also found that place-linked identity can have a significant impact on sustainable consumption behaviour. When the individuals have a stronger ties with individuals and their communities, they tend to have a positive attitude to sustainable consumption.

Identity theory is highly dependent on how the individuals want to highlight their "self" – possession or belonging. The challenge for identity theory is whether we should just focus on social signal theory. Given that everyone has multiple identities, individuals tend to just

keep switching their identities according to the situations. For example, Prius and BMW might indicate two complete different identities. However, Escalas et al. (2013) suggest that someone might choose to drive a Prius for work but a BMW for dating. This means that the individuals want to signal their aspect of their life through their consumption. Westgate and Holliday (2016) finds individuals often use their alcohol consumption posts on social media to signal their offline identities. For conspicuous consumption (buying luxury goods), one might argue that people only consume luxury goods to portray their wealthy identity. However, it can also be explained by pure "social signalling" (Wang and Griskevicius, 2013), such as men use conspicuous consumption to signal their capability for marriage/mating and women use conspicuous consumption to signal partner loyalty and create deterrence for partner poaching. Savary et al. (2015) finds that by including self-signalling in prosocial promotion can increase more donation than just simply tempting the altruistic motivate. However, the challenge remains how we could determine which identity will turn up in what situation. Moreover, there's no clear identity structure on how different dimensions of identity, such as social identity, moral identity, group identity fall into the hierarchy (Huffman et al., 2003).

4.6 Signalling as a driver

Socially responsible consumption can be seen as a part of the social signalling process concerning status seeking, identity seeking and conspicuous conservation (Griskevicius et al., 2007; Ariely et al., 2009; Sexton and Sexton, 2014; Brick et al., 2017). The idea is that a signal is a costly action that alleviates asymmetrical information; that information must be credible in order to for the signal to work (Ariely et al., 2009). For example, Hyundai deployed a sales promotion offering "America's Best Warranty"; that warranty acted as a signal to consumers about their quality of their cars (Melewar et al., 2007). The comprehensive warranty means the car manufacturer has a strong faith in their product's quality. Before the signal, only Hyundai held that view; after the signal, Hyundai hoped that more and more consumers would start considering the choice of a Hyundai car. Signalling theory has also been applied in degree consumption, Nobel Prize winner Michael Spence (1978) found that education is not only able to provide individuals with skills and knowledge, but can also signal potential employment traits, such as determination, intelligence, social skills, etc. Thorstein Veblen (2015), who coined the term "conspicuous consumption", said that "redounded to their glory, and now the middle class was using its newfound wealth to purchase elite status." This suggests that when a society is making advances in their socio-economic progress, making their

middle-class consumers relatively stable, the consumers are expected to look for new ways to seek status and identity, as well as to engage in conspicuous conservation behaviours. Socially responsible consumption could be one of those "traffic lights" most of middle class consumers need. For example, Small and Cryder (2016) showed that when philanthropists are given naming rights to buildings and parks, their donations tend to be larger. The reason is that the naming right enables the philanthropists to signal their generosity in public domains, such as newspapers or social media. Berman et al. (2015) examined the similar effect of bragging on prosocial behavior. The finding shows that bragging about one's generosity can provide a positive effect to the actor when their prosocial behaviour was previously unknown to peers but the effect is reversed when the prosocial behaviour is already well known. Weijters et al. (2014) showed that, compared to young adults, middle-aged online music consumers were more willing to pay for advertising-free platforms. Although it would seem that middle-aged online music consumers are more conscious about consumer privacy or fair pay to musicians, it is more likely that they don't have the same financial burdens and can send a signal of higher social status. Puska et al. (2018) found evidence of the signalling effect in organic consumption. When the consumers were primed with a desire for high status, they tended to opt for organic rather than non-organic food. The reason is again that organic food consumption gives a costly signal about their lifestyle status. Griskevicius et al. (2010) argued that people who own hybrid gas–electric cars, such as the Toyota Prius, do not necessarily score high in environmental conservation. However, a Toyota Prius is expensive, so ownership enables the car owners to not only enjoy its fuel-efficient utility, but also to give a higher social status signal to their peers. A similar observation can be said to Yan et al's (2010) study on the purchase intentions of young consumers toward American apparel. The finding shows that the consumer motivation in young people was heavily linked to consumer perceptions of source credibility, but it failed to reject the possibility of status seeking in young people about their lifestyle traits, such as spending power. Harris et al. (2016) also examined the ethical fashion myth through semi-structured interviews, finding that fewer fashion consumers were aware of the association between fashion and socially responsible consumption. Moreover, consumers tend to have a complicated and varying ethical value orientation from each other. For example, a fashion brand might do well in terms of sourcing locally (low carbon footprint) and using recycled materials (recycling materials) but it can still be rejected by some fashion consumers on the issues of labour wage and data privacy. If most fashion consumers happen to converge their ethical value orientation into one single brand, it's most likely that the brand

emits a strong signal to their social circles, rather than offering a thorough ethical warranty. One new signalling effect is "the Red Sneakers effect" (Bellezza et al., 2014), which is associated with a non-conforming behaviour. When a customer enters an expensive restaurant or a professor enters a lecture room wearing a T-shirt and jeans, that nonconforming behaviour can act as a costly signal and create an unexpectedly positive impact on how others value this person's status and competence. The reason is that the social norm is often well-known – how you should conduct yourself. However, if someone is willing to break the social norm, they're have either high confidence or high achievements so they can excuse themselves or create their own norm. One potential linkage is between the Red Sneakers effect and people with dark personality traits, as these individuals often evidence nonconforming personality traits. Those could motivate socially responsible consumption even through that motivation does not originate from ethics or morality. This is a reminder that the primary motivation of socially responsible consumption can always be behavioural drivers other than ethicality or social responsibility.

4.6.1 Hypothesis 3

The social signalling, narcissism and identity literatures are foundational for the third hypothesis, that having a positive salient goal will lead to higher socially responsible consumption. Examining this theory will contribute to the literature by exploring the rising effects of self-promotion, as well as a new form of peer pressure in relation to socially responsible consumption. It is widely believed that people want to present themselves in a positive manner when they are in a social situation, as signalling is a costly action that alleviates asymmetrical information about those individuals (Ariely et al., 2009). Puska et al. (2018) found that when the consumers were primed with a desire for high status, they tended to opt for organic rather than non-organic food. The reason is again that organic food consumption gives a costly signal about their lifestyle status. Berman et al. (2015) also found that bragging about one's generosity can provide a positive effect to the actor when their prosocial behaviour was previously unknown to peers but the effect is reversed when the prosocial behaviour is already well known. A new line of inquiry suggesting that altruistic behaviours like socially responsible consumption can sometimes mask vanity in the successful completion of a socially responsible act (Janssen and Vanhamme, 2015; Kulow and Kramer, 2016; Barbarossa and De Pelsmacker, 2016). When altruism and consciousness are factors in the motivation of consumer behaviour, it is possible to elicit the effect of individual narcissism and implicit egotism

(Bennett, 2012; Sääksjärvi et al., 2016). This is also consistent with the novel suggestion that people with a vain attitude are more likely to engage in responsible consumption if it suits their interest (Naderi and Strutton, 2014). Griskevicius et al. (2010) showed that people who own hybrid gas–electric cars, such as the Toyota Prius, do not necessarily score high in environmental conservation. However, a Toyota Prius is expensive, so ownership enables the car owners to not only enjoy its fuel-efficient utility, but also to give a higher social status signal to their peers. A similar observation can be said to Yan et al.'s (2010) study on the purchase intentions of young consumers toward American apparel. The finding shows that the consumer motivation in young people was heavily linked to consumer perceptions of source credibility, but it failed to reject the possibility of status seeking in young people about their lifestyle traits, such as spending power. The recent ice-bucket challenge is one symbolic example highlighting the possibility of altruism tangled with vanity in consumer behaviour concerning social responsibility (Rubenstein, 2016; van der Linden, 2017). Personal identity can also explain the positive effect of salient goal priming. Consumers are more likely to commit a socially responsible act of consumption when a distinctive identity of themselves, such as music or hairstyles, gets highlighted (Berger and Heath, 2007). Such self-presentation is particularly salient in younger consumers, as older consumers tend to develop a resistance to change (Hwang, 2016). In the theoretical framework of understanding socially responsible consumption, salient goal priming is a good extension derived from goal and situational priming. It's becoming a valuable extension and an experimental venue in the rise of social media use and the narcissistic attitude seen across generations in young people. Therefore, the third hypothesis is to enhance the psychological effect of the situational priming. In a way, the salient goal priming can be seen as a stronger effect of the presence of others as the virtual presence of others is often more connected with the individuals. When the individuals turn to their social media platforms, the effect of the situational priming is initiated. The study aims to compare the intervention group for goal salience priming studies with a control case. In the intervention group, the participants were asked if they were interested in taking up a commitment to become more socially responsible and, in two weeks, retake the survey to gauge their progress. In addition, they were asked to take a selfie photo of themselves with their reimbursement at the end of the experiment. The selfie was expected to be posted on all social media platforms with which they were familiar, such as Facebook, Instagram, Twitter and Weibo. However, the selfie was never taken as it only served as salient goal priming for the participants. In the control group, the participants were only invited to complete a ques-

tionnaire at their convenience and simply collect a reimbursement. We predict that the effect of knowing selfie to be taken is positively associated with the socially responsible behaviour.

4.7 Personality traits as a driver

Personality traits have some promise in terms of motivating or demotivating socially responsible behaviours (Anderson and Cowan, 2014; Dermody et al., 2015; Arli and Anandya, 2018). Most consumer studies examining socially responsible behaviours with personality traits tend to focus on "virtuous traits", such as openness, conscientiousness, agreeableness (Engel and Szech, 2017; Riefolo, 2014). One recent study examined socially responsible consumption through Honesty-Humility trait. It found that individuals scoring high in Honesty-Humility tend to have a higher likelihood to purchase sustainable or eco-friendly products (Riefolo, 2014). Another study found that virtuous traits as well as openness and conscientiousness traits tend to have a positive correlation with socially responsible consumption (Song and Kim, 2016). Good traits breeds good behaviours. For "vice traits" such as the Dark triad (i.e., psychopathy, Machiavellianism, and narcissism), they're often examined through the lens of unethical behaviours, such as fraud and unethical cosmetics (Harrison et al., 2018; Karampournioti et al., 2018). The underlying mechanism is that people with high score in Narcissism tend to act unethically for their own benefit because of their perception (Naderi and Paswan, 2016); people with high score in Machiavellianism tend to take advantage of opportunistic situations because of their own benefit (D'Souza and Lima, 2015); people with high score in Psychopathy tend to rationalise any wrongdoing because of their own benefit (Eberly-Lewis and Coetzee, 2015). Harrison et al. (2018) found that socially irresponsible behaviours such as committing fraud are often focused on opportunistic prevention. Yet the Dark triad is more effective in revealing the different prospective of fraud manifestation. For instance, individuals with a high narcissism trait show a high correlation with fraud motivation; individuals with a high Machiavellianism trait are more interested in gaining enjoyment from the act of fraud; while individuals with a high psychopathy trait have the greatest motivation to commit fraud.

Yet "vice traits" might play a preventing or reinforcing role in the pursuit of socially responsible consumption. The key reason is that socially responsible behaviours are often observed with some manifestation of norm-violating or status-organising (Anderson and Cowan, 2014; Voyer, 2015; Arli and Anandya, 2018). In the case of Kardashian committing herself in the ice-bucket challenge, she was more motivated by her status-organising than the charitable

cause in public. With the right situational priming, a person with high distribution in Narcissism could nominate a socially responsible act even through the individual is never intended (Naderi and Paswan, 2016). For instance, people have very little variation when approaching product quality but people with high narcissistic tend to consider more about the store image than the product price, and people with low narcissism tend to assign more weighting to product price than store imagine (Naderi and Paswan, 2016). Voyer (2015) observed that assigned or normative values-based socially responsible consumption can prevent some consumers from taking that action as they feel they're being forced to accept someone else's value orientation rather than their own. This creates, not only an internal dissonance, but also a motivation to deviate from the assigned or normative value orientation. This can be commonly seen in the amount of rubbish squeezed into or left around a cigarette bin when there's no other bin nearby. In addition, there are two frequent response bias in surveying socially responsible behaviours. When consumers are surveyed about intentions or attitudes concerning socially responsible consumption, they tend to overstate their 'good' behaviours and understate their 'bad' behaviours. This is often regarded as social desirability bias and it has been reported to have a positive association with Machiavellianism (Fernandes and Randall, 1992; Triki et al., 2017). Also individuals are prone to a self-monitoring bias, i.e., high self-monitors will adjust their behaviour according to situational cues. Self-monitoring bias are positively linked to narcissism and Machiavellianism responses based on what is socially desirable are a sign of inflated self-consciousness, while high self-monitoring indicates strong situational awareness (Foster et al., 2006; Kowalski et al., 2018). As a result, there seems to be a strong connection between the dark triad of personality traits and socially responsible consumption.

4.7.1 Narcissism

One of the personality traits that has attracted a growing interest from both the media and consumer behaviour research is narcissism (Meyer and Speakman, 2016). Understanding narcissism has provided not only a means to explain some forms of conspicuous consumption, such as lavish clothes or pet jewellery, but also a new perspective to examine the underlying causal mechanism in socially responsible consumption (Sedikides et al., 2007; Bergman et al., 2014; Naderi and Strutton, 2014; Piff, 2014).

To illustrate the concept of narcissism, the ancient tale about the Greek hunter Narcissus may have the best depiction (Lilienfeld and Arkowitz, 2013). Narcissus was said to have no interest in others but only in himself. His dying moment was portrayed as contemplating his

own physical beauty alone on the bank of a river. It shows that an individual with a narcissistic trait tends to have an inflated sense of self but very little psychological interest in others (Twenge et al., 2008). The current concept of narcissism is more associated with Sigmund Freud's interpretation, i.e., that there are essentially two levels of narcissism, primary narcissism and secondary narcissism (Foster and Campbell, 2007). Primary narcissism confines the degree of narcissism to a healthy and adaptive nature, while secondary narcissism describes the degree of narcissism that falls into an exaggerated and maladaptive nature. Individuals with an adaptive nature of narcissism tend to show healthy self-love, self-confidence and resilience and gain support from social ties, while individuals with a maladaptive nature of narcissism are often self-promoters who crave attention and excessive admiration from others and, more importantly, show little sensitivity to the people surrounding them (Pincus and Lukowitsky, 2010). Thus, narcissism can be determined on a continuum with adaptive and maladaptive nature at opposing ends. However, determining narcissism on a single continuum with normal and pathological ends may bring challenges in interpreting individual scores, in which a person may score equally in both adaptive and maladaptive constructs or two people make the same total score but have two distinctive underlying scores from both adaptive and maladaptive constructs (Paulhus, 2001).

It is said that there has been a rise of a narcissistic attitude among the young population across generations (Twenge, 2014). The growth is often associated with the term "Generation me", which refers to people born in the 1970s, 1980s and 1990s. According to a national epidemiological study of 34,653 American adults conducted by the National Institutes of Health, the prevalence of narcissistic personality disorder (NPD) in 2008 was 6.2% and was significantly more prevalent among black minorities (12.5%), men (7.7%) and people in their twenties (9.4%) (Stinson et al., 2008). Another epidemiological evidence surveyed 16,745 college students between 1979 and 2006 and found a 30% increase in narcissism scores between 1982 and 2006 (Twenge et al., 2008). However, another subsequent study suggested that the observation of the rise of "Generation Me" may have been overstated (Trzesniewski et al., 2008). Some critics argue that the rise of "Generation Me" (narcissistic attitude) are attributed to using an ineffective measure of narcissism, sampling on university students and failing to explain the contradictions between the two opposing evidence (Trzesniewski et al., 2008; Arnett, 2013). There are a number of underlying factors that may have resulted in opposing evidence for the rise of narcissistic attitude. First, a population with a large demographic shift over time has a moderating effect on the rise of a narcissistic attitude. For

instance, people with Asian cultural values may have a protective effect from individualism and expression of narcissistic attributes (Kwan et al., 2009). The subsequent evidence has shown that the narcissistic attitude did increase significantly within-ethic groups but not all ethnic groups as a whole (Trzesniewski and Donnellan, 2010). Second, the methods employed by the two opposing evidence were different (Trzesniewski and Donnellan, 2010). The evidence supporting the rise of narcissistic attitude was based on cross-temporal meta-analysis and ecological analysis, while the evidence opposing the rise of narcissistic attributes was based on individual scores for analysis. The subsequent evidence has concluded that the choice of methods can cause the rise of narcissistic attributes, although the young population was confirmed to become less fearful of social problems, more cynical, less trusting and have higher educational expectations (Trzesniewski and Donnellan, 2010).

Still, there is a consensus that consumer behaviours associated with narcissistic behaviours are on the rise, in particular, conspicuous consumption, single status relationship, as well as growing self-exposure on social media. For example, Bank of America Merrill Lynch released a report in 2015 titled "Vanity Capital: The global bull market in narcissism" and estimated the amount spent globally on products and services that enhance appearance or prestige was $4.5 trillion (Kapur et al., 2015). Although vanity and non-vanity purchases is a rather subjective measure, some of the goods and services such as jewellery, art, a private jet or Rich Kids of Instagram seem appropriate (Belk, 2019). Also cosmetic surgeries performed in the United States increased by 115 percent from 2000 to 2015 according to the American Society of Plastic Surgeons (Heyes and Jones, 2015). The most popular cosmetic procedure is Breast augmentation, while minimally invasive cosmetic procedures such as Botox injection has become more popular and the fastest growing cosmetic procedure is buttock implants. In 2015, an online panel study with a representative sample of US individuals surveyed 1,000 U.S. adult residents and found that 6% of the photos were taken as selfies and another 4% were food-related; the remaining were photos of friends and family, children and pets, travel and vacation (Sung et al., 2016; Halpern et al., 2016). Pictures taken as selfies increased to 16% in people aged 18-24 compared to 1% in people aged over 65. Among people aged 18- 24, more than 50% of photos were shared via Facebook, 30% via Instagram and 15% were published on Twitter . Upper-class individuals in the US are also reported to have an increased sense of "entitlement", which is highly correlated with narcissistic tendencies (Piff, 2014). Millennials are said to feel motivated to post on social media sites to portray a positive image of themselves. Often, it's not the frequency of using social media sites but what sort

of content Millennials post that is key to the rise of narcissistic tendencies (Bergman et al., 2011).

While narcissism can certainly stimulate a great deal of conspicuous or vanity consumption, some recent evidence has suggested that narcissism can induce some forms of socially responsible consumption (Sedikides, Gregg et al. 2007, Bergman, Westerman et al. 2014; Naderi and Strutton, 2014, Piff 2014). The conventional thinking is that narcissism and prosocial behaviour are two contradictory behavioural artefacts the former is self-orientated and the latter is community-orientated (Konrath and Tian, 2018). However, no one can really say that the underlying motivation in many prosocial behaviours is ethicality, socially responsibility or altruism, simply based on the presence of prosocial behaviours. People with a high narcissistic trait are able to act on prosocial behaviours if the behaviour feeds their status-seeking metrics. In other words, socially responsible consumption can simply serve as a means to a narcissist's selfish end when the situation is narcissistic-enabling. Sedikides et al. (2007) suggested that narcissists always look for ways to satisfy their status-seeking and identity-seeking desire. For instance, name signing can spur stronger engagement from individuals when making consumption choices (Kettle et al., 2011). The symbolic value of the consumption will have a stronger attraction for those with a high narcissistic trait than the utilitarian value of the consumption (Sedikides et al., 2007). This means that people with that trait are more willing to show off and adopt new forms of consumption if those behaviours support their symbolic value and feed their status-seeking. For example, highly narcissistic individuals might join a local farm food club and assume behaviour that would suggest their motivation is to adopt a low carbon footprint and locally sourced food consumption lifestyle. However, the weekly home delivery and the club membership might help them to evidence a salient symbolic value within their social circle. People with a high narcissistic trait might also join a city marathon to support certain social causes such as cancer fundraising. However, the number of selfies posted to social media, from training to the finish line, might reveal that their actual motivation is status- or trophy-seeking. P. Sorokowski et al. (2015) examined 1,296 individuals on the relationship between the types of selfies they had taken and narcissism, finding a positive relationship between selfie-posting behaviours and narcissism trait. Naderi and Paswan (2016) showed that narcissists tend to process product information differently from non-narcissists, as they value the image of the store more than the price of the product. Narcissists tend to link consumption metrics with a positive self-portraying image. Hepper et al. (2014) showed that being narcissistic doesn't mean an inability to feel empathy. In

fact, Lee and Gibbons (2017) found that narcissism can be a positive predictor of compassion for children. Those with a strong narcissistic trait just need a different situation or signal to motivate them to engage in socially responsible consumption (Canavan, 2017). In addition, they have a strong tendency to be relative, pragmatic and non-idealistic, which encourages them to reject universal moral codes, challenge the individual cost/benefit and make strong statements (Bass et al., 1999).

The ice-bucket challenge is another symbolic example (Rubenstein, 2016; van der Linden, 2017). The challenge started under the aegis of altruism to raise awareness for amyotrophic lateral sclerosis, but it soon became dominated by the nature of narcissism. By tagging friends and colleagues on social media to accept a challenge, individuals faced a decision of making a monetary donation, completing a self-drenching task or doing both. For those who decided to commit the self-drenching task, individuals were instructed to record the process in a selfie video and post it on social media. The more people posted the self-drenching videos on social media, the more viral the campaign become. In addition to the ice-bucket challenge, there were other altruism-driven campaigns falling into the same category, such as the Movember campaign and No Makeup campaign (Lyes et al., 2016). The Movember campaign started by asking men to take a selfie of growing a moustache for the month of November, while the No Makeup campaign asked women to take a selfie wearing no make-up for a period of time. In return, both campaigns would raise the awareness of men's and women's health issues. These altruism-driven campaigns were able to raise a large sum of money for charities within a short period of time, yet they were all considered to be influenced by the nature of narcissism (Konrath et al., 2016). When altruism and consciousness are being motivated in consumer behaviour, it is possible to elicit the effect of individual narcissism. In other words, the success of these social campaigns was driven by the nature of altruism as well as the nature of narcissism. The characteristics of narcissism are often disguised by an altruism-driven appearance (Konrath et al., 2016). This raises a question as to whether the rise in socially responsible consumption is associated with some forms of narcissism. Some recent evidence has suggested that narcissistic traits may motivate consumer to engage in "green" behaviours (Naderi and Strutton, 2015). By cultivating situational stimulus such as public visibility, people with high narcissistic attitudes are more likely to engage in responsible consumption (Naderi and Strutton, 2014). A number of narcissism-associated characteristics can also have positive effects on socially responsible consumption. For instance, status strivings can influence individuals to engage in socially responsible consumption to achieve high status in their

social circle (Sutton and Hargadon, 1996; Griskevicius et al., 2010). Competitive altruism is another characteristic enabling the motivation of individuals to become more prosocial and self-sacrificing, such as committing to socially responsible consumption (Griskevicius et al., 2010). One study examined whether the increase in Toyota Prius consumption might be associated with an individual desire to be seen as a green consumer rather than an attempt to be environmentally friendly (Kahn 2007). Pride is another characteristic reported by a recent paper as leading people to have an increased intention to buy ethical products in the future (Antonetti and Maklan, 2014).

In addition, it is possible that there are implicit egotism and spillover effect from narcissism in consumer behaviour (Pelham et al., 2005; Sääksjärvi et al., 2016). Consumers tend to show additional commitments towards objects or people sharing their name or lucky numbers (Dehart et al., 2011). However, the effect seems to be constraint on brand or individual names only (Hodson and Olson, 2005). Celebrities with strong narcissistic attitudes often broadcast conspicuously on social media. However, their millions of social media followers may interpret these consumptions as proof of self-confidence and self-importance. This would lead to a rise of conspicuous consumption and a growing exposure about self on social media. On the other hand, if celebrities with strong narcissistic attitudes tweet about socially responsible consumption on social media, it may induce a positive spillover effect on the followers.

4.7.2 Machiavellianism

Machiavellianism is considered as another personality-based covariate in socially responsible behaviours (Hunt and Vitell, 2006). The personality traits describes an individual who is opportunistic and influential of others in the behaviours related to ethicality or socially responsibility. The idea of Machiavellianism is inspired from the story of Niccolo Machiavelli (Hunt and Chonko, 1984). It is a measure of duplicity (Singhapakdi, 1993). Individuals with high scores on Machiavellianism are less likely to get influenced by others, and more importantly, they are effective manipulators of others (Paulhus and Williams, 2002). What makes Machiavellianism relevant to socially responsible consumption is that individuals with high scores on Machiavellianism tend to show little concern for common ethics and morality (Verbeke et al., 1996). Also, if participants are seen to have attributes such as being relative, pragmatic and nonidealistic, those attributes encourage them to reject universal moral codes, challenge individual cost/benefit analyses and make influential statements (Bass et al., 1999). In other words, Machiavellianism is relevant to the nature of negative buying such that it is

about abstaining from those socially irresponsible consumptions. Yet Machiavellianism could still play a more activating role in socially responsible consumption, as individuals with high scores on Machiavellianism could take advantage of opportunistic situation by conforming to socially responsible consumptions when it suits their interest (Arli et al., 2015).

Machiavellianism was first shown to be positively correlated with unethical behaviour in the late 1970s (Hegarty and Sims, 1978; 1979; Singhapakdi, 1993). One fruitful area tends to link Machiavellianism with ethics and social responsibility is organisational behaviours, as corporate scandals are often the first indication of Machiavellianism in play. It's believed that Machiavellianism is the primary reason that individuals are more prone to engage in unethical poor organizational behaviours (Castille et al., 2018). A study supported the finding that individuals with high scores on Machiavellianism failed to take more consideration of ethical problems than others and they were less likely to consider amending the problem (Singhapakdi and Vitell, 1990). Winter et al. (2004) examined the relationship among Machiavellianism, violation of intellectual property and privacy. Their findings showed that individuals with a high score in Machiavellianism had a higher tolerance for the violation of intellectual property and privacy rights than others. Moreover, working in R&D would strengthen the effect of Machiavellianism on their attitudes towards the violation of intellectual property and privacy rights. Comparing individuals with high scores with those with low scores on Machiavellianism, they were more relativist than absolutist (Leary et al., 1986), more likely to cheat to attain rewards or to develop less socially responsible intentions (Jones and Kavanagh, 1996; Bass et al., 1999; Winter et al., 2004), more comfortable with questionable selling practices, and more unethical in their decision making (Loe et al., 2000). One study examined the relationships between Machiavellianism and attitudes towards the perceived importance of corporate ethics and social responsibility (Simmons and Snell, 2018). It found that people with high Machiavellian scores would evidence lower levels of corporate ethics and social responsibility, both of which are significantly associated with weaker pro-environment views. In the context of socially responsible consumption, there have been very few studies directly linking Machiavellianism with such behaviour. One study shows that individuals with high scores on Machiavellianism engage in more unethical clothing consumption activities than those who are with a low score (Shen and Dickson, 2001). This lack of moral concern seems to be valid in various cultural contexts (Erffmeyer et al., 1999; Rawwas et al., 2005). Arli and Anandya (2018) examined the relationship between Machiavellianism and consumer ethics in Indonesia, finding a negative effect on consumer ethics as individuals with a high Machi-

avellianism trait tended to show more tolerance for unethical consumer behaviours and to prioritise costs and benefits for themselves.

4.7.3 Psychopath

In 2004, The Economist once ran an article titled, "The lunatic you work for – If the corporation were a person, would that person be a psychopath?" (The Economist, 2004). That article raised a number of excellent points regarding psychopathy, particularly whether most corporations would become more psychopathic as they grew – particularly in the area of corporate social responsibility. In 2018, Google decided to drop its corporate motto, "Don't be evil", reportedly due to its increasing involvement in developing military artificial intelligence for the US government (Moyer, 2015). That seemed to be an effort to remedy a certain incongruency in terms of identity. Yet corporations are simply a collection of human behaviours, their management or leaders often demonstrating psychopathic traits in the workplace (Boddy, 2017). People with strong psychopathic traits are often self-serving and low in intelligence (de Ribera et al., 2019). They are much worse than average people at taking account of other individuals' prospectives (Drayton et al., 2018). This would explain the common association between psychopathic traits and having little concern about behaving responsibly, as the primary motivation of a person with such traits is self. People with strong psychopathic traits reportedly account for 1% of the total population (Coid et al., 2009), but it's apparently more prevalent in the corporate workplace (Boddy, 2011). One study showed that when the workplace has more severe psychopathic traits, employees would tend to significantly feel underappreciated and less committed (Boddy, 2014). Another study examining the relationship between sustainable entrepreneurial orientation and psychopathy found that high psychopathy can have a negative impact on a sustainable entrepreneurial orientation (Wu et al., 2019). However, this doesn't suggest that people with strong psychopathic traits are incapable of altruistic behaviour. A few studies suggest that psychopathy and altruism are not mutually exclusive (Marsh and Cardinale, 2012; Miller and Lynam, 2015). The key lies in the amygdala, a part of the brain associated with emotional and social behaviours; people who have strong psychopathic traits tend to have a smaller amygdala while highly altruistic people tend to have one that is larger than average. In a sense, psychopathy and altruism can be explained using the same scale but two different ends. For example, highly psychopathic children can still conform to the social norm when they are socially mixing with other children (Marsh, 2017). However, they might revert back to their previous behaviour when the social norm is not in

evidence. In terms of socially responsible consumption, there have been very limited studies linking a psychopathic trait and that form of consumption. However, the current literature focused on business ethics and organisational behaviours has shown a promising exploration of this subject in the realm of consumer research (Schouten et al., 2012; Boddy, 2014; Brooks and Fritzon, 2016; Lingnau et al., 2017; Neo et al., 2018; Van Scotter and Roglio, 2018), but the question remains whether consumers with high psychopathic traits would react differently when they're alone or in a group.

4.7.4 Hypothesis 4

The dark triad literatures have formed the basis of fourth hypothesis – high score of narcissistic traits will lead to higher socially responsible consumption; high score of Machiavellianism trait will lead to higher socially responsible consumption; high score of psychopath trait will lead to lower socially responsible consumption. By determining individual variations across the goal and situational priming through the dark triad personality traits, the fourth hypothesis intends to make a contribution to a new form of socially responsible consumption linking prosocial behaviour with conspicuous consumption – people adjust their socially responsible consumption if it intersects with their dark triad personality traits. In the tradition literatures, Machiavellianism tend to show little concern for common ethics and morality (Verbeke et al., 1996, Shen and Dickson 2001, Arli and Anandya 2017). However, what makes Machiavellianism trait motivated towards socially responsible consumption is their nature of relativisim and pragmatisim (Leary et al., 1986). People with relatively high Machiavellianism score tend to take advantage of an opportunistic situation by conforming to socially irresponsible consumptions when the personal benefit outweighs the personal cost (Arli et al., 2015). Such personal interests could also be status-striving, making a good impression, relationship building. One of the challenges from previous studies is that they're using intentions or attitudes rather than actual behaviours as outcome measure, and more importantly, those priming environments were less "opportunistic" or "self-benefiting" in the eyes of individual scored high on Machiavellianism trait. For narcissism, a person with high distribution in Narcissism could nominate a socially responsible act with the right situational priming even through the individual is never intended (Naderi and Paswan, 2016). Moreover, narcissism and Machiavellianism have been reported to have a positive association with response bias in surveying socially responsible consumption, such as social desirability and self-monitoring bias (Fernandes and Randall, 1992; Foster et al., 2006; Triki et al., 2017; Kowalski et al., 2018). For people with strong

psychopathic traits, they are often self-serving and much worse than average people at taking account of other individuals' prospectives (Drayton et al., 2018; de Ribera et al., 2019). This would explain the common association between psychopathic traits and having little concern about behaving responsibly, as the primary motivation of a person with such traits is self. In the theoretical framework of understanding socially responsible consumption, the dark triad personality traits could serve as an effective lens through which to examine the existence of self-awareness and relativism when individuals feel motivated when completing a socially responsible consumption survey. Moreover, the rising interest in using a situational factor as the first-choice extension to the current theoretical framework of understanding socially responsible consumption should rekindle interest in personality and situation. The study aims to explore whether people with high narcissistic attitude or Machiavellianism attitude will demonstrate a greater increase in the socially responsible consumption, and whether people with high psychopathy attitude will demonstrate a greater decrease in the socially responsible consumption. All the participants were invited to undertake a Short Dark Triad test to determine the score of narcissistic attitude or Machiavellianism attitude or psychopathy attitude. We predict that people with high narcissistic attitudes will be positively associated with an increase of socially responsible consumption, people with high Machiavellianism attitudes will be positively associated with an increase of socially responsible consumption and people with high psychopathy attitudes will be positively associated with an decrease of socially responsible consumption.

4.8 Gender as a driver

Gender effect is often mentioned as one of the more common observed effects in the literature discussing socially responsible consumption (Luchs and Mooradian, 2012). Lang et al. (2013) examined the relationship between the gender effect and the disposal frequency of clothing waste, learning that female consumers are more likely to frequently dispose of clothing. Costa Pinto et al., (2014) looked at the relationship between gender effect and identity as it pertains to sustainable consumption and found that, when the idea of personal identity was highlighted, female participants were more likely to engage in sustainable consumption, as compared to male participants. Morgan et al. (2016) showed that females participants tended to be more sensitive to socially responsible issues compared to their counterparts, while Brough et al. (2016) observed that female participants were more willing to adopt environmentally friendly behaviours compared with male participants. There does seem to be a

reason for these contrasting behaviours, it being that there is a stereotypical relationship between environmentally friendly behaviours and gender. Environmentally friendly behaviours are considered to be motivated by femininity, meaning that that men often feel threatened and concerned about the possibility of losing their macho identity. However, when Chen et al. (2014) examined the relationship between gender, purchase intentions and food safety concerns, they failed to any gender effect on purchase intentions. Similarly, Gam et al. (2010) looked at the connection between consumer demographics and a willingness to purchase children's clothing with an eye towards socially responsible consumption (i.e., organic cotton clothing). While a mother's environmental concern, attitude, and intention have been shown to have a significant relationship with the purchase of organic cotton clothing, participants refused to pay more for organic cotton clothing for their children. Gender effect might have masked the effect of agreeableness as a personality trait (Luchs and Mooradian, 2012). It would seem that if the individuals don't often confront or have a problem with the value orientation of environmental issues, they tend to adopt behaviours dictated by social norms or the message put forth by the clothing's' green label more often.

4.9 Emotion as a driver

Emotion plays an important role in shaping how consumers make decisions (Achar et al., 2016). To some extent, emotion is like a "virtual situation" but changing the lens of the mindset. Pride, guilt, shame or envy are the dominant emotional stimuli that enable such "virtual situation" or mindset to motivate the socially responsible consumption (Antonetti and Maklan, 2013; Sekerka et al., 2015; Sen et al., 2016; Wang and Wu, 2016). Another way to look at emotions is to see them as a powerful feedback mechanisms (Baumeister et al., 2007). Segev et al. (2015) showed that emotional involvement has a moderating impact on knowledge and the intention of green purchase behaviour in young Hispanics. By introducing emotion into the conceptual framework of socially responsible consumption, it becomes clearer that socially responsible behaviours could be easily swayed by irrationality. That shifts the perspective of socially responsible consumption into the lens of unconscious manner. For example, pride is said to be associated with the salience of self or self-interest maximisation. It motivates individuals to pursue superior behavioural outcomes by highlighting the felt sense to the individual (Gregory-Smith et al., 2013; Luchs et al., 2015; Armstrong et al., 2016; Lundblad and Davies, 2016). Guilt has a stronger link than pride in socially responsible consumption (Antonetti and Maklan, 2013). It sources its motivation from cognitive disso-

nance and it motivates consumers to make up certain behaviour by committing to the socially responsible consumption (Antonetti and Maklan, 2014). One study examined fund-raising appeals through public television. It found that the viewers were more likely to respond to the fund-raising appeal through negative emotion than positive emotions (Fisher et al., 2008). However, one study points out that when promoting charity donation, donors are often motivated by the tangible impact the donation could make a difference (Small and Cryder, 2016). However, there's a potential gender effect varying on the effect of guilt as women are said to have a higher likelihood than men to respond to the influence of guilt (Muralidharan and Sheehan, 2018). Emotional behavioural drivers are largely subtle and unconscious (Antonetti and Maklan, 2014), as one study found that an identity-misalignment can spur a negative emotion and trigger a chain of consumption (Coleman and Williams, 2013).

4.10 Conclusion

Most behavioural drivers have been shown their capability or effectiveness in motivating socially responsible consumption. However, no single behavioural driver is able to explain all the variance in the behaviour. The key is to understand how these behavioural drivers have been paired and assembled into a theoretical framework and how these theoretical frameworks succeed or fail in contemplating the behavioural mechanic of socially responsible consumption.

5 Theoretical frameworks

According to Lawson's (2010) review, there have been many consumer psychology and behavioural studies conducted in the area of socially responsible consumption. In consumer psychology studies, the theoretical frameworks with the most entries were information processing; attitudes and preferences; motivation and involvement; decision theory and processes; attention; and perception. The theoretical frameworks with the least entries involved values; hedonics; learning; and perceived risk. In behavioural science studies, the theoretical frameworks most frequently utilised where situational influences; symbolic consumption; and variety seeking. The least frequently cited theoretical frameworks addressed acquisition patterns; possessions; deviant behaviours; and time. Conscious behavioural drivers, such as attitudes, intention, information, goals, are dominated consumer psychology studies of socially responsible consumption. However, unconscious behavioural drivers, such as situation and symbolic consumption, are popular in the behavioural science studies of socially responsible consumption. While the theoretical framework with the most entries does not mean more promising or fruitful advancement, Chatzidakis et al. (2016) noted a significant amount of unexplained variance in dominant theoretical frameworks; they suggested a potential direction would involve integration with other behavioural drivers, such as personal norms, self-identity and past experience.

It is increasingly accepted that human behaviours are driven by two cognitive systems rather than one. The commonly cited cognitive system is compared to Spock, a character from the movie Star Trek, whose behaviour is based on rationality and logic. It describes human behaviours as deliberative and reflective (Thaler and Sunstein, 2009). A more recently noted cognitive system is compared to Homer Simpson, an animated television character whose behaviours are hardly logical and sensible (Thaler and Sunstein, 2009), and more importantly, are heavily influenced by personality traits, mindset, habits and social influence. It describes human behaviours as automatic, habitual and unmindful. One way to think about how consumers may behave under the influence of the two systems is that individual behaviours can be seen as part of a continuum, with the characteristics of Spock and Simpson at opposing ends (Young and Caisey, 2010). In terms of socially responsible consumption, the newer perspective on behavioural mechanisms is particularly interesting. Most of the discussion around the theoretical frameworks of socially responsible consumption have been focused on a deterministic paradigm assuming individual behaviours are stable across different situations and

circumstances (Sunstein and Reisch, 2014). Those frameworks also tend to consider the effect of main behavioural drivers in a deterministic fashion; more importantly, social or situational influences are often disregarded, which can lead to what appears to be a dichotomy in individual behaviours (Carrington et al., 2010). For example, recycling is seen as an individual behaviour but it's strongly linked with individuals' physical and social lives. Personal and contextual behavioural drivers will not only dictate their own agenda in the behavioural outcome, but also coordinate and compete each other. There are also other behavioural drivers working behind the scenes; they might be unconscious and invisible but they can still assert their influence and interact with the motivation underlying consumption. The ultimate behavioural direction might sound like a purely individual decision but it's more like a resultant force of multiple and complex influence. Atkinson (2015) argued that, rather than altruism and self-sacrifice, self-interest and personal gain should take a more central role, as the former is often a top priority. Groening et al. (2018) argued that there's a need to model green products differently from non-green products and one direction for that is to focus on short-term and long-term self-interest.

The aim of this discussion is to use the degree of deterministic paradigm to reorganise the dominant theoretical frameworks of socially responsible consumption and nominate our preferred approach. First, a high degree of deterministic paradigm describes socially responsible consumers as being logical, sensible, and capable of committing more socially responsible consumption, which would require the assumption that the main behavioural drivers are static and would fail to consider other behavioural components such as social and situational influences. The theoretical frameworks are often built on preference, values, identity and communication. Second, a medium degree of deterministic paradigm describes socially responsible consumers as being neither 'Spock' or 'Simpson', but as sharing some of their behavioural characteristics. For instance, consumers can be logical about socially responsible consumption, but they might get more motivation from an emotional situation. The distinctive feature of this paradigm is that although the main behavioural drivers are static, the theoretical frameworks have started incorporating non-deterministic behavioural components. The theoretical frameworks are built around attitudes and intentions. Finally, a low degree of deterministic paradigm describes the socially responsible consumer as being prone to the influence of personality traits, mindset, habits and social influence. The distinctive feature of this paradigm is that the main behavioural drivers are highly susceptible to the influence of others, such as conformity and conflict. The theoretical frameworks are often associated with

framing and behavioural conflicts.

5.1 High degree of deterministic framework

There are four commonly used theoretical frameworks that have portrayed socially responsible consumers as being logical, sensible, and capable of committing more to socially responsible consumption. They are driven by preference, value, identity and communication

First, the preference-based theoretical framework is well-established in the discipline of economics (Andorfer and Liebe, 2012). It describes individuals as being capable of deriving utility from a varying mix of product attributes. Given the constraints of product price and spending budget, individuals often need to accept a trade-off between different product attributes. The main behavioural driver is therefore consumer preference. In the case of socially responsible consumption, the iterating attributes are often focused on product price and social responsibility. When consumers are willing to pay a higher premium for a product that reflects social responsibility, they are expected to derive a higher utility from the act of socially responsible consumption (Achabou et al., 2017). As a result, the main behavioural driver is sufficiently sensitive to indicate a preference for socially responsible consumption. To measure the preference is to measure the willingness to pay through choice experiment (Andorfer and Liebe, 2012). However, the preference-based theoretical framework still fails to consider other non-deterministic behavioural components, e.g., whether the consumers can maintain the same preference in the pursuit of socially responsible consumption when they are under an emotional influence such as guilt or a social influence such as peer pressure (Sunstein and Reisch, 2014).

Second, value-based theoretical framework is an approach commonly used in sociology to explore socially responsible consumption (Niinimäki, 2015). Values and beliefs are often considered as being the 'navigation system' of individual behaviours (Vitell et al., 1991; Shaw and Shiu, 2002). When consumers choose a product with the goal of being socially responsible, their behaviour is considered to be driven by the values or beliefs of those individuals (Shaw et al., 2006; Soper, 2007; Balderjahn et al., 2013; do Paço et al., 2013). The values and beliefs typically documented include altruism, collectivism, hedonism, equality, welfare, law obedience, health and environmental consciousness (Nguyen et al., 2017). For example, Value Belief Norm is a value-based framework based on consumer values and integrated with a list of environmental attitude and perception (Wells et al., 2011). The general theory of Market-

ing Ethics is another value-based framework, built on principles of deontology and teleology (Hunt and Vitell, 1986). For example, Leonidou et al. (2010) examined the factors affecting environmental attitudes and behaviour, finding that collectivism, long-term orientation, political involvement, deontology, and obedience to laws have been shown to have a significant impact on individual environmental attitudes and behaviour. The expectancy-value framework is based on a utilitarian prospective individuals are motivated by utility-maximisation in their consumption (de Groot et al., 2016). In the context of socially responsible consumption, this means that if the individuals find the choice of socially responsible consumption provides a greater utility value than the alternative choice, they are expected to act on the choice of socially responsible consumption. Moral norm models is one of the value-based frameworks based on ethical-rule (de Groot et al., 2016). Individuals are rule followers, tending to follow their value compass (egoistic, altruistic and biospheric) to guide their consumer behaviours. In the context of socially responsible consumption, when individuals are made aware of altruistic or biospheric value orientation, they would be expected to act on socially responsible consumption. The advantage of a value-based framework over an attitude-based framework is that it embraces those normative or top-down value orientations. Schwartz (1992) argued that value-based behavioural drivers are relatively stable across time and able to manifest themselves across a variety of situations. This means that individual value can be seen as a common navigating system on people's consumption. However, it's unlikely that everyone shares the same set of values and competing values can produce gaps in socially responsible consumption. Moreover, value-based behavioural drivers seem to heavily rely on the rational side of the consumers whereas behavioural economics have consistently revealed the dominance of the irrational side of the consumers. The idea of the modelling approach is to identify the values or beliefs consumers tend to have in relation to socially responsible consumption (Adnan et al., 2017). The measure of individual values as well as beliefs is survey-based. Yet the outcome is highly prone to social desirability bias; when individuals are surveyed on their values, beliefs or the intention of socially responsible consumption, they often respond with inflated favouritism and positivism towards socially responsible consumption. This draws criticism as to whether individual values or beliefs can be ever extracted accurately, and more importantly, whether the values or beliefs can remain consistent across different situations and circumstances. The value-based theoretical framework again fails to fully consider less deterministic behavioural components. An emphasis on a personal value orientation often neglects consideration of unconscious behavioural drivers, such as contex-

tual factors (Nair and Little, 2016). Two common extensions used to improve value-based theoretical framework are situation and emotion (Bray et al., 2011). For example, consumers are more likely to act on socially responsible consumption if they are made to feel positive about the consequences (Steenhaut and Van Kenhove, 2006).

Third, an identity-based theoretical framework aims to connect socially responsible consumption with the perceived self (Shaw and Shiu, 2002). The perceived self is the way in which individuals see themselves as well as how they link themselves to their social circles (Belk, 2013). Individuals tend to see themselves as good, moral, and decent, and more importantly, most of us often believe we have an impactful relationship with others (Sheth et al., 2011). In order to maintain the consistency of the perceived self, individuals tend to look for behaviours that match those of that self (Costa Pinto et al., 2016). These include increasing ethical and socially responsible choices and reducing self-conflicting behaviours (Du et al., 2015). Therefore, socially responsible consumption can be seen as a means for individuals to maintain and improve the perceived self. The main behavioural driver is therefore the perceived self as well as the social signalling. However, there is another aspect of the perceived self, the one that is shaped by others. Individuals do not just have beliefs about how they should conduct themselves, but also about how others should conduct themselves. This often leads to a gap between the identity portrayed by themselves and the identity portrayed by others (White and Simpson, 2013, Sekerka et al., 2015; Yang et al., 2015). The challenge is to determine which identity should be pursued in terms of socially responsible consumption (Hillenbrand and Money, 2015). The main behavioural driver is sensitive enough to reflect how consumers portray themselves in socially responsible consumption as most of the studies have utilised qualitative methods. However, the identity-based framework still does not address the potential influence from non-deterministic behavioural components.

Finally, those who ascribe to the communication-based theoretical framework maintain that accessible information and enhanced awareness are key to increasing socially responsible consumption. One of the dominant ways of improving accessible information and increasing awareness is the use of social responsibility labels (Vermeir and Verbeke, 2006); Nuttavuthisit and Thøgersen, 2017). Lack of media attention and in-store communication also create a false consumer belief that green products are costly. Consumers may be willing to act on socially responsible consumption if they are made aware of the ways in which their choice can make the world a better place but, never the less, they still don't want to pay a premium price for those products (Barbarossa and Pastore, 2015). Consumers often complain

about lack of information concerning ethicality or social responsibility when making decisions about consumption (Tanner and Wölfing Kast, 2003). Moreover, they might only consider one or two aspects of ethicality or social responsibility, for instance, fair trade and recycling. People need to rely on labels speaking to socially responsible practices as being indicative of socially responsible consumption. Labels indicating socially responsible characteristics create a salient signal about the ethicality or social responsibility around consumption of a product, so people can follow the beacon to commit to socially responsible consumption (Atkinson and Rosenthal, 2014). However, the salient signal can also spur more confusion and suspicion about socially responsible consumption (Gleim et al., 2013). As discussed earlier, consumers tend to have a different interpretation of the meaning of the concept and a divergent opinion on the priority setting of social impact and can be suspicious that products being labelled as socially responsible are merely new marketing ploys aimed at a consumer's conscience (Du et al., 2015). In addition, it is uncertain how responsible labels related to ethicality or social responsibility perform in a noisy or interfered consumption environment.

In conclusion, these theoretical frameworks are often considered to be static across situations and circumstances. While the measures are often involved with experimentation and qualitative interview, it is mainly survey-based and responses can be biased. In addition, these theoretical frameworks tend to overlook behavioural controls and contextual factors.

5.2 Medium degree of deterministic framework

The theoretical framework most commonly cited to explain the behaviour drivers in socially responsible consumption are built on the idea of attitude leading to intention and then behaviour (Carrington et al., 2010). The two dominant cases are the theory of reasoned action and the theory of planned behaviour. The theory of reasoned action starts by decomposing the process of socially responsible consumption into perceptions, attitudes, intentions and behaviour (Madden et al., 1992). It argues that individual behaviour is conditional on intentions while intentions are conditional on both attitudes and perceptions (Olson and Zanna, 1993). This means that the intentions of socially responsible consumers are likely driven by whether an individual holds a positive or negative desire to commit to socially responsible consumption and if he or she truly believes that the action fits the social norm. The main behavioural driver is therefore attitude (Madden et al., 1992). While the theory of reasoned action has achieved some positive results in the literature, it has signalled the need to consider the uncertainty around personal control (Sideridis et al., 1998).

Therefore, perceived personal control is the extension incorporated into the theory of reasoned action (Ajzen, 2002). While attitude remains the main behaviour driver, the theoretical framework has become more dynamic. The belief is that the more personal control the individuals are perceived to have, the more likely it is that they would follow the intention in committing to socially responsible consumption. The current component of perception within the theory of reasoned action only considers the perception towards socially responsible consumption, but not the individual capability (Ajzen, 2011). This means that as long as individuals possess a positive attitude and strong intention towards socially responsible consumption, they should follow their attitude towards the intention. However, this is not often the case. People can feel they lack control over their own behaviours, especially when consumer habit or social pressure are involved. By bringing perceived behaviour control into the existing behavioural framework, the theoretical framework is able to account for greater variation than the previous version. Therefore, the extended version of the theory of reasoned action is regarded as the theory of planned behaviour. The theory of planned behaviour has proven to be more popular than the theory of reasoned action, as more and more studies have adopted its framework to examine consumer behaviours in relation to ethicality or social responsibility (Madden et al., 1992; Moser, 2015; Mancha and Yoder, 2015; Yadav and Pathak, 2017). According to Armitage and Conner (2001)'s meta-analysis, one of the challenges in the theory of planned behaviour is that many of the studies with promising predictive powers on socially responsible consumption are relying on self-reported rather than observed behaviours. For example, Wu and Chen (2014) used the theory of planned behaviour to examine the relationship between perception of environmentally friendly consumption and actual behaviour in China. The presumed measurement of actual behaviour is based on surveys that include questions such as "I prefer choosing products that cause less pollution" or "I prefer choosing energy-saving products". However, the explanatory variables such as behaviour intention and attitudes were also based on questionnaires comprised of questions such as "I would like to purchase environmentally friendly products". This is a common problem when using a questionnaire as both the explanatory and outcome variables.

The literature on extending the theory of planned behaviour can be divided into two areas. The first area has three deterministic extensions, including socially responsible values, identity and socially responsible labels (Sparks and Shepherd, 1992; Teng et al., 2015; Taufique et al., 2016; Roos and Hahn, 2017; Han et al., 2017). These behavioural components have a strong deterministic nature, as mentioned earlier in the discussion about the high-

deterministic paradigm and would continue to play a deterministic role when interacting with the theory of planned behaviour. For social values, the belief is that certain social values, e.g., altruism, collectivism, and moral obligation, have shown positive associations with the purchase intentions of socially responsible consumption (Kaiser and Scheuthle, 2003; Wated and Sanchez, 2015; Botetzagias et al., 2015). Onel (2017) introduced personal norms value as an extension when examining pro-environmental purchasing behaviour; that extension showed a positive impact on pro-environmental purchasing behaviour. Wang (2014) extended the model with environmental visibility and collectivism; both had a positive impact on the intention of green purchasing behaviour. Second, if socially responsible consumption can help people to remain consistent with their recognised identity, they are more likely to have a greater intention to commit to socially responsible consumption (Sparks and Shepherd, 1992; Paul et al., 2016). This often includes self-identity and place identity (Carfora et al., 2017). Dissonance can also occur in the area of moral attitude. Arvola et al. (2008) introduced an extension called positive moral attitude into the model, with the new measure having the ability to capture any negative feelings arising from moral misalignment. If the individuals experience little moral principal conflict of moral principal, they're more likely to feel more self-rewarding when engaged in socially responsible consumption. Finally, individuals rely on labels speaking to socially responsible practices as being indicative of social responsible consumption (Taufique et al., 2016; Tan et al., 2017). The more accessible the information the individuals receive during the pre-consumption stage, the more likely they would have the intention to commit to socially responsible consumption. In addition, there are a number of other deterministic extensions. For example, Kang et al. (2013) used perceived consumer effectiveness and perceived personal relevance as extensions when examining environmentally sustainable textile and apparel products. The new extensions showed a positive impact on the purchase intentions. Rex et al. (2015) compared the default model with an extended model with new measures such as internal ethics and moral intensity. Their findings revealed that internal ethics and moral intensity improve the default model's predictive ability when examining sustainable behavioural intention.

The second area of extension development is focused on the non-deterministic nature, that is, to include more behavioural components examining personal behavioural control as well as situational factors (Belk, 1975; Carrington et al., 2010). A recent theoretical framework is built on the interdependency of personal, situational and behavioural components (Carrington et al., 2010). It aims to reflect the strength of the theory of reasoned action and

the theory of planned behaviour, current challenges in the attitude-behaviour gap and the importance of situational factors. The new theoretical framework begins with intention, considering implementation intentions as positively mediating the relationship (Grimmer et al., 2016). Implementation intention is the plan individuals form to realise the intention of their behaviour. It is the main behavioural driver of the new framework. It is conditional on the strength of intention; when it is weak, implementation intention will fail, even if there is a concrete plan in place. To measure implementation intention, the framework measures the existence and the comprehensiveness of the implementation plan, as well as the strength of the intention. Two moderators of the framework are behavioural control and situational context (Hassan et al., 2016; Grimmer and Miles, 2017). Behavioural control describes an individual's awareness of their capability to behave in certain ways. The discrepancy between perceived and actual behavioural control is one of the causal factors underpinning the attitude-behaviour gap. Measuring behavioural control can be achieved with the use of either a belief-based or direct questionnaire to determine perceived behavioural control and post-behavioural questionnaires to measure the actual behavioural control (Carrington et al., 2010; Hassan et al., 2016). However, the measure of actual behaviour control is far from established. For a situational context, this is focused on the environment in which purchasing occurred. Measuring the situational context involves either psychological measures to identify situational factors as perceived by individuals or an objective measure of the key feature of the situation prior to individual interpretation (Carrington et al., 2010; Grimmer and Miles, 2017). Other researchers, such as Moons and De Pelsmacker (2012), extended the model with emotional reactions and peer pressure when examining the usage intention of electric car and car driving. While both had a positive impact on usage intention, emotional reactions proved to be one of the strongest predictors. Vermeir and Verbeke (2008) also found that social pressure had a positive impact on the intention of buying sustainable food. McCullough (2013) incorporated social influence into the model when examining the sport spectator recycling behaviour, finding that the presence of children or grandchildren had a positive impact on family participants, with peer groups being the key determinant of student participants' recycling behaviours.

In conclusion, these theoretical frameworks are solely focused on intention and are shifting towards a more concrete and formulated nature, as implementation intention. The measure of the behavioural drivers is again survey-based and is prone to social desirability bias. The theoretical frameworks have strongly signalled their shift away from the idea of a high de-

terministic nature to take more volatile measures, such as actual behavioural control and situational factors, into account.

5.3 Low degree of deterministic framework

A low degree deterministic framework is the preferred and proposed theoretical framework for this thesis. In the previous discussion, the emphasis of the theoretical framework of socially responsible consumption was on the main behavioural drivers, which are based on preference, ethics, identity, communication, attitude and intention. These drivers are often extended as there is room to improve the understanding of consumer behaviours in relation to ethics and social responsibility. The extensions are mostly built on more malleable factors, such as emotional and situational attributes (Carrington et al. 2010; Andorfer and Liebe, 2012; Reis and Holmes, 2012; Williams, 2014). This suggests that the idea that individuals are less consistent in what they believe is increasingly evident. Therefore, the continuum, with high and low deterministic behavioural drives at opposing ends, must be constantly updated in terms of equilibrium and to reflect the resultant forces. There is consistent evidence from social psychology to support the idea that irrational behaviours of individuals exist, and more importantly, this is consistent with the trend of extensions to the leading theoretical frameworks of socially responsible consumption (David et al., 2005; Woiceshyn, 2011; Strack and Deutsch, 2015). As a result, the emphasis of the low degree of deterministic paradigm is on the effect of the secondary behavioural drivers, which either reinforce or oppose the direction of the primary behaviour drivers in socially responsible consumption.

The motivations underlying socially responsible consumption are considered to be primary behavioural drivers. A primary behavioural driver works like logistic transportation, with the goal of delivering one's consumption decision towards socially responsible consumption. Like any form of logistics, the success of a delivery depends on the type of transportation in use, the conditions under which that transportation operates and the ease of tracking the transition. The same can be said of primary behavioural drivers. The motivation of socially responsible consumption depends on the types of primary behavioural drivers powering the relevant behaviours, the conditions a primary behavioural driver needs to operate and the ease with which the transition towards a consumption decision can be followed. The idea has been inspired from the research development in task performance with quadruple process model and motivation research in complex dynamic system model in social psychology (Conrey et al., 2005; Richardson et al., 2014).

One of the more commonly cited primary behavioural drivers used in examining secondary behavioural drivers is goal framework (Laran, 2016). The concept of goal pursuit as related to goal-setting theory first appeared in the literature in the 1960s and entered the literature of consumer behaviour in the 1990s (Locke and Latham, 2015). A goal is defined as a desired outcome that individuals intend to achieve. By committing to a goal pursuit, an individual's attention and effort would be drawn from goal-irrelevant activity to goal-relevant activity (Laran, 2016). The self-regulatory processes embedded in the goal mechanism keep that individual following the pursuit. Thus, a goal increases individual effort as well as the persistence of that effort. The advantage of goal pursuit is that it is easier to prime at the individual level as well as population level and resolve when it loses motivation or transition under challenging conditions (Latham, 2016). Therefore, a large number of studies examining secondary behavioural drivers have used goal pursuit as the primary behavioural driver (Laran et al., 2008; Lee and Ariely, 2006; Tate et al., 2014; Gęsiarz and Crockett, 2015; Karlin et al., 2015). In the consumption context, goal framework is an effective, attention-organised means of accommodating the multiple consumption needs with which individuals interact every day (Loken, 2006). That goal-tracked consumption tends to receive more attention, is valued and occupies in a higher position in the hierarchy. Moreover, a goal framework provides a clear and consistent behavioural base to examine secondary behavioural drivers (Haugtvedt et al., 2018).

Although goal is a close proxy for behaviour, it still cannot fully explain that behaviour, as consumers are often not in control of the way they behave (Lee and Ariely, 2006; Laran et al., 2008; Haws et al., 2012; Fishbach et al., 2016). Considering again the analogy of a transportation as a primary behavioural driver: transportation is dependent on the conditions it needs to operate. These conditions are either external influences, such as weather, road surface and traffic, or internal influences, such as drivers and passengers. In the context of goal pursuits, the conditions influencing such pursuits include situational attributions and personal characteristics (Ariely et al., 2009; Haws et al., 2012). When these conditions are active and salient, consumers can deviate from their planned goal pursuit to another goal without being aware of their digression. Kumar and Ghodeswar (2014) found that a deliberate conscious intention is not enough to explain the decision to purchase a green product, because there are functional, emotional and experiential processes involved in parallel. In addition, consumers are likely to adhere to their previous experiences and habits to navigate their consumption pursuit. Heuristic thinking might force the individuals to fail to act on

socially responsible consumption (Laran et al., 2008). This suggests that, to understand these conditions, it is necessary that one grasp the interdependency of personal, environmental and behavioural components (Dalton and Spiller, 2012; Ganegoda et al., 2016). In the previous discussion of medium-deterministic paradigm, the latest extensions were built on perceived behavioural control and situational attribution (Carrington et al., 2010). This suggests that situational attributions as well as individual internal characteristics are the key moderators on the primary behavioural driver.

Situational attributions are the secondary behavioural drivers that have been widely discussed in consumer research. They were first introduced by Belk (1975), when he proposed dividing situational influence into physical environment, social environment, temporal perception, task nature and antecedent states. While situational attributions examined in consumer research are mostly associated with physical environments, social environments such as group dynamics have received greater interest (Schultz et al., 1995). According to Reis and Holmes (2012), social context is the situation wherein all individuals interact most frequently; most social psychological studies should begin their enquiries there. Human activity involves large amounts of coordination and competition; there's always a degree of interaction with other individuals. Given that most of human activities are goal-directed, people are very likely to experience goal contagion and goal conflict on a daily basis. Interference with goals will always alter one's emotions, as well as memories and habits. Relationships with others can be seen as a micro or nested environment, such as teams, groups, families, organizations, nations and cultures. For example, an university can organise a fundraising dinner for alumni from a particular region. Although the alumni have finished their degree in different subjects and years, they could attend the dinner supporting the same social cause and with the same emotional attachment. Group dynamics are focused on the interaction of individuals with other individuals that surround them (Over, 2018). The influence of interaction can be either direct and visible or indirect and subtle (Cavanaugh, 2016). Direct group interaction is often involved with individuals working intentionally together (Huang et al., 2014). One condition is a goal-sharing situation (Fishbach et al., 2016). Consumers deal with multiple goals each day – shopping, dining, watching television, and they do it in either isolation or a group. By simply forming a shared goal pursuit, individuals can unconsciously change their intended course of action. Moreover, participation in goal setting tends to increase self-efficacy, and it, in return, leads to a higher performance (Huang et al., 2014). Indirect group interaction is focused on the presence of others without visible interaction and is in fact a different form of

group dynamic (O'Neill, 2012; Wansink and Chandon, 2014; Over, 2018). The classic experiments of Milgram and Asch showed people conform for many reasons – whether that situation elicits respect for authority, fear of being different, fear of rejection, or simply a desire for approval (Benjamin Jr and Simpson, 2009). Individuals comply in order to fuel their need to be liked or belong. These social influences are referred as conformity and obedience. In addition, individuals can perform better or worse in front of a group. This is referred as social facilitation (Belletier et al., 2019). The group's ability to either arouse or lessen feelings of personal responsibility can make individuals do unexpected things (Kim and Choi, 2018). This is referred to as de-individuation in group dynamics. The less individual people feel, the more they are at the mercy of the experience of the group, whether it's good or bad. One thing that is clear is that the attitudes and beliefs individuals bring to a group are conditional on the interaction of that group (Berger and Heath, 2007; Fishbach et al., 2016). Online social media is a new medium that has made it easier to connect like-minded people and magnify their inclinations (Appel et al., 2016). Therefore, a positive group dynamic can influence more people to commit to socially responsible consumption, as it reinforces the effect of primary goal pursuit (de la Peña and Quintanilla, 2015). However, negative group dynamics can prevent people from making a commitment, despite having a strong intention or primary goal pursuit. For goal pursuit in the presence of others, Fishbach et al. (2016) indicated that the underlying mechanism is a shared reality. When a person is thinking about someone's behaviour, one common process is to try matching that person's identity and goals with their own; determine the alignment of thoughts and perceptions with their own. Such a thinking process often creates a shared reality in which the individual is able to unconsciously see and follow the behaviour of others. In a way, the presence of others would create a condition of self-regulation and activate a group norm behaviour. This idea has been reinforced by the automatic behaviour priming or stereotype priming studies from Bargh et al. People who are unconscionably primed with certain words, such as retirement or walking canes, are likely to adjust their behaviour to sync with the reality or trait of the stereotype, such as slowing down when walking or speaking. If people can alter their behaviour through semantic priming, the presence of others might spur situational priming for people in terms of goal pursuit. Individuals are expected to form a shared reality in the presence of others and are likely to adopt the norm behaviour.

The discussion about the effect of situational factors in attitude-behaviour gap can rekindle the debate about personality and situation, a debate centred on the question of whether

individual behaviour is determined by personality traits or by situational factors (Swann and Seyle, 2005). Briley et al. (2005) finds that group memberships and personality characteristics can give a further insight on behavioural change. One useful extension to tie situational factors and goal-based motivation together is personality traits. The personality perspective posits that, driven by their personality traits, people are reasonably consistent in their behaviours (Monson et al., 1982). If an individual performs a trait-related action in one situation, he or she is expected to perform a similar action in another situation. Thus, personality traits are seen as an effective predictor of how people behave across situations. However, according to the situationist perspective, people are far less consistent across situations and confronted with influences from biological and social environments (Kenrick and Dantchik, 1983; Bleidorn, 2015). For instance, if an individual believes that buying fair trade coffee will improve the working conditions of coffee-bean workers, the individual is more likely to make the purchase. However, if the individual believes that the purchase of fair trade coffee is more likely to benefit the corporation rather than the coffee-bean workers, the individual may decide not to make the purchase. In other words, people's behaviours are determined either by situations or by their perceptions of those situations (Roberts and DelVecchio, 2000). The person-situation debate has led to a growing recognition that determining consumer behaviours is never about the advance of one perspective at the expense of the others; it is always about the interaction of internal factors and situational factors (Fleeson, 2004; Funder, 2009). Moreover, the person-situation variability could be directly related to the attitude-behaviour gap has been reported in socially responsible consumption.

One example of person-situation variability is fraud behaviour (DeZoort and Harrison, 2018). One common means of fraud prevention is to focus on opportunities. However, it's not only difficult to establish what constitutes an "appropriate" opportunity, but it is also ineffective in treating everyone with the same threshold and ignoring those who exploit differently from ordinary people. The dark triad personality traits often provide a new prospective to understand how individuals with different psychological traits interact with opportunities. For example, people with high psychopathy and Machiavellianism traits tend to have a higher likelihood of misbehaving intentions and moral rationalising than do those with narcissism but individuals with a high narcissism trait tend to be more skilful in capabilities than the other two. An interactionist behavioural model is better at capturing the effect between psychological factors and situational elements. Dolan et al. (2012) recognised that the theoretical framework in behavioural finance is gradually shifting from "changing minds" to "changing

context"; some of the contextual factors are either goal-priming (incentive) or trait-priming (ego). For example, individuals with a high narcissistic trait might serve as a salient signal for other investors and people might choose to follow their signal without self-realisation. Deluga (1997) found that presidents who were rated high in narcissistic traits by historians were often effective, charismatic and creative, according to public opinion. Brunell et al. (2008) also found consistent evidence that individuals scoring high in the narcissism would show a strong leadership in group discussions. According to Paulhus et al. (2013), individuals with a high narcissistic trait were more likely to stand out in a job interview because they had better skill in translating self-promotion into public charisma or leadership. Naderi and Strutton (2014) found that narcissistic people tend to report more prosocial behaviours, although they in fact behave less prosocially. Moreover, the dark triad personality traits can reveal the social desirability bias that people often evidence when surveyed; this means that people with the dark triad personality traits can act on socially responsible consumption in a strategic way. People with a high narcissistic trait can act on socially responsible consumption if that consumption can feed into their desire to seek status or glory. They might also be able to act as a salient signal to make others mirror their behaviour in the presence. The same can be said to people with a high Machiavellian trait. They're likely to appear to be a socially responsible consumer when that serves a strategic purpose and when the social norm is highlighted. People with a high psychopathic trait are expected to resist the norm unless they actually desire that form of consumption.

One of the strengths in developing the theoretical framework through goal mechanism with psychological and situational extensions is to consider the idea of socially responsible consumption as a complex system process (Culiberg, 2014; Nair and Little, 2016). It's clear that the main theories in socially responsible consumption all pivot from a pure conscious behaviour approach. Some of the new extensions are focused on various types of value orientation, such as altruism and environmentalism. However, most theories are making improvements in understanding unconscious behavioural drivers, with most common being situational priming and self-representation. The increasing emphasis on unconscious behavioural drivers shows that consumers don't just live in a vacuum and their decision process is more malleable than expected (Gruber, 2012). While the aim of a theoretical framework is to only take into account those factors that contribute to the decision to act on socially responsible consumption, while assuming that other behavioural drivers remain constant (do Paço et al., 2013). But this is unlikely, considering reflecting the reality of the process. For example, what causes someone

to buy a recycled sport shoe? The simplest answer is that the individuals has an environmental concern because the expectation is that socially responsible consumption can only be motivated by one's value orientation or ethical belief. However, there are other conditions under which individuals might opt for socially responsible consumption without any concern about value orientation or ethical beliefs. Take the case of Wells Fargo's scandal, in which the company was fined $185 Million for fraudulently opening accounts. Francesca Gino (2018) attributed the causal factor as the trait of some employees to be too "rebellious" or too creative, selfish and reckless in their individual behaviour. However, Black et al. (2019) argued that the downfall of Wells Fargo's and the basis for its unethical practices was a goal-setting malfunction setting the wrong incentives and metrics for employees. Quelch and Knoop (2018) suggested that the workplace pressure in Wells Fargo was extremely toxic. They compare the company's group dynamics to those of baboons, who share similar genetics with human, i.e., "they're not getting done in by predators and famines, they're getting done in by each other." Baboons are wired to emulate the stress levels of other baboons and it's the stressors that are truly deadly. This is considered to be the case for Wells Fargo's scandal. It's always challenging to highlight the causal factors of ethics-related behaviour as every behavioural driver can serve as an independent lens (Gęsiarz and Crockett, 2015). But the reality is that all the stated behavioural drivers might have played a role in causing those unethical practices (Salonen). As to the effect of ethical beliefs or value orientation, Wells Fargo's scandal shows that having business ethics, an internal compliance team and external regulators can still allow an organisation to fall into the intention-behaviour gap, in which people always have good intentions but never align their behaviour to those intensions. The British philosopher and psychologist G. H. Lewes once called the interaction of multiple factors in a process as "emergent phenomenon" (Globus et al 2004). He said "Every resultant is either a sum or a difference of the co-operant forces; their sum, when their directions are the same their difference, when their directions are contrary. Further, every resultant is clearly traceable in its components, because these are homogeneous and commensurable. It is otherwise with emergents, when, instead of adding measurable motion to measurable motion, or things of one kind to other individuals of their kind, there is a co-operation of things of unlike kinds. The emergent is unlike its components insofar as these are incommensurable, and it cannot be reduced to their sum or their difference" (Rothenberg, 2014). Socially responsible consumption is a new emergent phenomenon that is increasingly a topic of discussion. However, it's also a complex system product with ethical, social, psychological, financial and environ-

mental contributions. The theoretical framework should be flexible enough to accommodate the presence of multiple behavioural drivers as well as simple enough to allow for comparison between statistical modelling and simulation. The goal-based framework with situational priming and psychosocial factors is not only structured in a way to give such flexibility and simplicity to examine socially responsible consumption, but also relies on the most extensively developed behavioural drivers from both consciousness (goal) and unconsciousness (situation and psychological traits).

5.4 Conclusion

The theoretical frameworks of socially responsible consumption can be built on a simple and transparent primary behavioural driver. The choice of the primary behavioural driver is meant to be easier to prime at the population level and resolve when it loses motivation or transition under challenging conditions. This makes the primary behavioural driver between implementation intention and goal pursuit the key difference. The latter has been frequently adopted as the primary behavioural driver in consumer and social psychology, as it is sufficiently flexible to satisfy different needs of extensions, such as implementation intention and identity. The main emphasis here is on the effect of the second behavioural driver on the primary behavioural driver. It can either reinforce or alter the direction of the primary behavioural driver and revise the pursuit of social responsible consumptions. Social environments have been increasingly adopted as the secondary behavioural driver to improve the theoretical frameworks of socially responsible consumption. The advantage of giving more weight to social environments is that individuals are more likely to be influenced by the presence of others and, more importantly, it is the most dynamic circumstance people can encounter in everyday life. However, the attitude-behaviour gap in socially responsible consumption rekindles the debate about personality and situation, a debate centred on the intra-individual variability across different situational demands in the recent years. Personality traits could bring a further contribution of intra-individual variation against inter-individual variation, in particular to the social context of “negative traits” and “positive consumption”.

6 Methodology

6.1 Survey-based measurements

This study used two types of measures with the goal of gaining an understanding of socially responsible consumption, one being a survey-based measure and the other, a behaviour-based measure. Survey-based measures serve as an indirect proxy with which to measure socially responsible behaviours by querying consumers on their intention or past behaviours. The data were collected through a list of scale; most studies of socially responsible consumption have adopted a survey-based measure to explore socially responsible behaviours. For example, Ma et al. (2011) used a 7-point scale to measure the purchase intention in fair trade products over a period of six months; Smith (2012) chose a 7-point scale to measure the attitude and perceived saving across different energy saving light bulbs; Lang et al. (2013) used a 8-item scale to document individual clothing disposal frequency in relation to fast fashion problems; Pinto et al. (2014) used a 7-item scale to measure individual sustainable consumption in relation to gender and identity and Loebnitz et al. (2015) surveyed respondents on their purchase intentions through a 7-point scale for food shape abnormality and organic labelling. Paul et al. (2016) used a Likert-type scale, i.e., 5-item and 5-point, to extract individual purchase intentions toward the purchase of green products, while Hwang and Griffiths (2017) chose to adopt a 3-item scale to measure consumer intentions to use collaborative consumption services. In this study, survey-based measurements were used to determine social responsibility attitudes, the Dark Triad of Personality Traits and individual background. The main advantage of using survey-based measures is that the set-up process is relatively easy, and operational costs are low. Given the participants will be asked about their demographic information, it is easier to just extend the survey and ask them to provide as much information as possible with a single effort. This will also reduce the potential drop-out rate in the data collection. In addition, there are a number of statistical analyses that can reduce the possibility of unintended bias. However, it must be kept in mind that survey-based measures can create significant bias when utilized to measure socially responsible behaviours. The first type is recall bias; when participants respond to questions about their past socially responsible behaviours, they must access their memories to recall their behavioural patterns, and memory can unreliable (Valor, 2007). This means that reports about socially responsible behaviour can be predicated on how well the individual can remember those past behaviours, and not how frequently the individual engages in them the better the memory, the better the individual response. Second, there is

social desirability bias. In consumer research concerning ethicality or social responsibility, it has been widely reported that social desirability is one of the main causal factors contributing to the attitude-behaviour gap (Auger et al., 2007; Carrington et al., 2010). When consumers are asked about ethical or socially responsible behaviours, they tend to portray a positive image of their expected behaviours rather than their actual behaviours. In other words, people tend to overstate the 'good' behaviours and understate the 'bad' behaviours. Given most of the studies in socially responsible consumption are focused on the attainment of 'good' behaviours, people can unconsciously overstate their answer about their intended socially responsible behaviours. Third, common method bias. When Wu and Chen (2014) examined the relationship between perception of environmentally friendly consumption and actual behaviour. The presumed measurement of actual behaviour is based on surveys that include questions such as "I prefer choosing products that cause less pollution" or "I prefer choosing energy-saving products". However, the explanatory variables such as behaviour intention and attitudes were also based on questionnaires comprised of questions such as "I would like to purchase environmentally friendly products". This is a common problem when using a questionnaire as both the explanatory and outcome variables. By making data collection easier, researchers often stack up all the surveys for independent variables and dependent variables (Grimmer et al., 2016). They will then give the surveys to the participants through the same channel (either face-to-face or online), at the same time and the same location. However, this means that the information being extracted from the individuals is likely to be correlated. For example, if an individual has expressed strong agreement on one of the independent variable scales, such as fairness, that person is very likely to offer a similar degree of agreement on the dependent variable scale, such as an intention to buy fair-trade coffee. Both scales might actually provide the same insight about individual attitude to fairness. In our review of over 300 studies focused on socially responsible behaviours, we found only a few that had explicitly addressed the common method bias (Strizhakova and Coulter, 2013; Tsarenko et al., 2013; Antonetti and Maklan, 2014; Wang, 2014; Gleim and J. Lawson, 2014; Dermody et al., 2015; Chatzidakis et al., 2016; Ertz et al., 2016; Jayawardhena et al., 2016; He et al., 2016; Nguyen et al., 2017). For those studies that attempted to overcome that bias, researchers often opt for ex post methods (e.g., using factor analysis or structural equation modelling) instead of ex-ante methods (using different study designs). However, ex-post methods are still prone to confirmation bias as researchers might choose to adjust the scale items between independent and dependent variables in order to achieve 'a negative correlation'.

6.2 The Dark Triad measure

Short Dark Triad (SD3) has been chosen to determine the Dark Triad of personality traits among the participants (Jones and Paulhus, 2014). The scale has 27 items and nine per each personality trait in a 5-point scale. In addition, the study has used a principle component analysis and z-score measurements to substitute the original measurements. Both dimensions reduction techniques can overcome multicollinearity issues in the dataset as well as overlapping personality trait in the scale.

Three independent measures

There are two common approaches to measuring the Dark Triad of personality traits. One is to measure the three dark personality traits according to their own individual clinical standard, and the other one is use a single concise measure to extract the three dark personality traits simultaneously. Narcissism is commonly measured with a 40-item questionnaire. This is often referred to as the NPI-40 (Narcissistic Personality Inventory for 40-item) (Foster and Campbell, 2007), which is the current standard measure of subclinical narcissism (Raskin & Hall, 1979). For example, one study examining the relationship between narcissism and social class was conducted utilizing NPI-40. Another study using NPI-40 examined the relationship between narcissism and empathy (Baskin-Sommers et al., 2014). Recently, researchers used the NPI-40 scale to demonstrate that, for people with high narcissism, an intervention can have a positive effect on their socially responsible consumption through social media appeal (Bergman et al., 2011). However, there is more than one form of the Narcissistic Personality Inventory. One study using NPI-16 (the 16-item Narcissistic Personality Inventory) showed that people with high narcissism tend to experience better quality and satisfaction in high-end retail settings compared to those with a low degree of narcissism (Naderi and Paswan, 2016). Another study using NPI-16 found that the people with high narcissism were not motivated by altruistic concerns when engaging in self-reported prosocial behaviours (Martin et al., 2019). In addition, one recent study used NPI-children (Narcissistic Personality Inventory for Children) to examine the relationship between narcissism and prosocial or coercive behaviours in adolescents (Jones and Figueredo, 2013).

Researchers in the area of consumerism often measure Machiavellianism with the 20 item Mach-IV inventory (Christie & Geis, 1970). For example, one study using the Mach-IV inventory examined ethical ideologies (e.g., Machiavellianism) in relation to individual aware-

ness to ethical situations (Simmons and Snell, 2017). Another study using the Mach-IV inventory assessed Machiavellianism as it relates to ethical beliefs in both American and Turkish consumers (Rawwas et al., 2005). One recent study examining the relationships between responsibility and Machiavellianism was also conducted through the Mach-IV inventory (Harrison et al., 2016). In addition, the Mach-IV inventory, along with narcissism measures (e.g., NPI-16), was utilised to explore the effect of personality traits on unethical intentions to commit fraud (Winter et al., 2004). There is a new Machiavellianism measure that derived from Mach-IV inventory, the MPS (Machiavellian Personality Scale) (LeBreton et al., 2018). However, there has been limited empirical evidence collected using MPS.

For psychopathy, there are a number of self-reported measures in consumer studies concerning ethicality or social responsibility: LSRP (Levenson Self-Report Psychopathy Scale); SRP (Self-Report Psychopathy Scale) and its revisions (SRP-II and SRP-4); PP1/PPI-R (Kelsey et al., 2015). First, the LSRP scale is focused on self-reported psychopathic features in non-institutional samples. It consists of 26 items on a 4-point Likert-type with two level scales. For example, one study using LSRP examined the relationships among unethical corporate values, bullying experiences, psychopathy, and ethical evaluations of bullying (Smith and Lilienfeld, 2013). Another study using LSRP evaluated the relationships among the presence of ethics codes and employees' locus of control, social aversion/malevolence, and ethical judgments of incivility (Valentine et al., 2018). Second, the original SRP scale started with 75 items and was reduced to 29 items, with the SRP-II focused on two factors, the central factor being an assessment of core interpersonal and affective features of psychopathy (Neumann et al., 2012). The second factor involves assessing. SRP-III, which began with 40 items and has been expanded to 64, is now referred to as the SRP-4. However, there is a revised short version comprised of 28 items, the SRP-SF (SRP–Short Form) (Boduszek and Debowska, 2016). One study using SRP-III examined the relationships between psychopathy, empathy, and everyday moral decision making (Paulhus, Neumann, & Hare, 2017). Another study using SRP-SF explored the relationship between psychopathy and helping behaviours (Mahmut et al., 2016). The diversity of SRP scales has proven to be effective when examining a variety of samples. For PP1/PPI-R, the focus is often on assessing psychopathic traits in noncriminals with 187 items in a 4-point Likert-type format. One recent study using PPI-SF sought to determine if individuals with high psychopathic traits can still act morally (Lilienfeld et al., 2014).

One integrated measure

There have been two integrated measures for the Dark Triad personality traits used in studies of ethicality or social responsibility. One measure is the 12-item Dirty Dozen (Jonason and Webster, 2010), with which one study explored the effect of dark triad personality traits on social perspective and cognitive decision-making biases in negotiation (ten Brinke et al., 2015). Another study using the Dirty Dozen examined the relationship between the Dark Triad traits and empathy while (Łowicki and Zajenkowski, 2017), recently, another utilising that measure determined how the compensation system moderates the relationship between a leader's Dark Triad traits and CSR perception (Crysel et al., 2013). Another integrated measure is the Short Dark Triad (SD3) (Jones and Paulhus, 2012). The scale has 27 items and nine per each personality trait in a 5-point. One study using SD3 looked at the relationship between the Dark Triad and unethical behaviours through time intervals and another examined the relationship between personal attitude towards doping and personality traits (Nicholls et al., 2017).

In this study, Short Dark Triad (SD3) has been adopted in determining the Dark Triad of personality traits among the participants. There are a number of reasons in favour of this scale (Jonason and Webster, 2010; Maples et al., 2014; Kajonius et al., 2016). First, SD3 has only 27 questionnaire items compared to three independent measures on narcissism, Machiavellianism, and psychopathy, which are expected to involve more than 60 questionnaire items. This means that SD3 can introduce a lighter mental loading in the survey and causes the participants to be less prone to survey fatigue, especially there are other questionnaire items expected in the final survey. Second, a single validated measure would have a better internal cohesion (internal validation) than three independent separate measures. The latter might suffer from double counting and potential interaction of the individual measures. Finally, SD3 scale is more compact than most separate measures and, more importantly, it has been reported to yield more insights than the Dirty Dozen in assessing the Dark Triad of personality traits.

6.3 Ethical consumer survey

Muncy-Vitell's Consumer Ethics Scale (CES) has ben adopted by this study to determine the multiple dimensions of consumer ethicality or social responsibility (Vitell and Muncy, 2005). The scale has been widely adopted in the journal articles as well as text books when discussing about business ethics. It has total 37 items in the questionnaire and the aim of the scale is

to measure consumers' ethical implication and attitude towards business.

There are a vast number of consumer surveys in the consumer research to measure consumer's intention, attitude and perception towards ethicality and social responsibility. For example, one study, examining the factors of underpinning the willingness of consumers to purchase environmentally friendly products, has adopted five established scales to explore consumer attitude and perception towards ethicality and social responsibility (Kozar and Marcketti, 2011). These scales are focused on consumer values orientation towards collectivism and individualism from Laroche et al. (2001) and McCarty and Shrum (1994), consumer interpersonal influence from Bearden et al. (1989), consumer environmental attitudes, ecoliteracy from Laroche et al.'s (2001), and other environmental facets from Laroche et al. (2001), McCarty and Shrum (1994) and Roberts (1996), such as level of responsibility, severity, significance and convenience. However, a similar study focused on Lebanese consumers has chosen to compose its own survey to explore social consumer attitude and perception based on perceived seriousness of environmental problems, perceived environmental responsibility, perceived effectiveness of environmental problems and concern for self-image in environmental protection (Rawwas et al., 1994). Another study, examining the impact of external locus of control, collectivism, environmental visibility and subjective norms on green consumer behaviour, has adopted a 9-item scale from Parker et al. (2009) to measure collectivism, a 3-item scale from Yang et al. (2009) to measure environmental visibility and a range of items from Chow and Chen (2009) to measure green purchasing intention. Another study, examining how attitudes, perceptions and behavioural intentions in young consumers towards environmentally sustainable textile and apparel products (Kozar and Marcketti, 2011), has used a 3-item scale to measure the willingness of a respondent to consume and 4-item scale to measure the beliefs of consuming organic cotton apparel from Ajzen and Fishbein (1980) and Shaw et al. (2000). When exploring the relationship of consumers' responsibility, perceived readiness to be green and purchase intention towards green products in Indonesia, one study adopted a scale from Johnstone, Yang, and Tan (2014) to measure the green perception in consumers (Lu and Lu, 2010). One study, examining the effect of identity on the relationship between materialism and environmentally friendly tendency, has drew scales about environmentally friendly tendencies from Cornelissen et al., 2008; Kilbourne et al., 2009; Webb, Mohr, & Harris, 2008 (Gentina et al., 2018).

While there are many consumer surveys measuring different facets of ethicality or social responsibility, fewer consumer studies have explicitly stated the reasoning on their rationale

of the survey choice. The common rationale seems to be based on previous studies. However, one clear disadvantage in embracing multiple surveys on consumer ethics is that it fails to provide a holistic perspective on consumer attitudes and perception concerning ethicality and social responsibility. It is the intention to overcome such convention by adopting a survey that can provide a holistic perspective on the social consumer attitudes and perception. One of the most discussed scales that concerning the multiple dimensions of consumer ethicality or social responsibility is Muncy-Vitell Consumer Ethics Scale (CES). One distinctive advantage of CES is that it provides a range of items that covering a range of facets of consumer attitudes and perception concerning various common and unethical consumer behaviours. However, as the author pointed out earlier (Vitell and Muncy, 2005), some of the items in the scale might need a modern revision. For example, the behaviour of "burning a CD" is now largely disappeared in the consumer market. Therefore, we have adopted a modified version of CES that have been revised according to current consumer preference.

6.4 General survey

All the participants have been surveyed on their demography and lifestyle information. These are including age, country of birth, country of residence, languages, preference of social media, household size, daily logistic, fruit and vegetable preference. Also, a list of random questions have been embedded into the survey as noises. For example, the participants were asked how likely they would want to buy a new mobile phone, where they would go for their summer holiday, how likely they would prefer to live closed to work, how likely they think there's a gender inequality at work or study place, how likely they would like to remain in the same city after their study or first job and how likely they are in contact with their parents everyday, how likely Brexit is bad for me and how likely public strike is good for me. In addition, the participants were asked how likely they would like to set a goal to behave more socially responsible. While the main goal of the general survey is to provide the demography and lifestyle information about the individuals, it aims to set up a wide range of questions that preventing the participants to see it as a survey about socially responsible consumption.

6.5 Behaviour-based outcome measure

In this study, we have chosen to use post-survey rewards as our behaviour-based measure. When participants finished the survey, they were invited to choose among three reward op-

tions: The first option was £4 worth goodie bag with £1 donation; the second option was £4 worth goodie bag with £1 cash take-away; the third option was £3.5 cash. The choices of £4 worth goodie bag were including either T-shirt with print logo "Children in Need", six chocolate bars with a sticker "social responsibility" or two bottles of juice with a sticker "social responsibility". The participants were only allowed to pick one reward from the £4 worth goodie bag.

There is a distinctive advantage of using a behaviour-based measure rather than a survey-based measure in relation to outcome measurements. It is frequently believed that survey-based measures tend to capture inflated responses from the participants, as the participants are surveyed in an unconstrained environment wherein they can express whatever they feel is desired. This is often referred as a social desirability bias (Auger and Devinney, 2007). Beside social desirability, common method bias are the one that have been often neglected in the socially responsible consumer studies (Koller et al., 2011). It describes the predictors (independent variable) and outcome (dependent variable) being measured at the same time, same location and same medium. Such study design can produce artificial covariance rather than the true covariance from the constructs (MacKenzie and Podsakoff, 2012). Moreover, the outcome measure and predictor measure in many of socially responsible consumer studies seem to survey the same dimension of ethicality and socially responsibility. For example, surveying individual morality as predictor and surveying individual intention to buy fair trade as an outcome can potentially yield the same insight. Psychology and behavioural science tend to favour consumer studies using behaviour-based measures, while traditional studies concerning ethicality or social responsibly are largely dominated by survey-based measures (Yamoah et al., 2016). O'Fallon and Butterfield (2005) found that only one quarter of the studies they examined utilised a behaviour-based outcome as the dependent variable, while most empirical studies used non-behavioural outcomes such as intention, judgement, and awareness. The behaviour-based measure is one step closer to consumption reality as it reduces the common method bias and reflect the actual choice or behaviour. Therefore, when independent and dependent variables are being measured separately through a different method, i.e., different medium, survey and location, the ex-ante methods can reduce the common method bias more effectively than ex post methods and still leave room to later reduce bias through statistical analysis.

However, one potential complication of using a behaviour-based measure is order effect bias. When people are invited to participate in a survey and/or an experiment, the order of the

arrangement can play a significant effect on dictating the outcome. This is often regarded as order effect (Xu and Wang, 2008). Order effect bias is particularly salient when one survey or experiment has a carryover effect to the next survey or experiment. In other words, certain exposures can have a longer and undetected effect that goes beyond the current setting. In the consumer context, order effect is often discussed in relation to primacy and recency. It describes a situation such that either the first stimuli (primacy) or the last stimuli (recency) can induce a more significant effect on the behaviour. In primacy effect, studies have reported a preference in food, local elections and choice of pension funds investment. The explanation of primacy is that it leaves more of a mental mark than does a subsequent priming. Also, the first encounter is often considered to be original and hence of greater value. However, two recent studies examining panel decisions showed that, on behaviour, recency effects can be equivalent in effect to primacy. In our case, we would assign surveys and experiments to participants in random order or time to overcome the order effect. Some would complete the survey in distance and the choice of reward would only get revealed when they came to collect the reward.

Another potential complication in using behaviour-based measure is that of self-monitoring bias. The concept of self-monitoring suggests that consumers often look to either internal or external cues to adjust their social behaviour (Agrawal and Maheswaran, 2005). High self-monitors tend to use situational cues to guide their behaviour, and more importantly, they tend to endorse statements or behaviours that look to others before acting when they are in a new situation (Ratner and Kahn 2002). However, low self-monitors tend not to alter behaviour across situations and choose to rely on internal cues such as feelings, attitudes and beliefs to guide their behaviour. One study of the fashion industry found that people with a high self-monitoring trait were seen as opportunists rather than loyalists, while people with a low self-monitoring trait preferred to be managed in the area of fashion retail and were keen on developing a social relationship with salespersons (Kim et al., 2010). One potential way to reduce the effect of self-monitoring bias is to screen participants on the Machiavellian trait (Leone and Corte, 1994), which reportedly has a positive correlation with self-monitoring bias, although there have been cases indicating that the relationship between them is not strong (Triki et al., 2017). However, both traits are very similar in being conscious of social cues with the aim of achieving personal gain. Therefore, the Machiavellian trait can be a good proxy to both self-monitoring bias and social desirability. In the current study design, the Dark Triad of Personality Traits is expected to capture both social desirability and self-reporting bias on

socially responsible consumption. This should give us a new venue to examine the potential for human bias when individuals are confronted by questions about social responsibility across different social contexts. In addition, it returns the discussion to the interaction effect of personality-situation and the exploration of socially responsible consumption through this lens.

6.6 Sampling strategy

To achieve an unbiased sample (uniform distribution), we first considered using participant panel companies such as ResearchNow. The advantage of using an existing participant panel is a reduction in recruitment bias as well as in the time necessary to replace participants who drop out. However, the disadvantage is that the financial cost of using an existing participant panel is very high and the study didn't have a research budget sufficient to covering that cost. Therefore, we adopted an alternative sampling strategy, sampling participants from a university campus and the general public. One of the advantages of sampling from the university campus is the ability to work with current university infrastructure, such as campus advertising, internal emailing and venues for experimentation. As to general public sampling, that was initiated in the public venues near the campus. The disadvantage of this sampling strategy is that it is prone to participant biases as student participants tend to have a similar demographic background and the findings are often difficult to generalise. The experiment also adopted a snowball sampling (a referral-based sampling); that meant that the experiment controller asked the participants to refer their friends to the study, with each referral netting them a small cash reimbursement. However, the reimbursement was only given if their nominated individuals chose to participate. This scheme was only offered after the participants have collected their own reimbursement. The total sample size of the study was 240, with approximately 60 of the intended sample in each group. The sample size was calculated based on the statistical power of 0.8, significance level of 0.05 and effect size is between 0.3 and 0.35. All the participants were above age 18.

6.7 Experimental group setting

All the participants have been classified as goal pursuers in this study. When the participants were first approached to participate the study, they were all informed about receiving a £4 worth reimbursement on completing the survey. Therefore, it's reasonable to assume that

every participant involved in this study carried an implicit goal and this implicit goal was the £4 worth reimbursement. There were four experimental groups in total, including participants with no socially responsible goal priming, those with socially responsible goal priming, participants with socially responsible goal priming in the presence of others and participants with socially responsible goal priming in selfie priming. In the first experimental group, the participants were invited to complete a questionnaire at their convenience and simply collect a reimbursement. There was no goal priming on individual social responsibility. This group was regarded as the control or baseline group. In the second experimental group, the participants were asked if they were interested in taking up a challenge to fulfil as many socially responsible consumption as they can and, in two weeks, retake the survey to gauge their progress. A list of socially responsible consumption were supplemented. For example, buying green or eco-labelled products, buying locally-produced food, energy conservation, improving debt management, reducing smoking, using recycled shopping bags, recycling waste, donation, walking 10,000 steps, going to gym, eating healthy foods, drinking juice. The list of items were only to serve as guidance and the participants were informed that they're free to choose any of them to commit. However, the second survey was never taken as it only served as goal priming for the participants. Once the participants completed the questionnaire, they would start the survey and choose their reimbursement individually. In the third experimental group, the participants were invited into a group of between three and five participants. Some of them were already recruited as a group. The participants were asked if they were interested in taking up a challenge to fulfil as many socially responsible consumption as they can and, in two weeks, retake the survey to gauge their progress. A list of socially responsible consumption were supplemented. For example, buying green or eco-labelled products, buying locally-produced food, energy conservation, improving debt management, reducing smoking, using recycled shopping bags, recycling waste, donation, walking 10,000 steps, going to gym, eating healthy foods, drinking juice. The list of items were only to serve as guidance and the participants were informed that they're free to choose any of them to commit. However, the second survey was never taken as it only served as goal priming for the participants. They then completed the questionnaire together and had five minutes to consider their reimbursement in the presence of others. Participants in the fourth group were first asked if they were interested in taking up a challenge to fulfil as many socially responsible consumption as they can and, in two weeks, retake the survey to gauge their progress. A list of socially responsible consumption were supplemented. For example, buying green or eco-labelled products, buying

locally-produced food, energy conservation, improving debt management, reducing smoking, using recycled shopping bags, recycling waste, donation, walking 10,000 steps, going to gym, eating healthy foods, drinking juice. The list of items were only to serve as guidance and the participants were informed that they're free to choose any of them to commit. However, the second survey was never taken as it only served as goal priming for the participants. Moreover, they're told to take a selfie photo of themselves with their reimbursement at the end of the experiment. The selfie was expected to be posted on all social media platforms with which they were familiar, such as Facebook, Instagram, Twitter and Weibo. However, the selfie was never taken as it only served as salient goal priming for the participants. The participants chose the preferred reimbursement alone and received a fully informed explanation at the end of the experiment. The participants across the experimental groups were surveyed on their demography, lifestyle, the Dark Triad of personality traits, Consumer Ethics and a list of random questions. To reduce common methods bias, participants were invited to conduct the survey at different times of day and via different mediums (either PC/Laptop or mobile version). Participants also completed the survey in different venues, such as residences, on campus, at public spaces. All the participants were debriefed at the end of the experiment and given their preferred social reimbursements. The experiment was considered to be complete once the participant had signed the consent form.

6.8 Analysis plan

The data analysis plan consisted of data wrangling, modelling and evaluation. First, data wrangling is to transform variables as necessary, including eliminating dummy variables, combining under-signalled variables and correcting data types. Dummy items were initially introduced as noises in the survey to prevent participants from giving self-inflated answers. They were surveyed on personal lifestyle (what languages you would speak to your parents at home or to which country you would love to go for your holiday), attitudes towards public issues (whether you would consider Brexit or a public strike action as being positive events) and attitude towards consumption issues (whether you would buy a clothes made by children). All the dummy variables were removed unless there was strong evidence supporting their presence in the data analysis. In terms of combining variables, a list of survey items concerning social media use were aggregated into a single score called social media density. The measure takes on a range of binary questions, such as "Do you often use Facebook to communicate with your friends?". Instead of having "0" and "1" as the outcome measure of the participant's social

media habits, an aggregated score is likely to garner greater insights. Therefore, social media density is derived from the measurements of social media use. In addition, a correlation matrix was used to determine multicollinearity among the independent variables or predictors. If one independent variable or predictor showed a high correlation with the others, a set of latent variables would be derived from the correlated variables. The current measurements of the Dark Triad of personality traits, as well as consumer ethics, were the main focal points of the correlation matrix. The variable transformation (dimensions reduction) was based on principal component analysis (PCA) and z-score transformation. For principal component analysis, the components were determined by the magnitude of eigenvalue and the breakpoint in the scree plot. If the component has eigenvalue larger higher than 1 and it is located above the breakpoint in the scree plot, it is expected that it will be retained. The first retained component is often the one explaining the largest variance in the data. In this case, the strategy was to retain the top two components.

The direction of the modelling is determined by the nature of the outcome variable as well as the linearity assumption between the independent variables and outcome variables. For the outcome variable, there were three categories available. The first category was a goodies bag worth £4 with £1 donation; the second category was a goodies bag worth £4 with a £1 cash take-away and the third category was £3.50 cash. A low count in the second category created an "imbalanced classes" (or rare event) situation, in which the analysis can result in bias. There are a number of statistical approaches to overcome the "imbalanced classes", such as bootstrapping, under-sampling or oversampling. Another alternative is to remove the category with an extremely low count and opt for logistic regression instead of multinomial regression. Given that the "imbalanced classes" were recurring across other experimental groups, in which most of the participants opted for either the first category or third category, and only three participants from one of the experimental groups decided to choose second category, it would be challenging to perform any bootstrapping, under-sampling and oversampling across the experimental groups. Instead, a logistic regression with the least picked category removal is preferred in this data analysis. In the model development, the first goal was to determine which combination of variables can form the best model on the model metrics, such as cross-validation, likelihood test, AIC, BIC and R^2. In particular, the combination of variables would draw on the original measurements, latent measurements and z-score adjusted measurements of the Dark Triad as well as Consumer Ethics. Finally, both frequentist and Bayesian logistic regression were deployed and evaluated. For model evaluation, cross validation had been

embedded in the model building. The idea of cross validation is to split the dataset into two and only use one dataset to develop the model and the remaining to validate the model. In this study, the training and testing data set ratio was 80:20. This means that 80% of the dataset was used to develop the model and the remaining dataset to determine the model performance. In addition, a likelihood test was used to compare the model performance through variable selection.

Bayesian analysis

The chosen prior is based on a weakly informative prior with Student-t distribution. This gives a bell-shaped distribution with both tails wider than a typical normal distribution. In terms of the parameters, it means taking 3 degrees of freedom, a mean of 0, and scale of 2.5. The common approach is to use a normal distribution as an informative prior. However, this is not recommended as it is not sufficiently robust (O'Hagan, 1979). Another approach is to use a weakly informative prior. That means setting a Student-t distribution with 1 degree of freedom, a mean of 0, and scale of 2.5. However, it has been suggested that such parameters are less effective when the data are less informative. The current consensus on Bayesian logistic regression is for a weakly informative prior with Student-t distribution but increasing the degree freedom from 1 to 3. Therefore, the prior is fixed on $\beta \sim$ Student(3, 0, 2.5) in all Bayesian studies.

7 Results

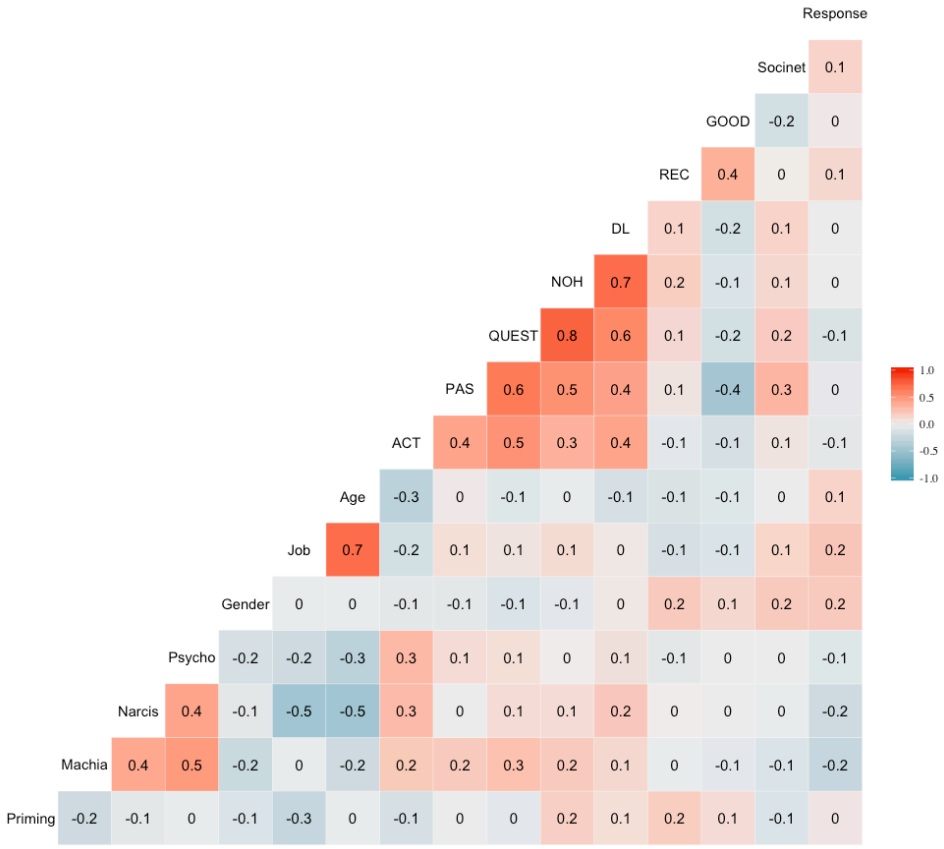
7.1 Study 1 - Goal priming

The first study compared an experimental group of goal priming with the control group. A summary of the characteristics of the participants from both groups is shown in Table 1. Among the 117 participants, 63 participants opted for the socially responsible reward and 54 participants opted for the cash reward. For age groups, 61.7% of the participants were aged 18 to 24 years and 39.3% of the participants were older than 24 years. Women accounted for 60.7% of the participants and men accounted for 39.3% of the participants. There were an equal number of participants with a full-time job and those who were either a student or home-maker. Compared with the control group's mean score, which had 3.55, 2.86, 2.27 in Machiavellianism, Narcissism and Psychopathy, the priming group had the mean score of 3.13, 2.80 and 2.24 for Machiavellianism, Narcissism and Psychopathy. The mean scores for Consumer Ethics measurements in the control group were 1.88 in ACT, 2.21 in PAS, 2.29 in QUEST, 2.53 in NOH, 2.72 in DL, 3.16 for REC and 3.2 for GOOD. In the priming group, the mean scores were 1.67 in ACT, 2.14 in PAS, 2.16 in QUEST, 2.81 in NOH, 2.89 in DL, 3.38 in REC and 3.37 for GOOD. The mean score for social media density in the priming group was 1.72 and 1.95 in the control group. Chocolate bars were the preferred reward for the participants and an ethically labelled T-shirt was the least preferred reward. Finally, there were 57 participants assigned to the priming group and 60 participants assigned to the control group.

Table 1 - Descriptive statistics

	Level	Priming	Control
n		57	60
Goal (%)	0	0 (0.0)	60 (100.0)
	1	57 (100.0)	0 (0.0)
Machiavellianism (mean (SD))		3.13 (0.53)	3.35 (0.62)
Narcissism (mean (SD))		2.80 (0.50)	2.86 (0.63)
Psychopathy (mean (SD))		2.24 (0.61)	2.27 (0.50)
ACT (mean (SD))		1.67 (0.63)	1.88 (0.69)
PAS (mean (SD))		2.14 (0.86)	2.21 (0.83)
QUEST (mean (SD))		2.16 (0.86)	2.29 (0.88)
NOH (mean (SD))		2.81 (0.90)	2.53 (0.90)
DL (mean (SD))		2.89 (1.11)	2.72 (1.02)
REC (mean (SD))		3.38 (0.77)	3.16 (0.63)
GOOD (mean (SD))		3.37 (0.81)	3.20 (0.90)
Social media (mean (SD))		1.72 (0.80)	1.95 (1.11)
Gender (%)	0	26 (45.6)	20 (33.3)
	1	31 (54.4)	40 (66.7)
Occupation (%)	0	35 (61.4)	23 (38.3)
	1	22 (38.6)	37 (61.7)
Age group (%)	0	35 (61.4)	36 (60.0)
	1	22 (38.6)	24 (40.0)
Juice x 2	1	5	3
Choco bar x 6	1	24	27
T-shirt x 1	1	3	1
Cash	1	25	29
Response (%)	0	25 (43.9)	29 (48.3)
	1	32 (56.1)	31 (51.7)

Diagram 1 - Correlation Matrix



Dimension reduction

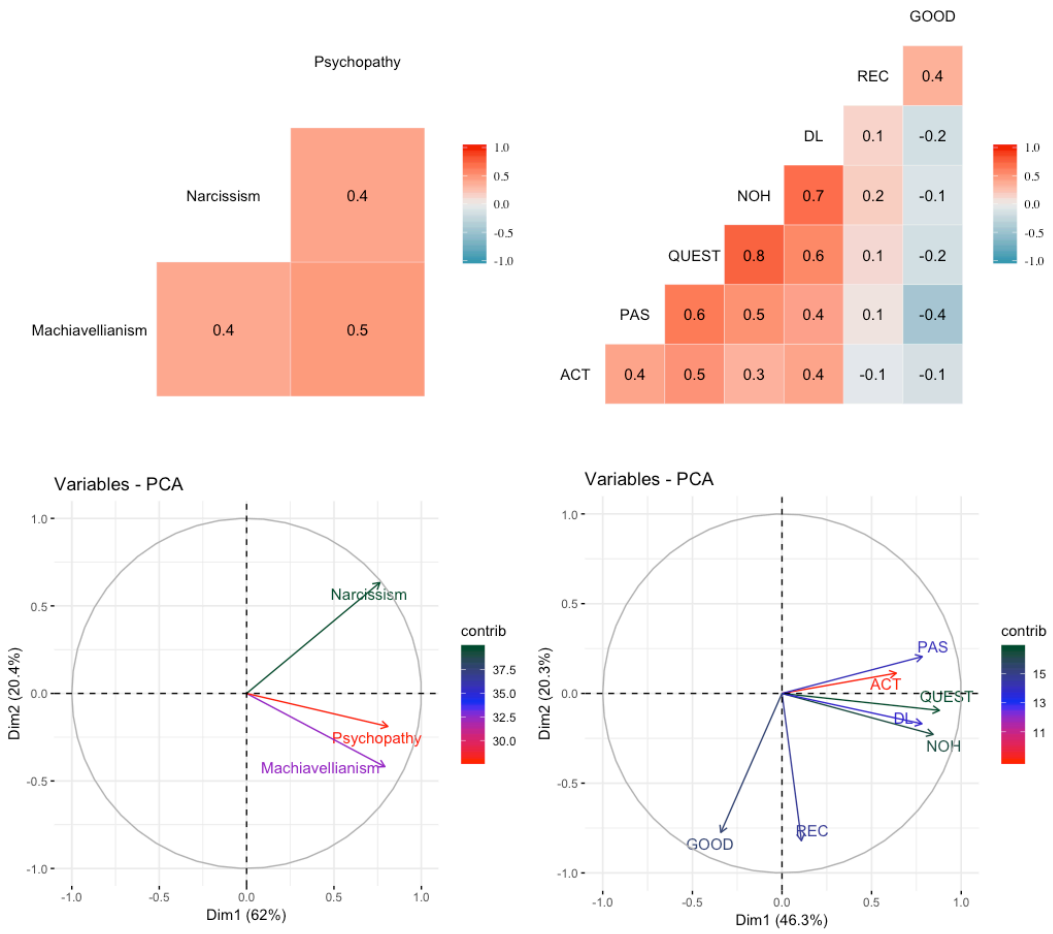
The correlation matrix shows that there's a strong linear dependence within the measurements of the Dark Triad and Consumer Ethics (they are in red and tightly clustered). This indicates a possibility of multicollinearity. This has been further validated with the measurement of variance inflation factor (VIF) that only the models with two variables and models with latent transformations on the measurement of the Dark Triad consistently performed below 5, i.e., VIF < 5. Therefore, the analysis has taken a latent transformation on the measurements of the Dark Triad and Consumer Ethics.

The principal component analysis derived two clusters for the measurement of the Dark Triad and Consumer Ethics. Dark principal component 1 (DPC1) and Dark principal component 2 (DPC2) were the two leading components derived from the measurements of the Dark Triad. DPC1 explained 61.1% of the variance across the three Dark Triad, which is located above the breakpoint of the scree plot with a eigenvalue of 1.83. DPC2 explained 20.7% of the variance across the three Dark Triad of personality traits and is located below the breakpoint of the

scree plot with a eigenvalue of 0.63. The difference between DPC1 and DPC2 is that DPC1 had similar positive loading over Machiavellianism, Narcissism and Psychopathy, but DPC2 had only a high positive loading in Narcissism and low positive loading in Machiavellianism and Psychopathy.

Ethical principal component 1 (EPC1) and Ethical principal component 2 (EPC2) were the two leading components derived from the measurements of Consumer Ethics. EPC1 explained 46.4% of the variance across all the sub-scales of Consumer Ethics with an eigenvalue of 3.5. It is positioned above the breakpoint of the scree plot. EPC2 explained 20.3% of the variance across all the sub-scales with a eigenvalue of 1.4 and is located above the breakpoint of the scree plot. The difference between EPC1 and EPC2 is that EPC1 had a stronger emphasis on ACT, PAS, QUEST, NOH, DL, while DPC2 was concentrated on REC and GOOD.

Diagram 2 - Principal components for the Dark Triad and Consumer Ethics



Single variable relationship

In the relationship between the single variable and the socially responsible reward, the original measurements of the Dark Triad (DT) and its interaction with goal priming (Goal*DT) showed a high AUC value of 0.70 and R^2 value of 0.08 and 0.09. Also, the latent transformation of the Dark Triad (DPC) showed the highest AUC value of 0.72 but suffered from a relatively low R^2 value of 0.04. The original measurements of Consumer Ethics (EZ) scale showed the highest R^2 value of 0.10 but its AUC value was only 0.58. The two new variable transformations derived from the measurements of Consumer Ethics (DPC and DZS) had successfully improved the AUC values to 0.62 and 0.58, but their R^2 values were both down, at 0.04 and 0.01. Goal priming was found to have a zero R^2 value and 0.50 in AUC. In addition, only the variable gender and QUEST (one sub scale of Consumer Ethics) were shown to have a statistically significant relationship with the socially responsible reward; the log odds for females was 0.88 (95% CI: 0.03 – 1.72, p = 0.042) and the log odds of QUEST was -0.97 (95% CI: -1.87 – -0.07, p = 0.035).

Table 2 - Model Performance I - Single variable

Model	Variables	AIC	BIC	R2	AUC	Sig	95% CI	p
1	Goal	134.89	140.00	0.00	0.50	–	–	–
2	DT (3 traits)	132.98	143.19	0.08	0.70	–	–	–
3	Goal*DT	138.25	156.13	0.09	0.70	–	–	–
4	DPC1, DPC2	134.31	141.97	0.04	0.72	–	–	–
5	Goal:DPCs	136.71	149.48	0.06	0.57	–	–	–
6	DZS	132.33	137.44	0.04	0.69	–	–	–
7	Goal*DZS	134.03	141.70	0.04	0.66	–	–	–
8	ES	140.07	160.50	0.10	0.58	QUEST	-1.87 – -0.07	0.035
9	EPC1, EPC2	134.46	142.12	0.04	0.62	–	–	–
10	EZS	134.64	139.75	0.01	0.58	–	–	–
11	Gender	130.95	136.06	0.06	0.58	Gender	0.03 – 1.72	0.042
12	Occupation	132.02	137.13	0.04	0.68	–	–	–
13	Age group	133.53	138.64	0.02	0.61	–	–	–
14	Social media	134.12	139.23	0.01	0.66	–	–	–

Multiple variables relationship

Table 3 - Model Performance II - Multiple variables

Models		AIC	BIC	R^2	AUC	ACC	LR
1	Priming, DPC	136.22	146.44	0.04	0.74	0.68	
2	Priming, DPC, DPC**,	138.67	153.99	0.06	0.58	0.55	T
3	Priming, DPC, DPC**, ES	145.39	178.59	0.16	0.58	0.41	
4	Priming, DPC, DPC**, JAG	135.96	158.95	0.17	0.68	0.64	T
5	Priming, DPC, DPC**, ES, JAG	143.84	184.70	0.25	0.52	0.59	
6	Priming, DPC, DPC**, EPC	140.06	160.49	0.10	0.59	0.59	
7	Priming, DPC, DPC**, EPC, JAG	137.24	165.33	0.21	0.50	0.59	
8	Priming, DPC, DPC**, EZS	140.51	158.39	0.06	0.51	0.59	
9	Priming, DPC, DPC**, EZS, JAG	137.07	162.61	0.18	0.63	0.59	

DT - 3 personality traits of the Dark Triad; DPC - Principal components of the Dark Triad; DZS - Z-score adjusted measurements for the Dark Triad; ES - 7 measurements of Consumer Ethics scale; EPC - Principal components for Consumer Ethics scale; EZS - Z-value adjusted measurements for Consumer Ethics scale. JAG - Job, Age group and Gender

Performance	AIC	BIC	R^2	AUC	ACC	LR
High	4	1	5	1	1	2, 4
^	1	2	7	4	4	
^	9	8	9	9	9	
^	7	4	4	6	6	
Pass	2	6	3	3	5	
^	6	9	6	2	8	
^	8	7	8	5	7	
^	5	3	2	8	2	
Low	3	5	1	7	3	

The best overall model was Model 4. The model was built with two principal components of the Dark Triad, goal priming, interaction terms and a group of social demographic variables such as occupation, age group and gender (OAG). It contained no variables from Consumer Ethics. The second best overall model was Model 9. The distinction between Models 4 and 9 is the inclusion of Consumer Ethics measures. By including the z-score adjusted measurements of Consumer Ethics, Model 9 had a slightly higher R^2 value of 0.18 compared to Model 4's R^2 value of 0.17. However, the AUC value of Model 9 was reduced to 0.63 compared to Model 4's AUC value of 0.67. Moreover, Model 9 had 137.05/162.59 in AIC/BIC values but Model 4 was better as it had 135.93/158.92. When comparing Model 4 to Models 5, 7 and 9 on the inclusion of Consumer Ethics measures, all the models with Consumer Ethics measures failed to improve their AUC, ACC and AIC values although they had marginally increased R^2 values. This suggests that occupation, age group and gender (OAG) was more effective in explaining and predicting the outcome of the socially responsible reward. In addition, some other models had either the highest AUC or the highest R^2 value, such as Model 1 and Model 5. However, Model 1 only reached 0.04 of R^2 and Model 5 only marginally passed the 0.5 of AUC baseline value.

Diagram 3 - Variables within Model 4 and Model 9

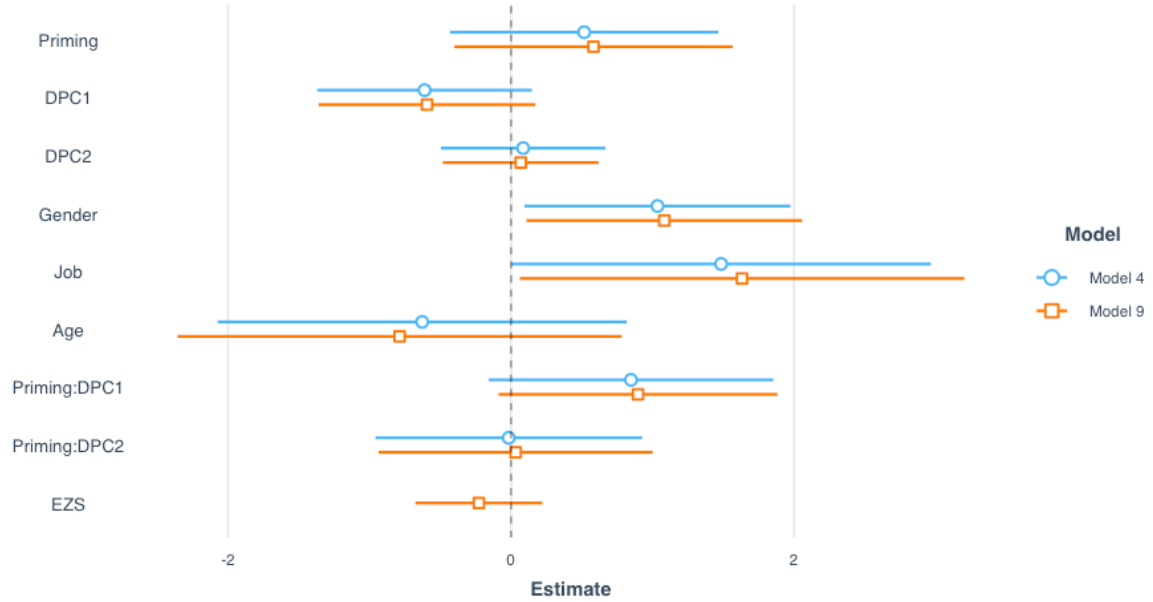


Table 4 - Variables within Model 4 and Model 9

	Model 4			*Model 9*		
Predictors	*Log-Odds*	*CI*	*p*	*Log-Odds*	*CI*	*p*
(Intercept)	-1.1	-2.26 – 0.05	0.062	-0.09	-2.51 – 2.34	0.945
Priming	0.51	-0.45 – 1.47	0.296	0.57	-0.40 – 1.54	0.249
DPC 1	-0.44	-1.00 – 0.11	0.114	-0.43	-1.00 – 0.14	0.138
DPC 2	0.11	-0.63 – 0.85	0.774	0.09	-0.67 – 0.84	0.822
Gender	1.03	0.09 – 1.98	**0.031**	1.08	0.13 – 2.04	**0.026**
Job	1.48	0.00 – 2.97	**0.05**	1.63	0.11 – 3.16	**0.036**
Age	-0.63	-2.07 – 0.82	0.394	-0.79	-2.27 – 0.70	0.298
Priming1:DPC1	0.62	-0.12 – 1.35	0.099	0.65	-0.10 – 1.41	0.09
Priming1:DPC2	-0.02	-1.22 – 1.18	0.972	0.04	-1.17 – 1.25	0.947
EZS				-0.02	-0.05 – 0.02	0.352
R^2		0.17			0.18	
AIC		135.96			137.07	
BIC		158.95			162.61	
AUC		0.68			0.63	
ACC		0.64			0.59	

Marginal Effects

There were no statistically significant relationships from goal priming, the Dark Triad of personality traits and Consumer Ethics towards the socially responsible reward. However, female participants and participants with a full-time occupation were both more likely to opt for the socially responsible reward as the log-odds were estimated to be 1.03 (95% = 0.09 - 1.97, p = 0.032) and 1.48 (95% = 0.01 - 2.98, p = 0.048). This means that considering gender from male to female, the log odds of opting for the socially responsible reward increased by 1.03. Additionally, as to having a full-time job versus being engaged in full-time study / being a homemaker, the log odds of opting for a socially responsible reward increased by 1.48. For the average marginal effect, this meant that the probability for female participants opting for a socially responsible reward was 23% higher than the male participants, and the participants with a full-time occupation opting for the socially responsible reward was 31% higher than

the participants without a full-time occupation. The alternative model (Model 9) confirmed a relationship similar to gender and occupation with the socially responsible reward. Although there were no statistically significant relationships between the interaction's terms and the socially responsible reward, there were contrasting trends over the two latent variables of the Dark Triad. For the interaction effect between goal priming and DPC1, the result suggested that the higher the DPC1 score in priming, the higher likelihood that the individual would choose the socially responsible rewards. However, this was in opposition to the observation from the control group that the higher the DPC1 score, the lower likelihood of the individual would choose the socially responsible rewards. For the interaction between goal priming and DPC2, both priming and control groups showed that the higher the DPC2 score in priming, the lower likelihood of the individual choosing the socially responsible rewards. In neither of the two models was there any statistically significant relationship between the measurements of Consumer Ethics and the socially responsible reward.

Diagram 4 - Effect plot - Model 4

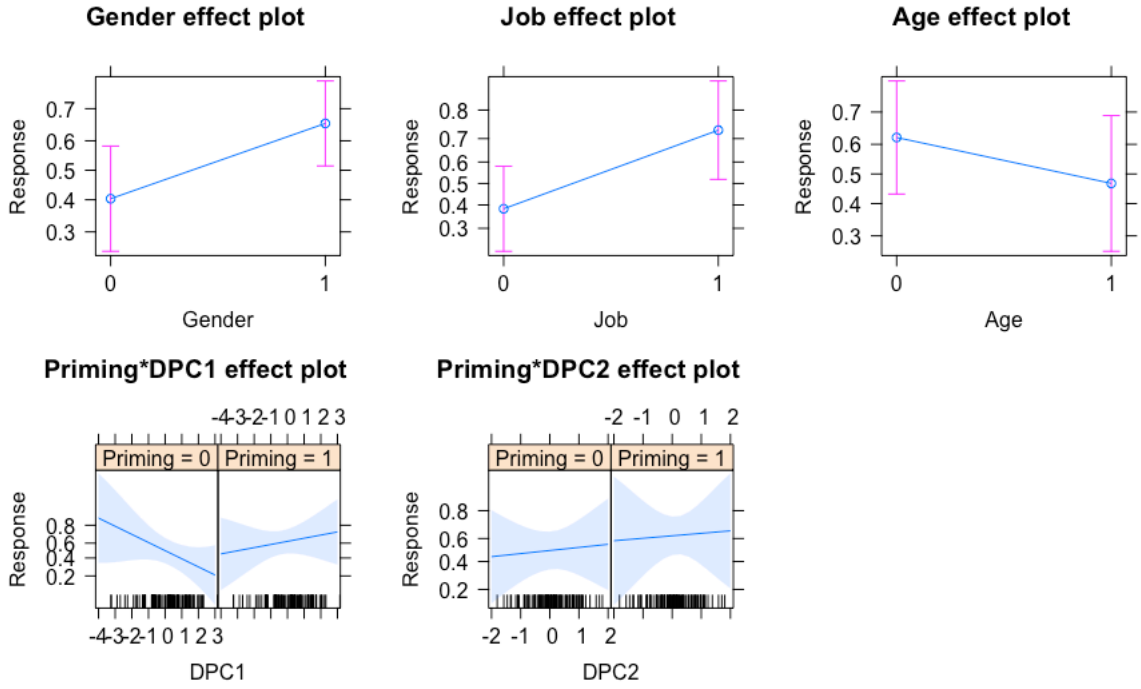
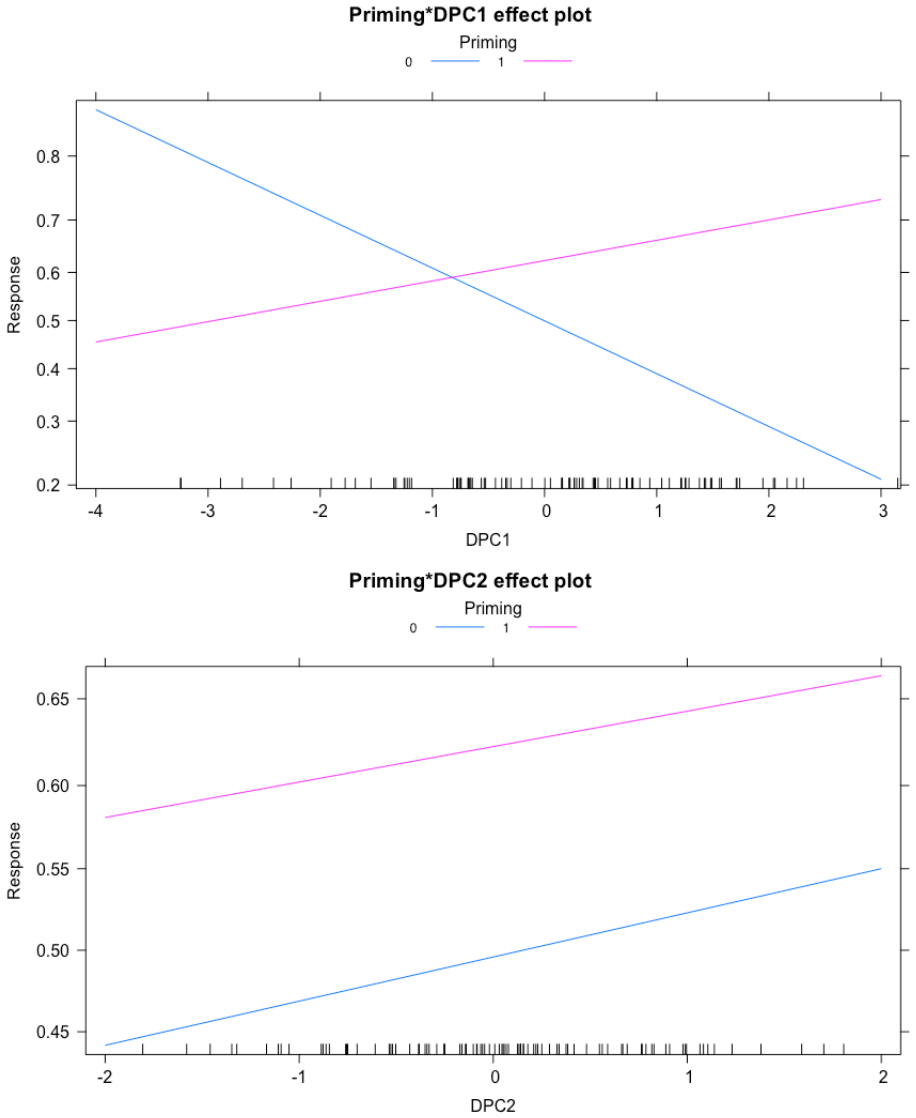


Table 5 - Average Marginal Effect - Model 4

factor	AME	SE	p
Goal	0.11	0.10	0.24
DPC1	-0.03	0.04	0.50
DPC2	0.02	0.07	0.74
Age_group	-0.13	0.14	0.36
Gender	0.23	0.10	0.02
Occupation	0.31	0.13	0.02

Diagram 5 - Interaction effect - Model 4



Bayesian approach

The best overall model in the Bayesian approach was Model 4, with the alternative model being Model 9. Both had higher performance over R^2, AUC, ACC values but Model 4 was the model preferred by the Bayesian likelihood ratio test and had higher AUC and ACC values; Model 9 was only marginally better in R^2 value.

Table 6 - Model performance III - Bayesian models

Models		B_R^2	B_AUC	B_ACC	BLR
1	Priming, DPC	0.054	0.682	0.742	
2	Priming, DPC, DPC**,	0.080	0.546	0.608	
3	Priming, DPC, DPC**, ES	0.169	0.409	0.533	
4	Priming, DPC, DPC**, JAG	0.162	0.636	0.658	T
5	Priming, DPC, DPC**, ES, JAG	0.229	0.546	0.492	
6	Priming, DPC, DPC**, EPC	0.113	0.591	0.583	
7	Priming, DPC, DPC**, EPC, JAG	0.189	0.546	0.508	
8	Priming, DPC, DPC**, EZS	0.088	0.591	0.525	
9	Priming, DPC, DPC**, EZS, JAG	0.170	0.591	0.633	

Performance	B_R^2	B_AUC	B_ACC	B_LR
High	5	1	1	4
^	7	4	4	
^	9	9	9	
^	3	6	2	
Pass	4	8	6	
^	6	5	3	
^	8	7	8	
^	2	2	7	
Low	1	3	5	

Table 7 - Variables within Model 4 and Model 9

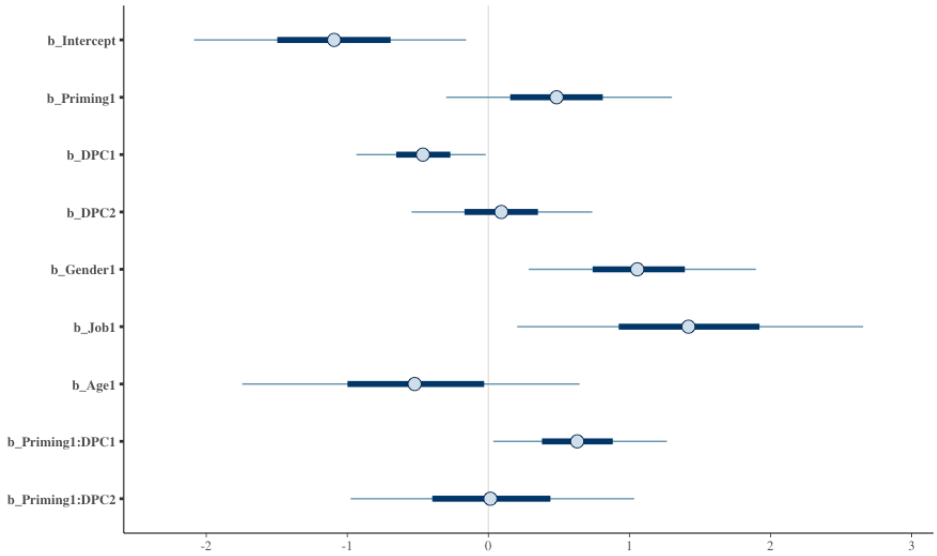
	Model 4			*Model 9*		
Predictors	*Log-Odds*	*HDI (50%)*	*HDI (95%)*	*Log-Odds*	*HDI (50%)*	*HDI (95%)*
Intercept	-1.08	-1.44 – -0.64	-2.28 – 0.06	-0.02	-0.86 – 0.89	-2.56 – 2.52
Priming	0.47	0.15 – 0.80	-0.49 – 1.45	0.54	0.20 – 0.86	-0.42 – 1.52
DPC 1	-0.46	-0.64 – -0.26	-1.03 – 0.09	-0.45	-0.64 – -0.24	-1.04 – 0.12
DPC 2	0.1	-0.14 – 0.37	-0.65 – 0.86	0.08	-0.18 – 0.34	-0.67 – 0.87
Gender	1.05	0.72 – 1.37	0.11 – 2.03	1.1	0.80 – 1.47	0.14 – 2.08
Job	1.4	0.86 – 1.83	-0.03 – 2.83	1.55	1.02 – 2.03	0.09 – 3.05
Age	-0.51	-0.99 – -0.04	-1.91 – 0.90	-0.67	-1.15 – -0.16	-2.11 – 0.81
Priming:DPC1	0.62	0.35 – 0.86	-0.13 – 1.36	0.66	0.41 – 0.94	-0.09 – 1.45
Priming:DPC2	0.01	-0.45 – 0.38	-1.21 – 1.21	0.07	-0.38 – 0.46	-1.13 – 1.32
EZS				-0.02	-0.03 – -0.01	-0.05 – 0.02
R^2		0.161			0.170	
AUC		0.636			0.591	
ACC		0.658			0.633	

Table 8 - Bayesian model summary - Model 4

Parameters	Estimate	SE	95%_HDI_L	95%_HDI_H	ESS	Ratio	Rhat	MCSE
Intercept	-1.08	0.59	-2.28	0.06	39755	0.99	1	0
Priming	0.47	0.49	-0.49	1.45	43443	1.09	1	0
DPC1	-0.46	0.28	-1.03	0.09	29095	0.73	1	0
DPC2	0.1	0.38	-0.65	0.86	34318	0.86	1	0
Gender	1.05	0.48	0.11	2.03	43921	1.1	1	0
Job	1.4	0.73	-0.03	2.83	28330	0.71	1	0
Age	-0.51	0.71	-1.91	0.9	28966	0.72	1	0
Priming:DPC1	0.62	0.38	-0.13	1.36	31273	0.78	1	0
Priming:DPC2	0.01	0.62	-1.21	1.21	35932	0.9	1	0

** ESS - Effective sampling size; HDI - Highest density intervals.*

Diagram 6 - Effect plot - Model 4



Given the observed data, chosen priors, and iterating process, the probability that the parameter value lies within was chosen at 95%. While the point estimate for Gender was 1.06, the 95% highest density intervals (HDI) was between 0.08 and 2.03. This means that the probability of choosing the socially responsible reward increases at a rate of 1.06 from male to female when all the variables are held constant. Another potential variable having an impact was Job. While the alternative model (Model 9) showed a positive posterior distribution beyond zero, this was rejected by Model 4's 95% HDI. For all other remaining variables, as they had their 95% HDI overlapping with zero, there was no significant effect on the outcome variable. In other words, any suggested effect would mostly remain uncertain. The marginal effects for the interaction terms were contrasting. The likelihood of opting for the socially responsible reward would gradually increase in the priming group as the DPC1 increased, but it decreased in the control group. For DPC2, the marginal effects look identical across the priming and control groups. There was no effect found in Model 4 between the measurements of Consumer Ethics and the socially responsible reward.

In the diagnostic analysis, all the trance plots showed that no sampling chains deviated from the multidimensional parameter space and all R-hats were less than 1.05. This suggested that good convergences were occurred over all the parameters. The value of MCSE was as low as zero, so the effective sample size was expected to be large. In fact, the iteration was initially set at 20,000 and all the effective sample sizes resulted in a much larger than the expected threshold of 3,750. The final check were the draws from the posterior predictive distribution, which shared a pattern similar to that of the observed data.

Diagram 7 - Interaction effects - Model 4

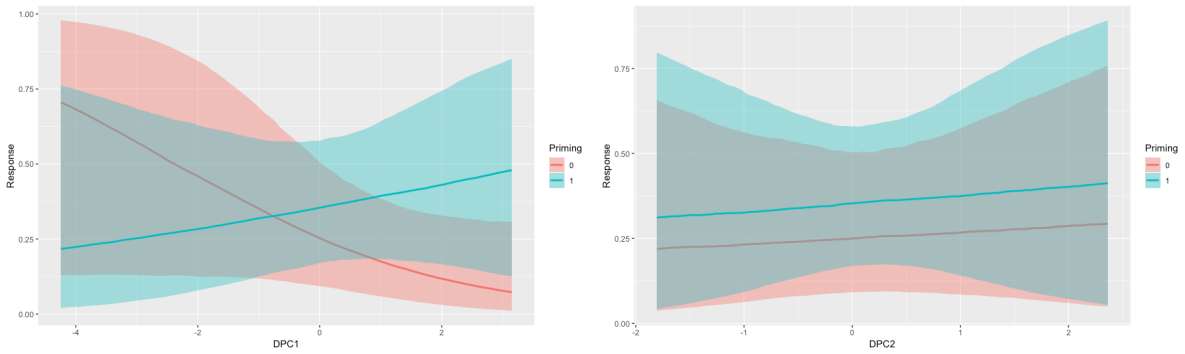
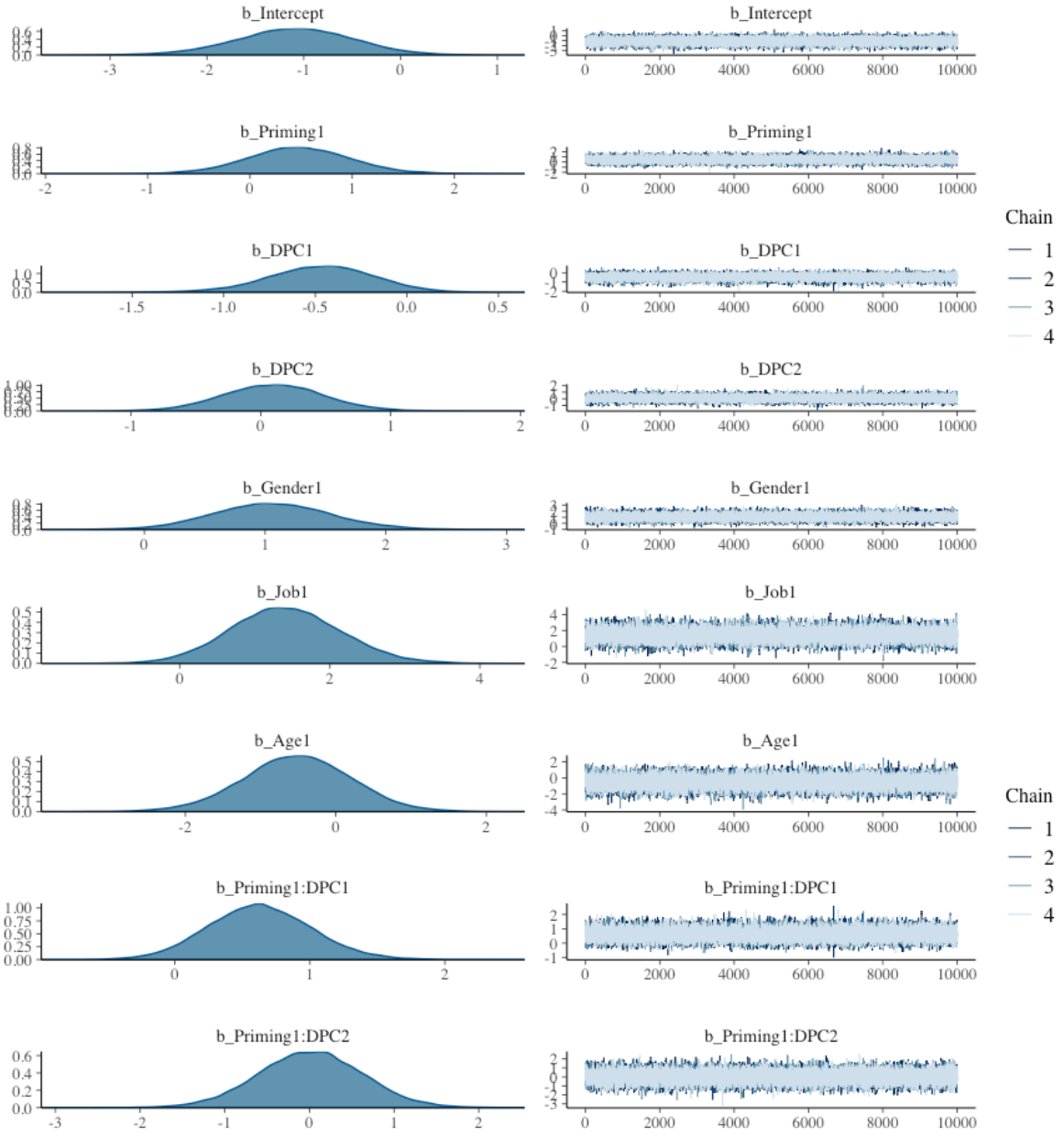


Diagram 8 - Bayesian chains - Model 4



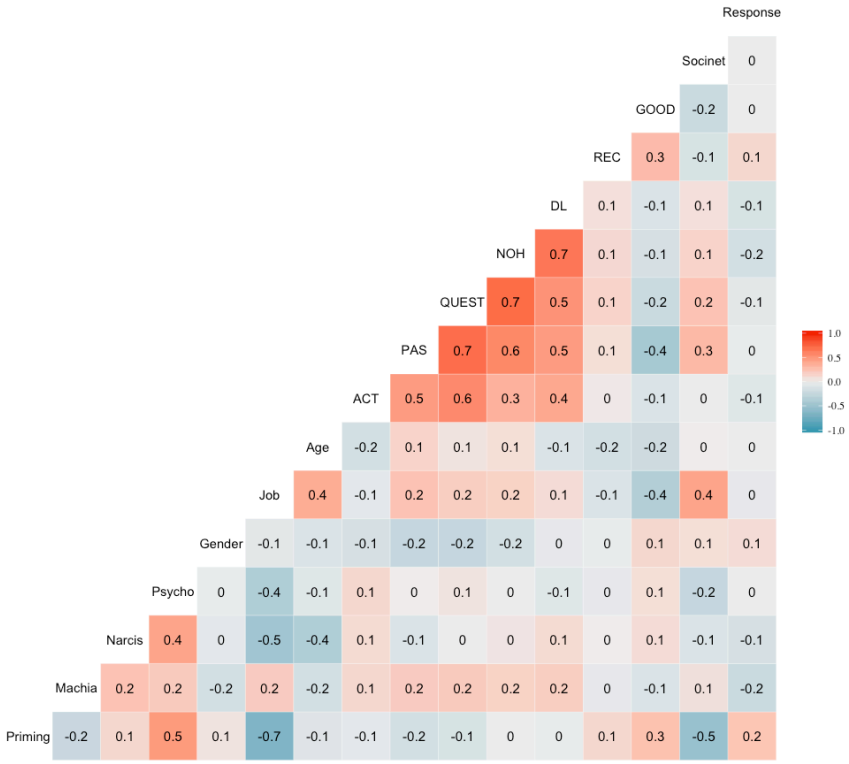
7.2 Study 2 - Group priming

The second study compared an experimental group of group priming with the control group. A summary of the characteristics of the participants from both groups is shown in Tables 9. Among the 118 participants, 74 participants opted for the socially responsible reward and 44 participants opted for the cash reward. For age group, 63.4% of the participants were aged 18 to 24 years and 35.6% of the participants were older than 24 years. Women accounted for 69.5% of the participants and men accounted for 30.5% of the participants. 68.6% of the participants who were either a student or home-maker and 31.4% were with a full-time job. Compared with the control group's mean score, which had 3.35, 2.86, 2.27 in Machiavellianism, Narcissism and Psychopathy, the priming group had the mean score of 3.11, 2.99 and 2.79 for Machiavellianism, Narcissism and Psychopathy. The mean value for Consumer Ethics in the control group were 1.88 for ACT, 2.21 for PAS, 2.29 for QUEST, 2.53 for NOH, 2.72 for DL, 3.16 for REC and 3.2 for GOOD. In the priming group, the mean scores were 1.8 for ACT, 1.94 for PAS, 2.07 for QUEST, 2.5 for NOH, 2.66 for DL, 3.34 for REC and 3.61 for GOOD. The mean value for social media density in the group priming was 1 and 1.95 in the control group. Chocolate bars were again the leading choice in the socially responsible reward. Finally, there were 58 participants assigned to the priming group and 60 participants assigned to the control group.

Table 9 - Descriptive statistics

	Level	Priming	Control
n		58	60
Group presence (%)	0	0 (0.0)	60 (100.0)
	1	58 (100.0)	0 (0.0)
Machiavellianism (mean (SD))		3.11 (0.42)	3.35 (0.62)
Narcissism (mean (SD))		2.99 (0.25)	2.86 (0.63)
Psychopathy (mean (SD))		2.79 (0.47)	2.27 (0.50)
ACT (mean (SD))		1.80 (0.75)	1.88 (0.69)
PAS (mean (SD))		1.94 (0.81)	2.21 (0.83)
QUEST (mean (SD))		2.07 (0.83)	2.29 (0.88)
NOH (mean (SD))		2.50 (0.77)	2.53 (0.90)
DL (mean (SD))		2.66 (0.85)	2.72 (1.02)
REC (mean (SD))		3.34 (0.82)	3.16 (0.63)
GOOD (mean (SD))		3.61 (0.63)	3.20 (0.90)
Social media (mean (SD))		1.00 (0.19)	1.95 (1.11)
Gender (%)	0	16 (27.6)	20 (33.3)
	1	42 (72.4)	40 (66.7)
Occupation (%)	0	58 (100.0)	23 (38.3)
	1	0 (0.0)	37 (61.7)
Age group (%)	0	40 (69.0)	36 (60.0)
	1	18 (31.0)	24 (40.0)
Juice x 2	1	7	3
Choco bar x 6	1	33	27
T-shirt x 1	1	3	1
Cash	1	15	29
Response (%)	0	15 (25.9)	29 (48.3)
	1	43 (74.1)	31 (51.7)

Diagram 9 - Correlation Matrix



Dimension reduction

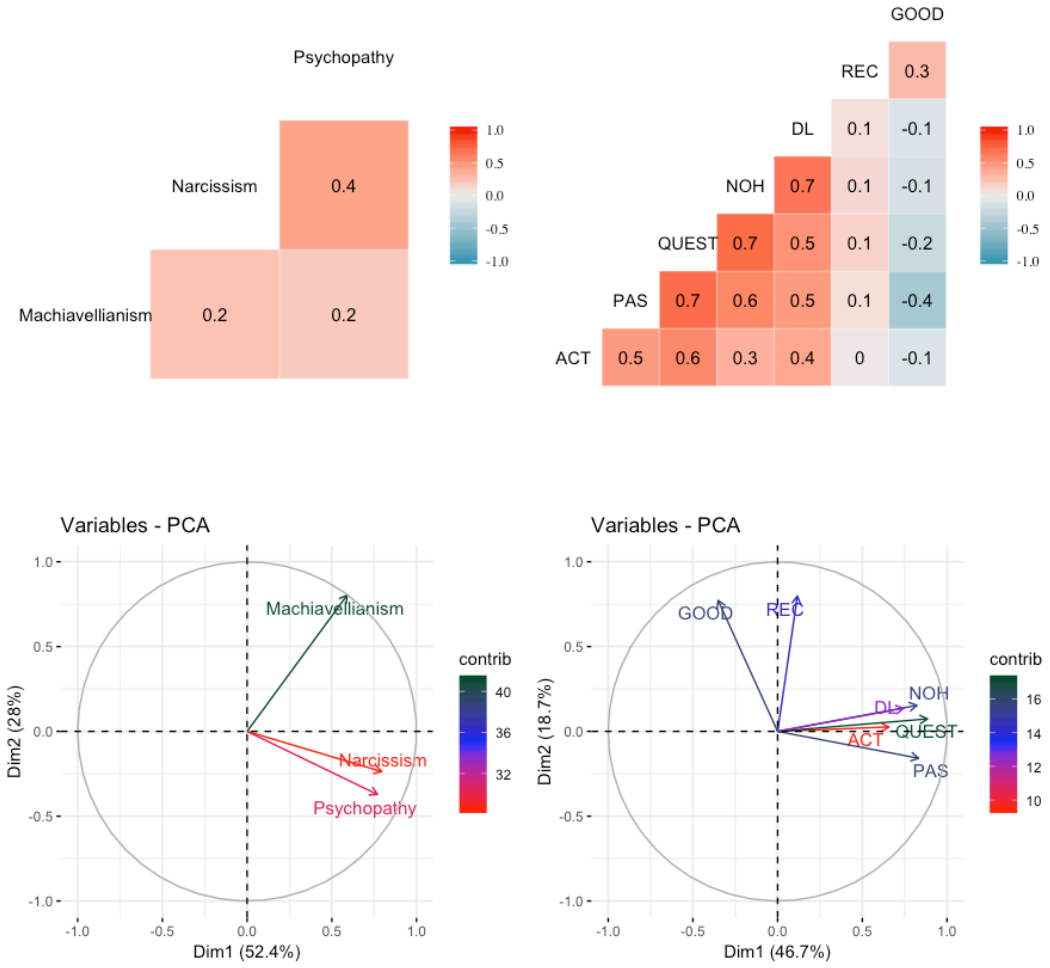
The correlation matrix shows that there's a strong linear dependence within the measurements of the Dark Triad and Consumer Ethics they are in red and tightly clustered. This indicates a possibility of multicollinearity. This has been further validated with the measurement of variance inflation factor (VIF) that only the models with two variables and models with latent transformations on the measurement of the Dark Triad consistently performed below 5, i.e., VIF < 5. Therefore, the analysis has taken a latent transformation on the measurements of the Dark Triad and Consumer Ethics.

The principal component analysis derived two clusters for the measurements of Dark Triad and Consumer Ethics scale. Dark principal component 1 (DPC1) and Dark principal component 2 (DPC2) were the two leading components derived from the measurements of the Dark Triad. DPC1 explained 52.4% of the variance across the three Dark Triad, which is located above the breakpoint of the scree plot with a eigenvalue of 1.58. DPC2 explained 28% of the variance across the three Dark Triad of personality traits and is marginally below the breakpoint of the scree plot with a eigenvalue of 0.86. The difference between DPC1 and DPC2 is that DPC1 had higher loading in Narcissism and Psychopathy and lower loading in

Machiavellianism; DPC2 had only a high positive loading in Machiavellianism and negative loading in Narcissism and Psychopathy.

Ethical principal component 1 (EPC1) and Ethical principal component 2 (EPC2) were the two leading components derived from the measurements of Consumer Ethics. EPC1 explained 46.7% of the variance across all the sub-scales of Consumer Ethics with an eigenvalue of 3.4. It is positioned above the breakpoint of the scree plot. EPC2 explained 18.7% of the variance across all the sub-scales with a eigenvalue of 1.3 and is located above the breakpoint of the scree plot. The difference between EPC1 and EPC2 is that EPC1 had a stronger emphasis on ACT, PAS, QUEST, NOH, DL, while DPC2 was concentrated on REC and GOOD.

Diagram 10 - Principal components for the Dark Triad and Consumer Ethics



Single variable relationship

In the relationship between single variable and the socially responsible reward, the interaction between the group priming and the Dark Triad showed the highest R^2 value of 0.21 and the second highest AUC value of 0.75. Moreover, The two new variable transformations derived from the measurements of Dark Triad (DPC and DZS) also showed relatively high value of 0.07 and 0.10 in R^2 and high value of 0.65 and 0.79 in AUC. The measurements of Consumer Ethics including variable transformation showed R^2 value less than or equal to 0.07 and AUC value less than or equal to 0.60. All social demographic variables had zero R^2 value except gender with 0.03. In terms of statistical significant association, the log-odds of z-scored adjusted measurements of the Dark Triad (DZS) was -0.05 (95% CI: -0.09 – -0.01, p = 0.024) and its interaction with the group priming was -0.05 (95% CI: -0.09 – -0.01, p = 0.02), the log-odds of the interaction effect between Psychopathy and the group priming was -2.44 (95% CI: -4.7 – -0.17, p = 0.035), the log-odds of the interaction effect between the group priming and DPC2 in the control group was -0.82 (95% CI: -1.51 – -0.13, p = 0.02).

Table 10 - Model Performance I - Single variable

Model	Variables	AIC	BIC	R2	AUC	Sig	95% CI	p
1	GG	128.67	133.80	0.03	0.79	–	–	–
2	DT (3 traits)	129.11	139.36	0.08	0.68	–	–	–
3	GG*DT	124.60	142.55	0.21	0.75	GG**Psyc	-4.70 – -0.17	0.035
4	DPC1, DPC2	127.75	135.45	0.07	0.69	–	–	–
5	GG:DPCs	128.57	141.39	0.11	0.65	GG**DPC2	-1.51 – -0.13	0.02
6	DZS	125.28	130.40	0.08	0.64	DZS	-0.09 – -0.01	0.024
7	GG*DZS	125.47	133.16	0.10	0.79	GG**DZS	-0.09 – -0.01	0.02
8	ES	137.66	158.18	0.07	0.60	–	–	–
9	EPC1, EPC2	131.68	139.37	0.02	0.51	–	–	–
10	EZS	130.37	135.50	0.01	0.54	–	–	–
11	Gender	129.24	134.37	0.03	0.46	–	–	–
12	Occupation	130.86	135.99	0.00	0.71	–	–	–
13	Age group	130.78	135.91	0.00	0.42	–	–	–
14	Social media	131.01	136.14	0.00	0.45	–	–	–

DT - 3 personality traits of the Dark Triad; DPC - Principal components of the Dark Triad; DZS - Z-score adjusted measurements for the Dark Triad; ES - 7 measurements of Consumer Ethics scale; EPC - Principal components for Consumer Ethics scale; EZS - Z-value adjusted measurements for Consumer Ethics scale. JAG - Job, Age group and Gender. GP - Group priming.

Multiple variables relationship

Table 11 - Model Performance - Multiple variables

Models	Variables	AIC	BIC	R^2	AUC	ACC	LR
1	Priming, DPC	128.133	138.391	0.094	0.795	0.77	
2	Priming, DPC, DPC**,	127.963	143.349	0.148	0.777	0.73	
3	Priming, DPC, DPC**, ES	136.727	170.064	0.213	0.866	0.82	T
4	Priming, DPC, DPC**, JAG	127.070	150.149	0.232	0.580	0.73	T
5	Priming, DPC, DPC**, ES, JAG	133.726	174.756	0.316	0.616	0.68	
6	Priming, DPC, DPC**, EPC	131.762	152.277	0.151	0.741	0.68	T
7	Priming, DPC, DPC**, EPC, JAG	130.450	158.658	0.240	0.563	0.73	
8	Priming, DPC, DPC**, EZS	129.832	147.783	0.150	0.777	0.68	
9	Priming, DPC, DPC**, EZS, JAG	128.668	154.311	0.237	0.571	0.73	

Performance	AIC	BIC	R^2	AUC	ACC	LR
High	4	1	5	3	3	3, 5
^	2	2	7	1	1	
^	1	8	9	2	2	
^	9	4	4	8	4	
Pass	8	6	3	6	9	
^	7	9	6	5	7	
^	6	7	8	4	8	
^	5	3	2	9	6	
Low	3	5	1	7	5	

The best overall model was Model 3. The model was built with two principal components of the Dark Triad, interaction terms with group priming and the original measurements of Consumer Ethics. It had the highest AUC value of 0.87, ACC value of 0.82 and relatively high R^2 value of 0.21. Also it's preferred by the likelihood test ratio as it had the strong metrics but least variables. The second overall model was Model 5. The distinction between Model 3 and Model 5 is that the inclusion of the social demographic variables such as occupation, aged group and gender (OAG). Model 5 recorded the highest R^2 value of 0.316 but its AUC value was only 0.62 and it's in the mid range of the group. While the inclusion of the social demographic variables such as occupation, aged group and gender (OAG) increased the R^2 value from 0.21 to 0.32, it reduced the AUC value form 0.87 to 0.62 at the same time. By comparing Model 3 to Model 2, the inclusion of the original measurements of the Consumer Ethics scales was able to improve the model performance from 0.148 to 0.213 in R^2 value and from 0.877 to 0.866 in AUC value.

Diagram 11 - Variables within Model 3 and Model 5

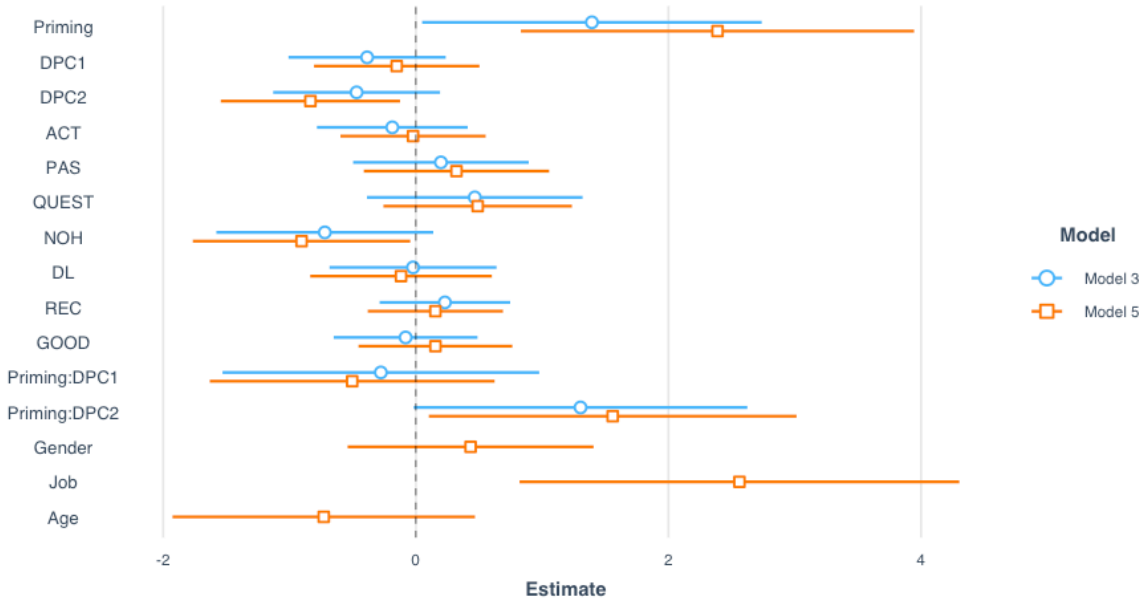


Table 12 - Variables within Model 3 and Model 5

	Model 3			*Model 5*		
Predictors	*Log-Odds*	*CI*	*p*	*Log-Odds*	*CI*	*p*
(Intercept)	0.63	-3.02 – 4.27	0.736	-1.16	-5.47 – 3.16	0.599
Priming	1.33	0.01 – 2.66	**0.048**	2.32	0.75 – 3.88	**0.004**
DPC	-0.29	-0.77 – 0.18	0.224	-0.12	-0.71 – 0.48	0.707
DPC	-0.52	-1.24 – 0.21	0.164	-0.92	-1.80 – -0.04	**0.041**
Gender				0.43	-0.64 – 1.51	0.429
Job				2.56	0.60 – 4.52	**0.01**
Age				-0.73	-1.97 – 0.51	0.251
Priming:DPC1	-0.21	-1.16 – 0.74	0.665	-0.38	-1.47 – 0.71	0.49
Priming:DPC2	1.43	-0.02 – 2.88	0.053	1.71	0.08 – 3.35	**0.04**
ACT	-0.27	-1.12 – 0.59	0.541	-0.03	-0.92 – 0.86	0.944
PAS	0.25	-0.62 – 1.12	0.576	0.4	-0.54 – 1.35	0.404
QUEST	0.54	-0.44 – 1.52	0.284	0.56	-0.46 – 1.59	0.282
NOH	-0.84	-1.84 – 0.16	0.1	-1.05	-2.12 – 0.02	0.055
DL	-0.02	-0.73 – 0.68	0.948	-0.13	-0.86 – 0.61	0.738
REC	0.3	-0.38 – 0.99	0.383	0.2	-0.51 – 0.92	0.575
GOOD	-0.1	-0.81 – 0.61	0.78	0.19	-0.60 – 0.99	0.63
R^2		0.213			0.32	
AIC		136.73			133.73	
BIC		170.06			174.76	
AUC		0.87			0.62	
ACC		0.82			0.68	

Marginal Effects

Table 13 - Average Marginal Effect (AME) of Model 3

factor	AME	SE	p
Priming	0.2261650	0.0975466	0.0204204
DPC1	-0.0762381	0.0431124	0.0770014
DPC2	0.0245482	0.0629257	0.6964519
ACT	-0.0525000	0.0852577	0.5380397
DL	-0.0046836	0.0711393	0.9475080
GOOD	-0.0199845	0.0715218	0.7799242
NOH	-0.1648038	0.0951805	0.0833650
PAS	0.0489137	0.0868612	0.5733499
QUEST	0.1055033	0.0963725	0.2736284
REC	0.0599414	0.0677424	0.3762414

There was a statistically significant relationship between the group priming and the socially responsible reward as the log-odds was 1.33 (95% CI: 0.01 - 2.66, p = 0.048) in Model 3. This indicated that having been in the group priming versus non-group priming, the log odds of opting for social responsible reward increased by 1.33. In terms of average marginal effect, that meant that the probability of the participants with group priming was 22.6% higher than the participants without the group priming to prefer the socially responsible rewards. Although there were no other statistically significant relationships in model 3, the alternative model 5 confirmed further statistically significant relationships among group priming, DPC2 and their interaction with the socially responsible reward as their log-odds were 2.32 (p = 0.004, 95% CI = 0.75 - 3.88), -0.92 (p = 0.041, 95% CI = -1.8 - -0.04) and 1.71 (p = 0.04, 95% CI = 0.08 - 3.35). In terms of average marginal effect, that meant that the probability of the participants with group priming was 33.6% more likely than the participants without the group priming to prefer the socially responsible reward. In addition, occupation was found to have a statistically significant relationship with the socially responsible reward as the log-odds was 2.56 (p = 0.01, 95% CI = 0.60 - 0.52). In terms of average marginal effect, that meant that the probability of the participants with full-time job opting for the socially responsible reward was 34.8% more likely than the participants with full-time study / being a

homemaker. For interaction effects, only the alternative model (Model 5) found a statistically significant relationship of the interaction between the group priming and the DPC2 towards the the socially responsible reward as the log-odds was 1.71 ($p = 0.04$, 95% CI = 0.08 - 3.35).

One clear sign is that the interaction between group priming and the latent transformation of the Dark Triad was contrasting. The result showed that, as the DPC1 score was increasing in the group priming, the individual would have a lower likelihood to opt for the socially responsible rewards. This was the same as the observation in the control group. However, it was found that the higher the DPC2 score in the group priming, the greater the likelihood that the individuals would opt for the socially responsible rewards. However, this was opposite to the observation in the control group, in which the higher the DPC2 score, the lower likelihood of the individual choosing the socially responsible rewards. Fourth, in neither of the two models was there any statistically significant relationship between measurements of Consumer Ethics and the socially responsible reward.

Diagram 12 - Effect plot - Model 3

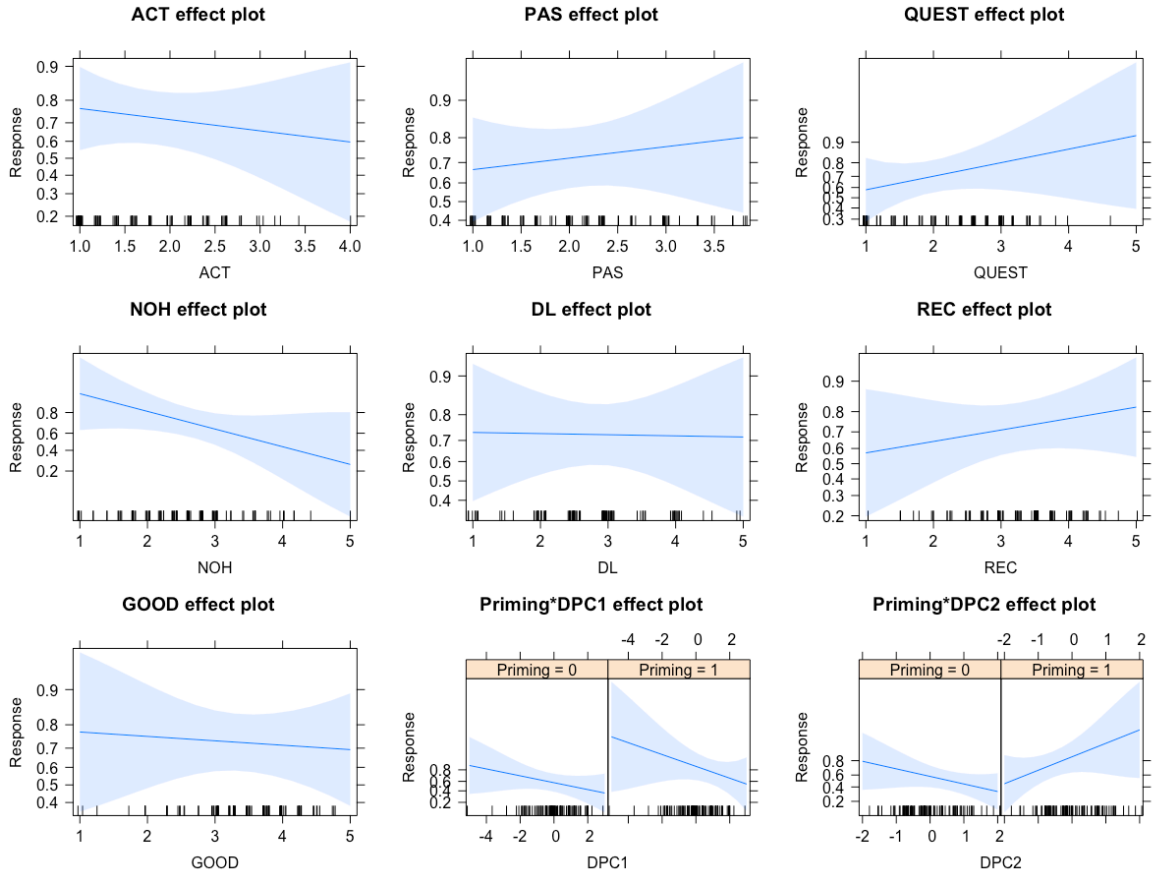
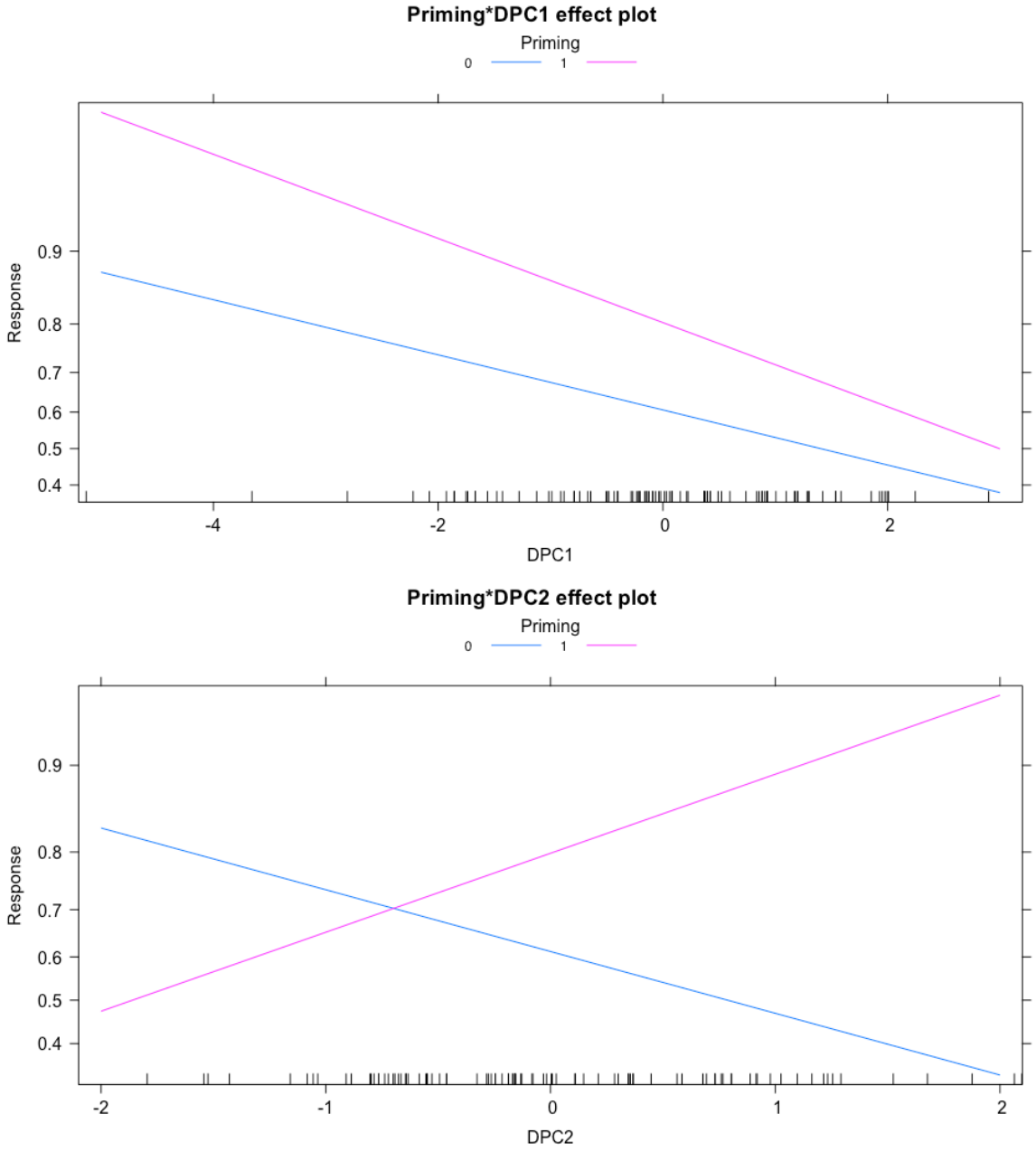


Diagram 13 - Interaction effect - Model 3



Bayesian approach

The best overall model in the Bayesian approach is Model 3, with the alternative model being Model 5. Both had higher performance over R^2, AUC, ACC values, but Model 3 had the highest AUC and ACC values and Model 5 had the highest R^2 value. Although Model 4 was the model preferred by the Bayesian likelihood ratio test, it had relatively poor R^2, AUC and ACC values.

Table 14 - Model performance III - Bayesian models

Models	Variables	B_R^2	B_AUC	B_ACC	B_LR
1	Priming, DPC	0.088	0.786	0.7727	
2	Priming, DPC, DPC**,	0.129	0.777	0.7273	
3	Priming, DPC, DPC**, ES	0.198	0.857	0.8182	
4	Priming, DPC, DPC**, JAG	0.187	0.607	0.7273	T
5	Priming, DPC, DPC**, ES, JAG	0.259	0.634	0.6818	
6	Priming, DPC, DPC**, EPC	0.143	0.759	0.6818	
7	Priming, DPC, DPC**, EPC, JAG	0.200	0.589	0.7273	
8	Priming, DPC, DPC**, EZS	0.136	0.768	0.7273	
9	Priming, DPC, DPC**, EZS, JAG	0.195	0.589	0.7273	

Performance	B_R^2	B_AUC	B_ACC	B_LR
High	5	3	3	4
^	7	1	1	
^	3	2	2	
^	9	8	8	
Pass	4	6	4	
^	6	5	7	
^	8	4	9	
^	2	7	6	
Low	1	9	5	

Table 15 - Variables within Model 3 and Model 5

	Model 3			*Model 5*		
Predictors	*Log-Odds*	*HDI (50%)*	*HDI (95%)*	*Log-Odds*	*HDI (50%)*	*HDI (95%)*
Intercept	0.63	-0.77 – 1.83	-3.16 – 4.42	-1	-2.54 – 0.48	-5.43 – 3.40
Priming	1.33	0.87 – 1.79	0.02 – 2.65	2.2	1.66 – 2.72	0.75 – 3.84
DPC1	-0.35	-0.52 – -0.18	-0.85 – 0.14	-0.2	-0.40 – 0.03	-0.84 – 0.41
DPC2	-0.57	-0.79 – -0.28	-1.37 – 0.12	-0.94	-1.20 – -0.61	-1.85 – -0.09
ACT	-0.22	-0.51 – 0.08	-1.13 – 0.64	-0.02	-0.34 – 0.30	-0.93 – 0.92
PAS	0.26	-0.01 – 0.61	-0.65 – 1.15	0.41	0.06 – 0.72	-0.58 – 1.37
QUEST	0.49	0.16 – 0.84	-0.49 – 1.49	0.52	0.15 – 0.85	-0.53 – 1.52
NOH	-0.87	-1.21 – -0.53	-1.91 – 0.15	-1.05	-1.39 – -0.66	-2.15 – -0.00
DL	-0.03	-0.29 – 0.22	-0.73 – 0.74	-0.13	-0.42 – 0.10	-0.90 – 0.65
REC	0.36	0.11 – 0.58	-0.35 – 1.06	0.27	0.02 – 0.53	-0.45 – 1.05
GOOD	-0.11	-0.39 – 0.12	-0.84 – 0.66	0.15	-0.13 – 0.44	-0.70 – 0.96
Priming.DPC1	-0.2	-0.51 – 0.15	-1.21 – 0.75	-0.33	-0.68 – 0.08	-1.48 – 0.74
Priming.DPC2	1.46	0.87 – 1.86	0.04 – 2.93	1.68	1.11 – 2.21	0.10 – 3.36
Gender				0.45	0.07 – 0.81	-0.63 – 1.56
Job				2.35	1.61 – 2.90	0.54 – 4.34
Age				-0.72	-1.11 – -0.24	-1.97 – 0.57
R^2		0.20			0.26	
AUC		0.86			0.63	
ACC		0.82			0.68	

Given the observed data, chosen priors, and iterating process, the probability that the parameter value lies within was chosen at 95%. While the point estimate for group priming was 1.33, the 95% highest density intervals (HDI) was between 0.04 and 2.72. This means that the probability of choosing the socially responsible reward increases at a rate of 1.33 from participants without group priming to participants with the group priming when all the variables held constants. Another variable having an impact was the interaction term between group priming and DPC2. The point estimate for group priming was 1.45, the 95% highest density intervals (HDI) was between 0.05 and 3.01. The alternative model did not find the effect on the interaction terms but the effect of the group priming was sustained.

For all other remaining variables, as they had their 95% HDI overlapping with zero, there was no significant effect on the outcome variable. In other words, any suggested effect would mostly remain uncertain. The marginal effects for the interaction terms were contrasting. The likelihood of opting for the socially responsible reward would gradually increase in the priming and control groups as the DPC1 increased. However, when the DPC2 increased, the likelihood of opting for the socially responsible reward would gradually increase in the priming group, but it decreased in the control group. There's no effect found in Model 3 between the measurements of Consumer Ethics and the socially responsible reward.

In the diagnostic analysis, all the trance plots showed that no sampling chains deviated from the multidimensional parameter space and all R-hats were less than 1.05. This suggested that good convergences were occurred over all the parameters. The value of MCSE was as low as zero, so the effective sample size was expected to be large. In fact, the iteration was initially set at 20,000 and all the effective sample sizes resulted in a much larger than the expected threshold of 3,750. The final check were the draws from the posterior predictive distribution, which shared a pattern similar to that of the observed data.

Table 16 - Bayesian model summary - Model 3

Parameters	Estimate	SE	95%_HDI_L	95%_HDI_H	ESS	Ratio	Rhat	MCSE
Intercept	0.63	1.94	-3.16	4.42	12932	1.29	1	0.02
Priming	1.33	0.68	0.04	2.65	10914	1.09	1	0.01
DPC1	-0.35	0.25	-0.85	0.14	11837	1.18	1	0
DPC2	-0.57	0.38	-1.37	0.12	10251	1.03	1	0
ACT	-0.22	0.44	-1.13	0.64	10580	1.06	1	0
PAS	0.26	0.46	-0.65	1.15	12150	1.22	1	0
QUEST	0.49	0.51	-0.49	1.49	10356	1.04	1	0.01
NOH	-0.87	0.5	-1.91	0.15	9805	0.98	1	0.01
DL	-0.03	0.38	-0.73	0.74	10582	1.06	1	0
REC	0.36	0.36	-0.35	1.06	11495	1.15	1	0
GOOD	-0.11	0.37	-0.84	0.66	11749	1.17	1	0
Priming:DPC1	-0.2	0.49	-1.21	0.75	10455	1.05	1	0
Priming:DPC2	1.46	0.74	0.04	2.93	9591	0.96	1	0.01

** ESS - Effective sampling size; HDI - Highest density intervals.*

Diagram 14 - Bayesian effect tree - Model 3

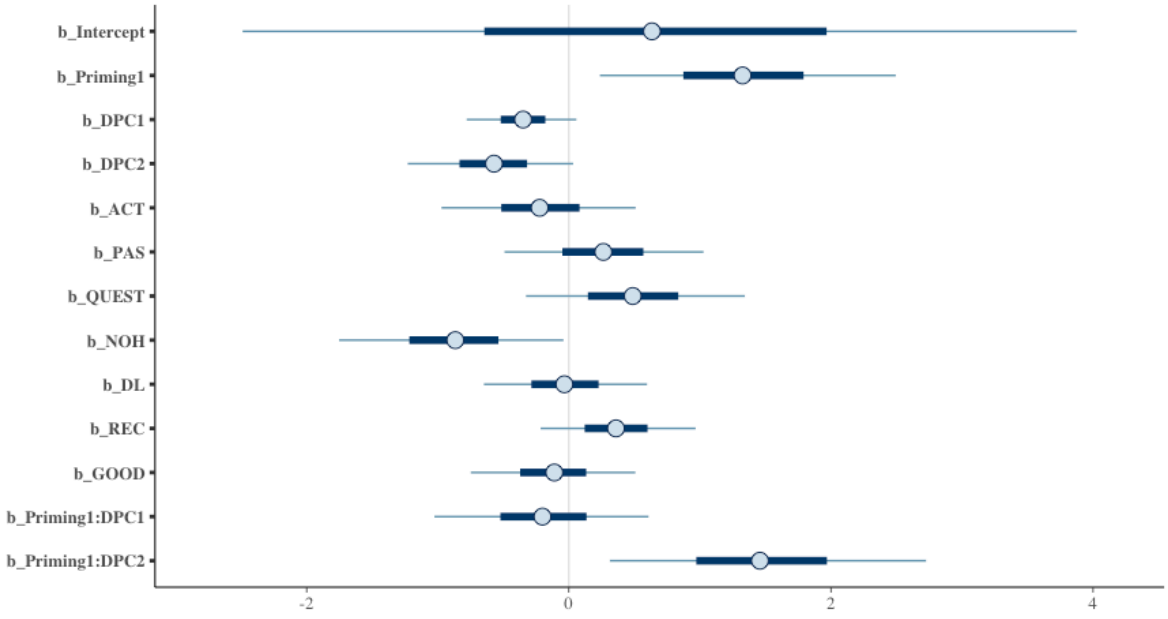


Diagram 15 - Interaction effects - Model 3

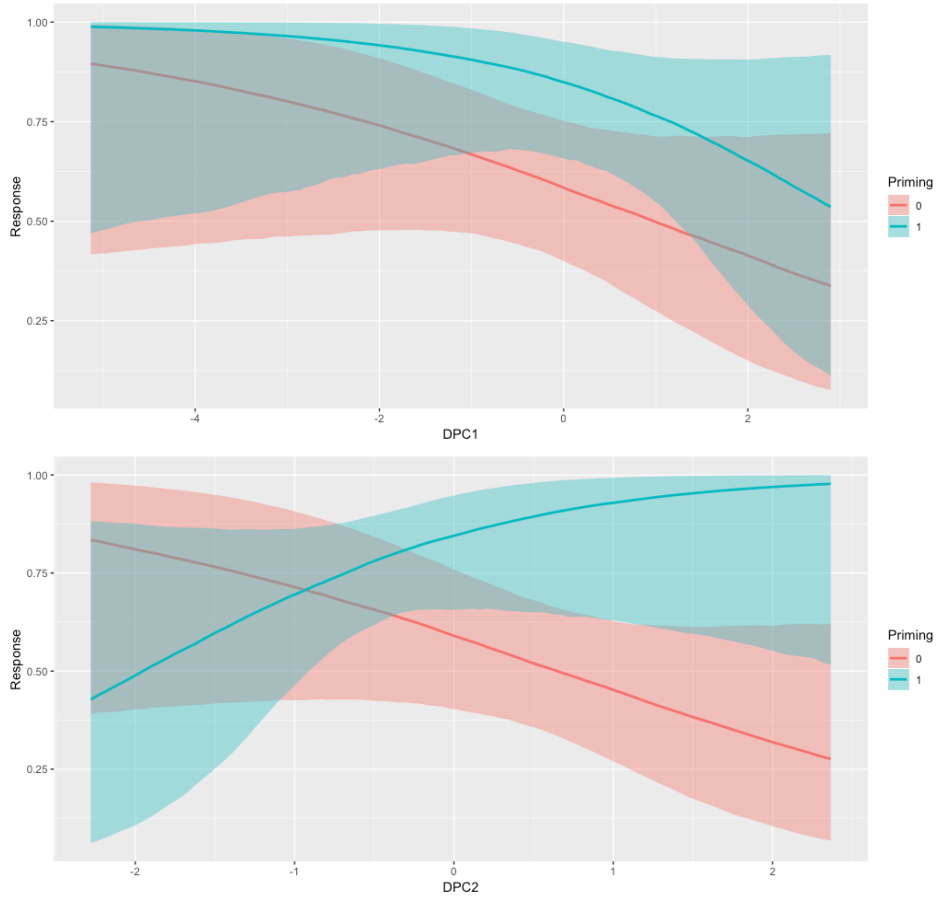
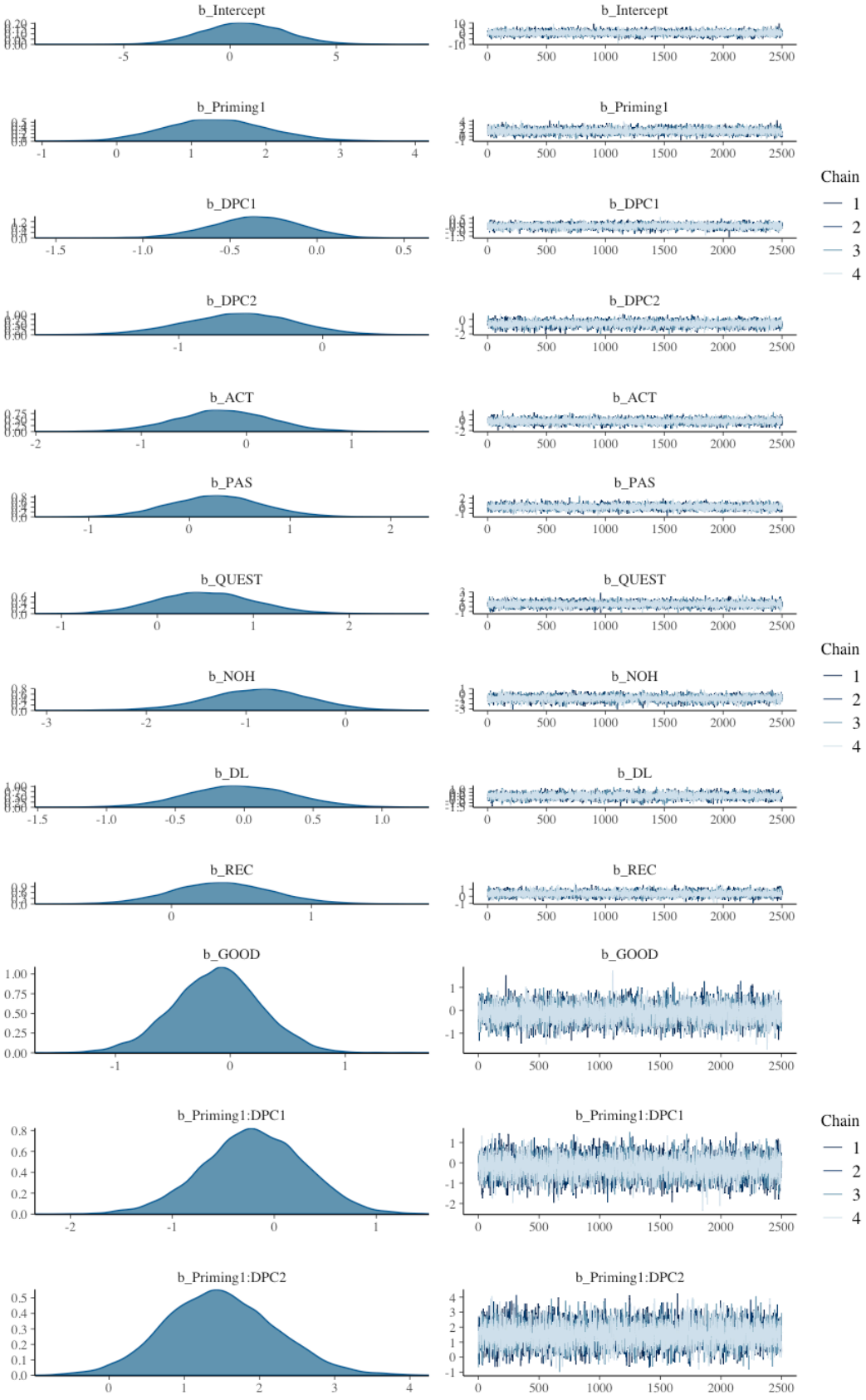


Diagram 16 - Bayesian chains - Model 3



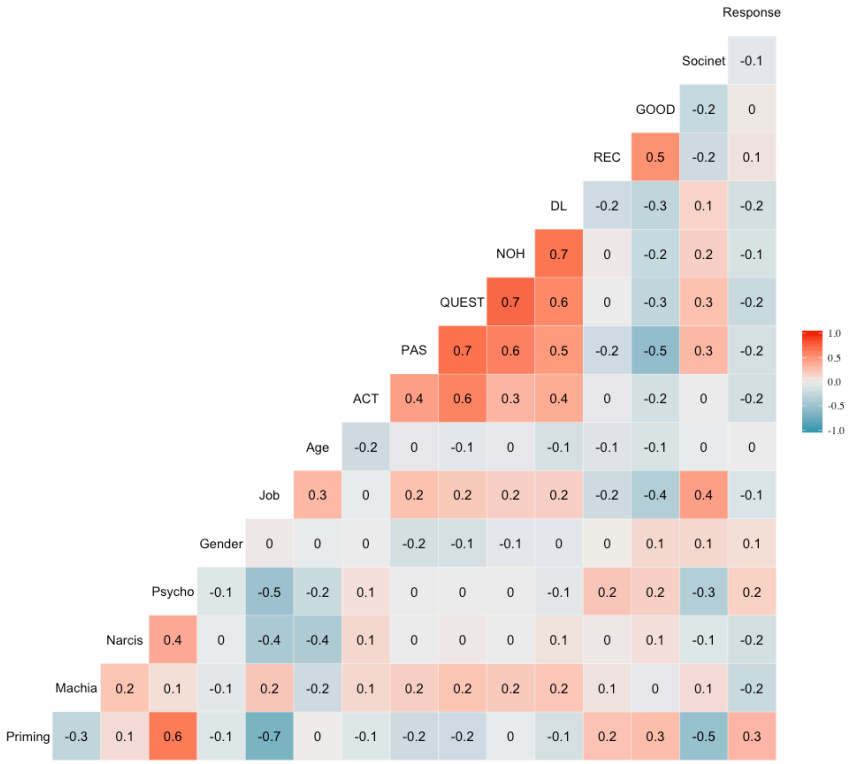
7.3 Study 3 - Salient goal priming

The third study compared an experimental group of salient goal priming with the control group. A summary of characteristics about the the participants is shown in Table 15. Among the 126 participants, 84 participants opted for the socially responsible reward and 42 participants opted for the cash reward. For age group, 40.4% of the participants were aged 18 to 24 years and 59.6% of the participants were older than 24 years. Women accounted for 62.7% of the participants and men accounted for 37.3% of the participants. 70.6% of the participants who were either a student or home-maker and 29.4% were with a full-time job. Compared with the control group's mean score, which had 3.35, 2.86, 2.27 in Machiavellianism, Narcissism and Psychopathy, the priming group were 3.06, 2.96 and 2.97 for Machiavellianism, Narcissism and Psychopathy. The mean score for Consumer Ethics in the control group were 1.88 for ACT, 2.21 for PAS, 2.29 for QUEST, 2.53 for NOH, 2.72 for DL, 3.16 for REC and 3.20 for GOOD. The priming group were 1.76 for ACT, 1.87 for PAS, 1.97 for QUEST, 2.47 for NOH, 2.45 for DL, 3.48 for REC and 3.66 for GOOD. The mean score for social media density in the priming group was 1 and 1.95 in the control group. Chocolate bars were the preferred reward for the participants and an ethically labelled T-shirt was the least preferred reward. Finally, there were 66 participants assigned to the priming group and 60 participants assigned into the control group.

Table 17 - Descriptive statistics

	Level	Priming	Control
n		66	60
Goal salience (%)	0	0 (0.0)	60 (100.0)
	1	66 (100.0)	0 (0.0)
Machiavellianism (mean (SD))		3.06 (0.44)	3.35 (0.62)
Narcissism (mean (SD))		2.96 (0.35)	2.86 (0.63)
Psychopathy (mean (SD))		2.97 (0.34)	2.27 (0.50)
ACT (mean (SD))		1.76 (0.77)	1.88 (0.69)
PAS (mean (SD))		1.87 (0.89)	2.21 (0.83)
QUEST (mean (SD))		1.97 (0.84)	2.29 (0.88)
NOH (mean (SD))		2.47 (0.78)	2.53 (0.90)
DL (mean (SD))		2.45 (0.95)	2.72 (1.02)
REC (mean (SD))		3.48 (0.67)	3.16 (0.63)
GOOD (mean (SD))		3.66 (0.70)	3.20 (0.90)
Social media (mean (SD))		1.00 (0.00)	1.95 (1.11)
Gender (%)	0	27 (40.9)	20 (33.3)
	1	39 (59.1)	40 (66.7)
Occupation (%)	0	66 (100.0)	23 (38.3)
	1	0 (0.0)	37 (61.7)
Age group (%)	0	39 (59.1)	36 (60.0)
	1	27 (40.9)	24 (40.0)
Juice x 2	1	10	3
Choco bar x 6	1	41	27
T-shirt x 1	1	2	1
Cash	1	15	29
Response (%)	0	13 (19.7)	29 (48.3)
	1	53 (80.3)	31 (51.7)

Diagram 17 - Correlation Matrix



Dimension reduction

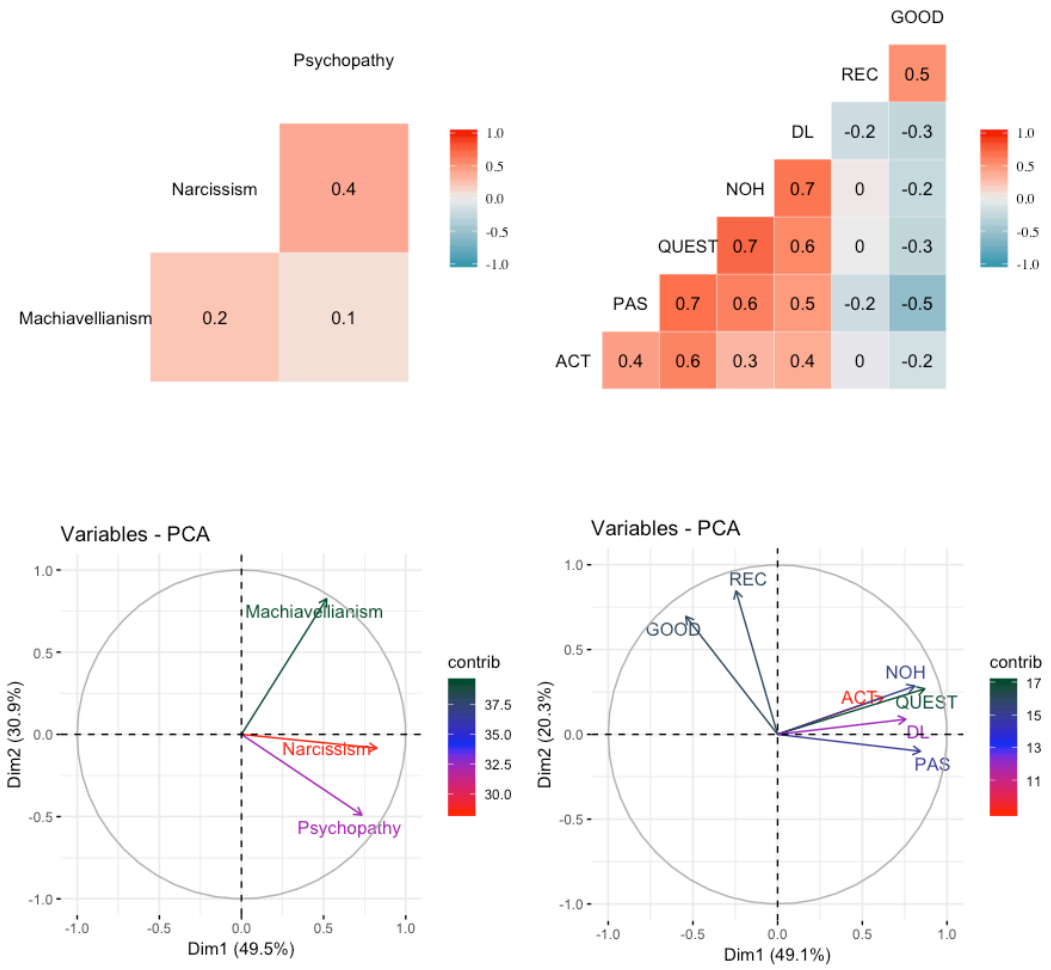
The correlation matrix shows that there's a strong linear dependence within the measurements of the Dark Triad and Consumer Ethics they are in red and tightly clustered. This indicates a possibility of multicollinearity. This has been further validated with the measurement of variance inflation factor (VIF) that only the models with two variables and models with latent transformations on the measurement of the Dark Triad consistently performed below 5, i.e., VIF < 5. Therefore, the analysis has taken a latent transformation on the measurements of the Dark Triad and Consumer Ethics.

The principal component analysis derived two clusters for the measurement of the Dark Triad and Consumer Ethics. Dark principal component 1 (DPC1) and Dark principal component 2 (DPC2) were the two leading components derived from the measurements of the Dark Triad. DPC1 explained 49.5% of the variance across the three Dark Triad, which is located above the breakpoint of the scree plot with a eigenvalue of 1.46. DPC2 explained 30.9% of the variance across the three Dark Triad of personality traits and located below but closed to the breakpoint of the scree plot with a eigenvalue of 0.95. The difference between DPC1 and DPC2 is that DPC1 had higher loading over in Narcissism and Psychopathy compared to

Machiavellianism; DPC2 had a high positive loading in Machiavellianism and negative loading in both Narcissism and Psychopathy.

Ethical principal component 1 (EPC1) and Ethical principal component 2 (EPC2) were the two leading components derived from the measurements of Consumer Ethics. EPC1 explained 49.1% of the variance across all the sub-scales of Consumer Ethics with an eigenvalue of 3.4. It is positioned above the breakpoint of the scree plot. EPC2 explained 20.3% of the variance across all the sub-scales with a eigenvalue of 1.5 and is located above the breakpoint of the scree plot. The difference between EPC1 and EPC2 is that EPC1 had a stronger emphasis on ACT, PAS, QUEST, NOH, DL but negative loading on REC and GOOD; EPC2 had the low positive loading across all the subs-scales except REC and GOOD.

Diagram 18 - Principal components for the Dark Triad and Consumer Ethics



Single variable relationship

In the relationship between the single variable and the socially responsible reward, the interaction between the salient goal priming and the Dark Triad had the highest R^2 score of 0.24 and the third highest AUC score of 0.75. Moreover, The two new variable transformations derived from the measurements of Dark Triad (DPC and DZS) had a mixed performance as they scored relatively high in R^2 of 0.14 and 0.08 but only scored 0.45 and 0.57 in AUC value. The measurements of Consumer Ethics showed a high value of 0.19 in R^2 and 0.78 in AUC. The two new variable transformations derived from the measurements of Consumer Ethics (EPC and EZS) achieved 0.7 and 0.8 in R^2 value but only 0.51 and 0.58 in AUC value. All social demographic variables had poor R^2 and AUC values that they were all below 0.03 in R^2 value and 0.53 in AUC value.

Table 18 - Model Performance I - Single variable

Model	Variables	AIC	BIC	R2	AUC	SIg	Log-odds	p
1	SG	125.01	130.26	0.12	0.69	SG	1.29	0.004
2	DT (3 traits)	124.80	135.30	0.17	0.68	Machi	-1.03	0.02
3	SG*DT	124.21	142.59	0.24	0.69	SG**Machi	-1.31	0.022
4	DPC1, DPC2	124.87	132.74	0.14	0.45	DPC2	-0.7	0.003
5	SG:DPCs	125.86	138.98	0.18	0.54	SG**DPC2	-1.08	0.003
6	DZS	127.94	133.19	0.08	0.57	DZS	-0.05	0.022
7	SG*DZS	121.84	129.72	0.18	0.73	SG**DZS	-0.05	0.023
8	ES	130.93	151.93	0.19	0.78	QUEST	-1.08	0.03
9	EPC1, EPC2	130.06	137.94	0.08	0.51	EPC1	-0.25	0.03
10	EZS	128.30	133.55	0.07	0.58	EZS	-0.04	0.023
11	Gender	132.54	137.79	0.02	0.47	–	–	–
12	Occupation	131.62	136.87	0.03	0.44	–	–	–
13	Age group	133.85	139.10	0.00	0.50	–	–	–
14	Social media	133.45	138.70	0.01	0.53	–	–	–

There're a number of single variables had a statistical significant association with the outcome variable. For example, the log-odds of salient goal priming was 1.29 (95% CI: 0.41 – 2.18, p = 0.004) and the log-odds of its interaction with the Dark principal component 2 (DPC2) was -1.08 (95% CI: -1.80 – -0.37, p = 0.003). The the log-odds of Machiavellianism was 0.36 (95% CI: 0.15 – 0.85, p = 0.020) and its interaction with non salient goal priming was -1.31 (95% CI: -2.43 – -0.19, p = 0.022). The log-odds of Dark principal component 2 (DPC2) was -0.7 (95% CI: -1.17 – -0.23, p = 0.003) and z-score adjusted measurements of the Dark Triad of personality traits was -0.05 (95% CI: -0.09 – -0.01, p = 0.022). The log-odds of the interaction z-score adjusted measurements of the Dark Triad of personality traits and non-salient goal priming was -0.05 (95% CI: -0.09 – -0.01, p = 0.023). For Consumer Ethics scale, QUEST was the only item reported to have statistical significant association and the log-odds was -1.08 (95% CI: -2.06 – -0.11, p = 0.030). When the Consumer Ethics scale was transformed to latent and z-scored variables, both of them were found to have a statistical significant association with the outcome variable with the log-odds of 0.25 (95% CI: -0.48 – -0.02, p = 0.030) for Ethics principal component 1 (EPC1) and -0.04 (95% CI: -0.07 – -0.01, p = 0.023) for z-score adjusted measurements.

Multiple variables relationship

Table 19 - Model Performance II - Multiple variables

Models	Variables	AIC	BIC	R^2	AUC	ACC	LR
1	Priming, DPC	123.67	134.17	0.18	0.70	0.71	
2	Priming, DPC, DPC**,	123.05	138.80	0.23	0.69	0.71	
3	Priming, DPC, DPC**, ES	125.97	160.09	0.35	0.55	0.58	
4	Priming, DPC, DPC**, JAG	125.92	149.55	0.27	0.76	0.79	
5	Priming, DPC, DPC**, ES, JAG	127.29	169.29	0.40	0.51	0.58	
6	Priming, DPC, DPC**, EPC	123.33	144.33	0.28	0.65	0.62	
7	Priming, DPC, DPC**, EPC, JAG	125.69	154.57	0.31	0.75	0.71	Won
8	Priming, DPC, DPC**, EZS	120.90	139.28	0.28	0.64	0.67	
9	Priming, DPC, DPC**, EZS, JAG	123.48	149.73	0.32	0.73	0.71	

Performance	AIC	BIC	R^2	AUC	ACC	LR
High	8	1	5	4	4	7
^	2	2	3	7	7	
^	6	8	9	9	9	
^	9	6	7	1	1	
Pass	1	4	8	2	2	
^	7	9	6	6	8	
^	4	7	4	8	6	
^	3	3	2	3	3	
Low	5	5	1	5	5	

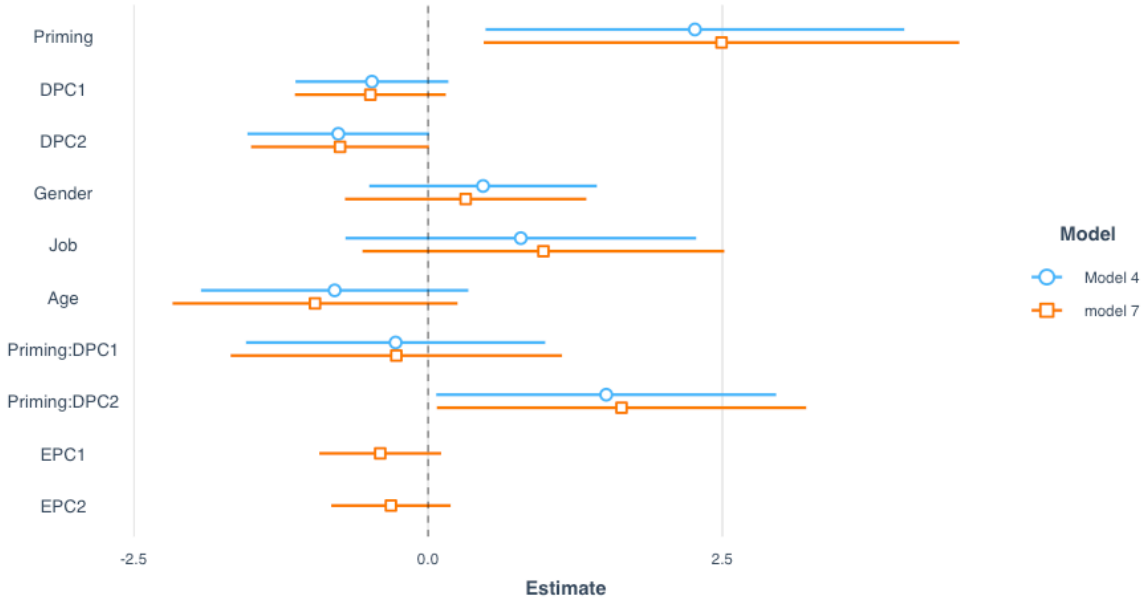
Table 20 - Variables within Model 4 and Model 7

	Model 4			*Model 7*		
Predictors	*Log-Odds*	*CI*	*p*	*Log-Odds*	*CI*	*p*
(Intercept)	0.04	-1.24 – 1.31	0.956	0.13	-1.18 – 1.44	0.847
Priming	2.23	0.47 – 4.00	**0.013**	2.46	0.59 – 4.32	**0.01**
DPC1	-0.38	-0.90 – 0.14	0.15	-0.39	-0.96 – 0.18	0.175
DPC2	-0.76	-1.53 – 0.01	0.053	-0.75	-1.52 – 0.03	0.06
Gender	0.47	-0.50 – 1.43	0.344	0.32	-0.71 – 1.35	0.545
Job	0.79	-0.70 – 2.28	0.3	0.98	-0.59 – 2.55	0.22
Age	-0.79	-1.93 – 0.34	0.171	-0.96	-2.14 – 0.22	0.111
Priming1:DPC1	-0.22	-1.24 – 0.80	0.671	-0.22	-1.29 – 0.86	0.694
Priming1:DPC2	1.51	0.07 – 2.95	**0.04**	1.64	0.12 – 3.16	**0.035**
EPC1				-0.21	-0.49 – 0.07	0.135
EPC2				-0.27	-0.73 – 0.19	0.257
EZS						
R^2		0.27			0.31	
AIC		125.92			125.69	
BIC		149.55			154.57	
AUC		0.76			0.75	
ACC		0.79			0.71	

DT - 3 personality traits of the Dark Triad; DPC - Principal components of the Dark Triad; DZS - Z-score adjusted measurements for the Dark Triad; ES - 7 measurements of Consumer Ethics scale; EPC - Principal components for Consumer Ethics scale; EZS - Z-value adjusted measurements for Consumer Ethics scale.

There were two best overall models - Model 4 and Model 7. Both of them were built with the principal components of the Dark Triad, interaction terms with salient goal priming and a group of social demographic variables such as occupation, aged group and gender (OAG). The distinction between Model 4 and Model 7 is that Model 7 was involved with the principal components of Consumer Ethics and Model 4 was not. The inclusion of the principal components of Consumer Ethics scale improved the R^2 value of 0.27 to 0.31 and the AUC value was only reduced from 0.76 to 0.75. This suggests that the inclusion of the principal components of Consumer Ethics have improved the model performance but none of the principal components of Consumer Ethics scale were shown statistically significant.

Diagram 19 - Variables within Model 4 and Model 7



Marginal Effects

First, there was a statistically significant relationship between salient goal priming and the socially responsible reward as the log-odds was 0.59 (p = 0.01, 95% = 0.59 - 4.32) in Model 7. This indicated that having been in the salient goal priming versus non-salient goal priming, the log odds of opting for the socially responsible reward increased by 0.59. In terms of average marginal effect, that meant that the probability of participants with salient goal priming was 34% higher than the participants without the salient goal priming to prefer the socially responsible rewards. Second, the interaction between salient goal priming and DPC2 had a statistically significant relationship with the socially responsible reward as the log-odds was 0.12 (p = 0.035, 95% = 0.12 - 3.16) in Model 7. Third, the alternative Model 4 had findings similar to those of Model 7. There was a statistically significant relationship between salient goal priming and the socially responsible reward as the log-odds were 2.23 (p = 0.013, 0.47 - 4.00). In terms of average marginal effect, that indicated that the probability of participants with salient goal priming was 33% higher than the participants without the salient goal priming to prefer the socially responsible rewards. Also, the interaction between salient goal priming and DPC2 had a statistically significant relationship with the socially responsible reward as the log-odds was 1.51 (p = 0.04, 0.07 - 2.95).

One clear sign is that the interaction between salient goal priming and the latent transformation of the Dark Triad was still contrasting. The result showed that, as the DPC1 score was increasing in the salient goal priming group, the individual would have a lower likelihood to opt for the socially responsible rewards. This was the same as the observation in the control group. However, it was found that the higher the DPC2 score in the salient goal priming group, the greater the likelihood that the individuals would opt for the socially responsible rewards. However, this was opposite to the observation in the control group, in which the higher the DPC2 score, the lower likelihood of the individual choosing the socially responsible rewards. Fourth, in neither of the two models was there any statistically significant relationship between measurements of Consumer Ethics and the socially responsible reward.

Table 21 - Average Marginal Effect (AME) of Model 7

factor	AME	SE	p
Priming	0.3409901	0.1012168	0.0007547
DPC1	-0.0812556	0.0433448	0.0608431
DPC2	-0.0125094	0.0553070	0.8210601
EPC1	-0.0359718	0.0231937	0.1209189
EPC2	-0.0450363	0.0388641	0.2465321
Age	-0.1596739	0.0941747	0.0899793
Gender	0.0549356	0.0917371	0.5492813
Job	0.1473138	0.1037762	0.1557434

Diagram 20 - Effects plot - Model 7

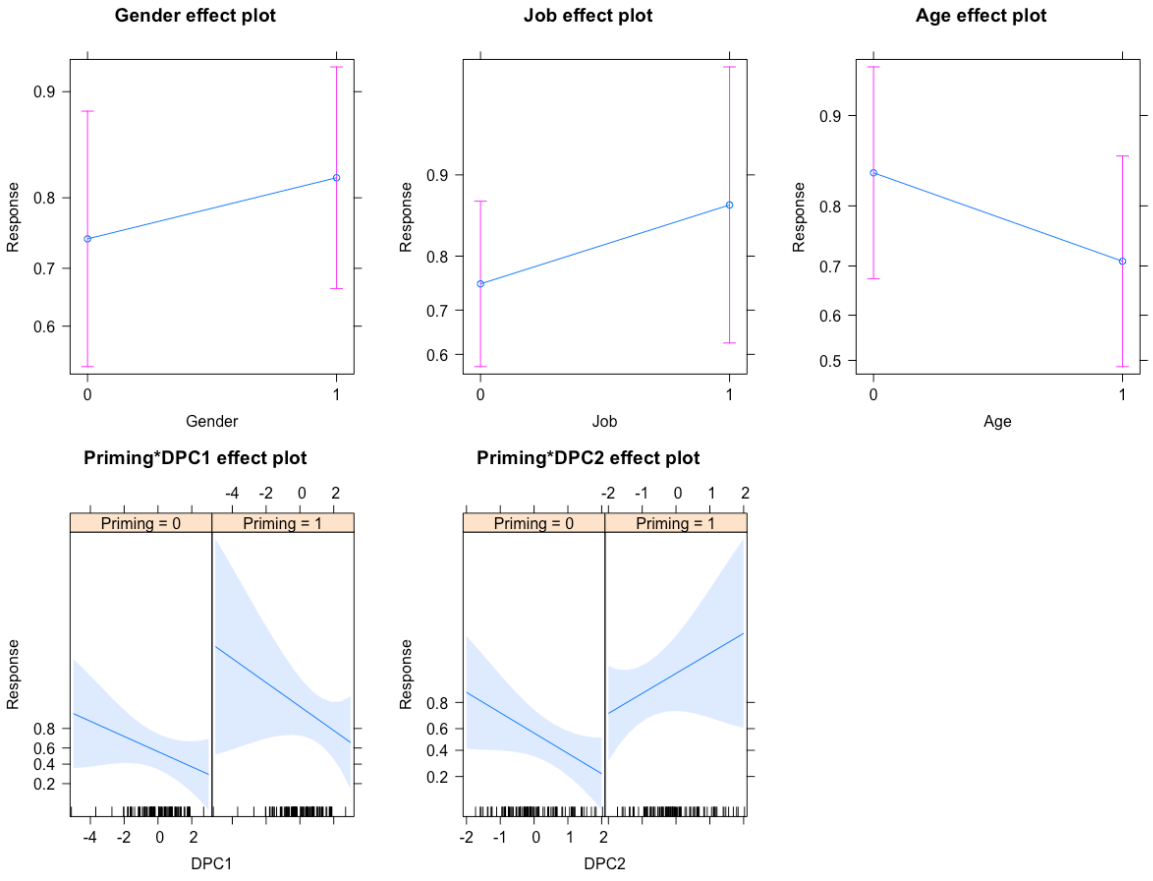
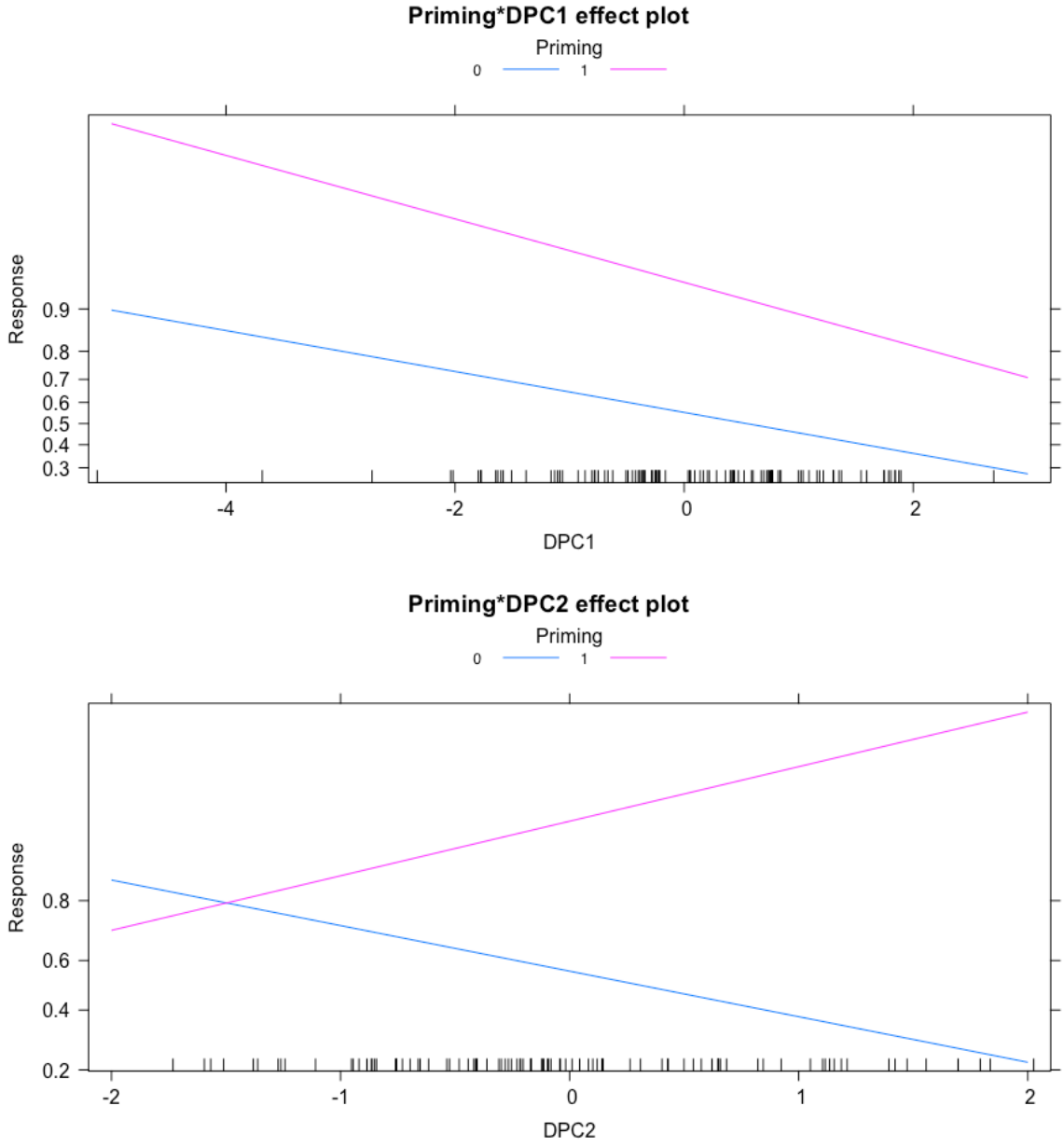


Diagram 21 - Interaction effect - Model 7



Bayesian approach

The best overall models in the Bayesian approach is Model 7, with the alternative model being Model 4. Both had higher performance over R^2, AUC, ACC values but Model 7 had the higher R^2 and AUC than Model 4. Although the Bayesian likelihood ratio test would prefer Model 4, the model had a relatively poor R^2.

Table 22 - Model performance III - Bayesian models

Models	Variables	B_R^2	B_AUC	B_ACC	B_LR
1	Priming, DPC	0.15	0.67	0.71	
2	Priming, DPC, DPC**,	0.19	0.70	0.71	
3	Priming, DPC, DPC**, ES	0.29	0.57	0.58	
4	Priming, DPC, DPC**, JAG	0.22	0.72	0.75	T
5	Priming, DPC, DPC**, ES, JAG	0.32	0.56	0.58	
6	Priming, DPC, DPC**, EPC	0.22	0.68	0.63	
7	Priming, DPC, DPC**, EPC, JAG	0.25	0.76	0.71	
8	Priming, DPC, DPC**, EZS	0.22	0.65	0.67	
9	Priming, DPC, DPC**, EZS, JAG	0.25	0.72	0.71	

Performance	B_R^2	B_AUC	B_ACC	B_LR
High	5	7	4	4
^	3	9	7	
^	7	4	9	
^	9	2	2	
Pass	8	6	1	
^	6	1	8	
^	4	8	6	
^	2	3	3	
Low	1	5	5	

Table 23 - Variables within Model 4 and Model 7

	Model 4			*Model 7*		
Predictors	*Log-Odds*	*HDI (50%)*	*HDI (95%)*	*Log-Odds*	*HDI (50%)*	*HDI (95%)*
Intercept	0.17	-0.24 – 0.63	-1.12 – 1.40	0.27	-0.20 – 0.69	-1.07 – 1.58
Priming	1.98	1.41 – 2.54	0.34 – 3.63	2.18	1.50 – 2.70	0.42 – 3.95
DPC1	-0.43	-0.61 – -0.24	-1.00 – 0.08	-0.44	-0.61 – -0.21	-1.04 – 0.13
DPC2	-0.8	-1.04 – -0.51	-1.62 – -0.04	-0.79	-1.04 – -0.50	-1.62 – -0.04
Gender	0.46	0.12 – 0.79	-0.49 – 1.44	0.33	-0.03 – 0.68	-0.74 – 1.36
Job	0.62	0.16 – 1.15	-0.82 – 2.06	0.79	0.25 – 1.30	-0.72 – 2.36
Age	-0.71	-1.08 – -0.31	-1.82 – 0.43	-0.89	-1.26 – -0.46	-2.06 – 0.28
Priming.DPC1	-0.11	-0.44 – 0.25	-1.15 – 0.88	-0.09	-0.43 – 0.30	-1.17 – 0.99
Priming.DPC2	1.4	0.93 – 1.91	-0.04 – 2.83	1.52	0.98 – 2.00	0.03 – 3.04
EPC1				-0.23	-0.32 – -0.12	-0.53 – 0.06
EPC2				-0.28	-0.43 – -0.11	-0.76 – 0.19
R^2		0.22			0.25	
AUC		0.72			0.76	
ACC		0.75			0.71	

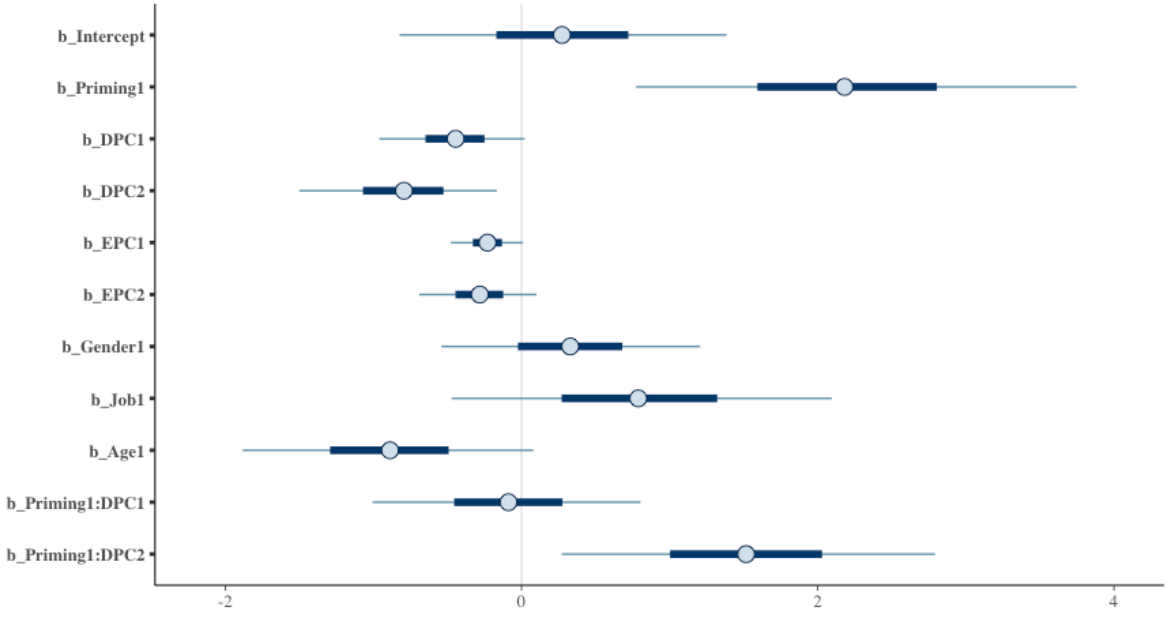
Table 24 - Bayesian model summary - Model 7

Parameters	Estimate	SE	95%_HDI_L	95%_HDI_H	ESS	Ratio	Rhat	MCSE
Intercept	0.27	0.66	-1.07	1.58	46334	1.16	1	0
Priming	2.18	0.9	0.42	3.95	36445	0.91	1	0
DPC1	-0.44	0.3	-1.04	0.13	40817	1.02	1	0
DPC2	-0.79	0.4	-1.62	-0.04	41490	1.04	1	0
EPC1	-0.23	0.15	-0.53	0.06	47472	1.19	1	0
EPC2	-0.28	0.24	-0.76	0.19	51536	1.29	1	0
Gender	0.33	0.52	-0.74	1.36	48276	1.21	1	0
Job	0.79	0.78	-0.72	2.36	41941	1.05	1	0
Age	-0.89	0.59	-2.06	0.28	42561	1.06	1	0
Priming:DPC1	-0.09	0.54	-1.17	0.99	41343	1.03	1	0
Priming:DPC2	1.52	0.76	0.03	3.04	38453	0.96	1	0

** ESS - Effective sampling size; HDI - Highest density intervals.*

Given the observed data, chosen priors, and iterating process, the probability that the parameter value lies within was chosen at 95%. While the point estimate for salient goal priming was 2.19, the 95% highest density intervals (HDI) was between 0.54 and 4.07. This means that the probability of choosing the socially responsible reward increases at a rate of 2.19 from participants without salient goal priming to participants with salient goal priming when all the variables held constants. Another variable having an impact was the interaction term between salient goal priming and DPC2. While the point estimate for group priming is 1.4, the 95% highest density intervals (HDI) was between 0.01 and 2.91. The alternative model confirmed the effect on both the estimates. For all other remaining variables, as they had their 95% HDI overlapping with zero, there was no significant effect on the outcome variable. In other words, any suggested effect would mostly remain uncertain. The marginal effects for the interaction terms were contrasting. The likelihood of opting for the socially responsible reward would gradually increase in the priming and control groups as the DPC1 increased. However, when the DPC2 increased, the likelihood of opting for the socially responsible reward would gradually increase in the priming group, but it decreased in the control group. There's no effect found in Model 7 between the measurements of Consumer Ethics and the socially responsible reward.

Diagram 22 - Effect plot - Model 7



In the diagnostic analysis, all the trance plots showed that no sampling chains deviated from the multidimensional parameter space and all R-hats were less than 1.05. This suggested that good convergences were occurred over all the parameters. The value of MCSE was as low as zero, so the effective sample size was expected to be large. In fact, the iteration was initially set at 20,000 and all the effective sample sizes resulted in a much larger than the expected threshold of 3,750. The final check were the draws from the posterior predictive distribution, which shared a pattern similar to that of the observed data.

Diagram 23 - Interaction effect - Model 7

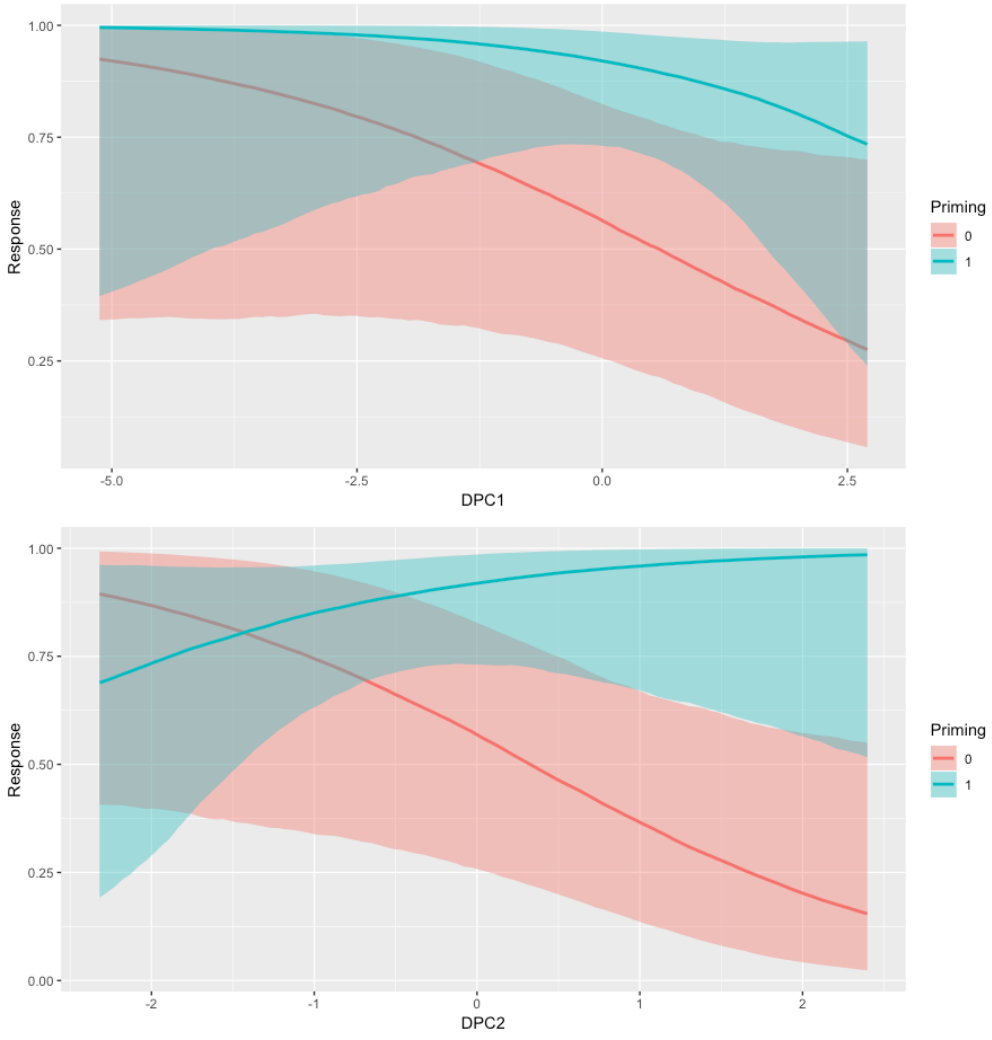
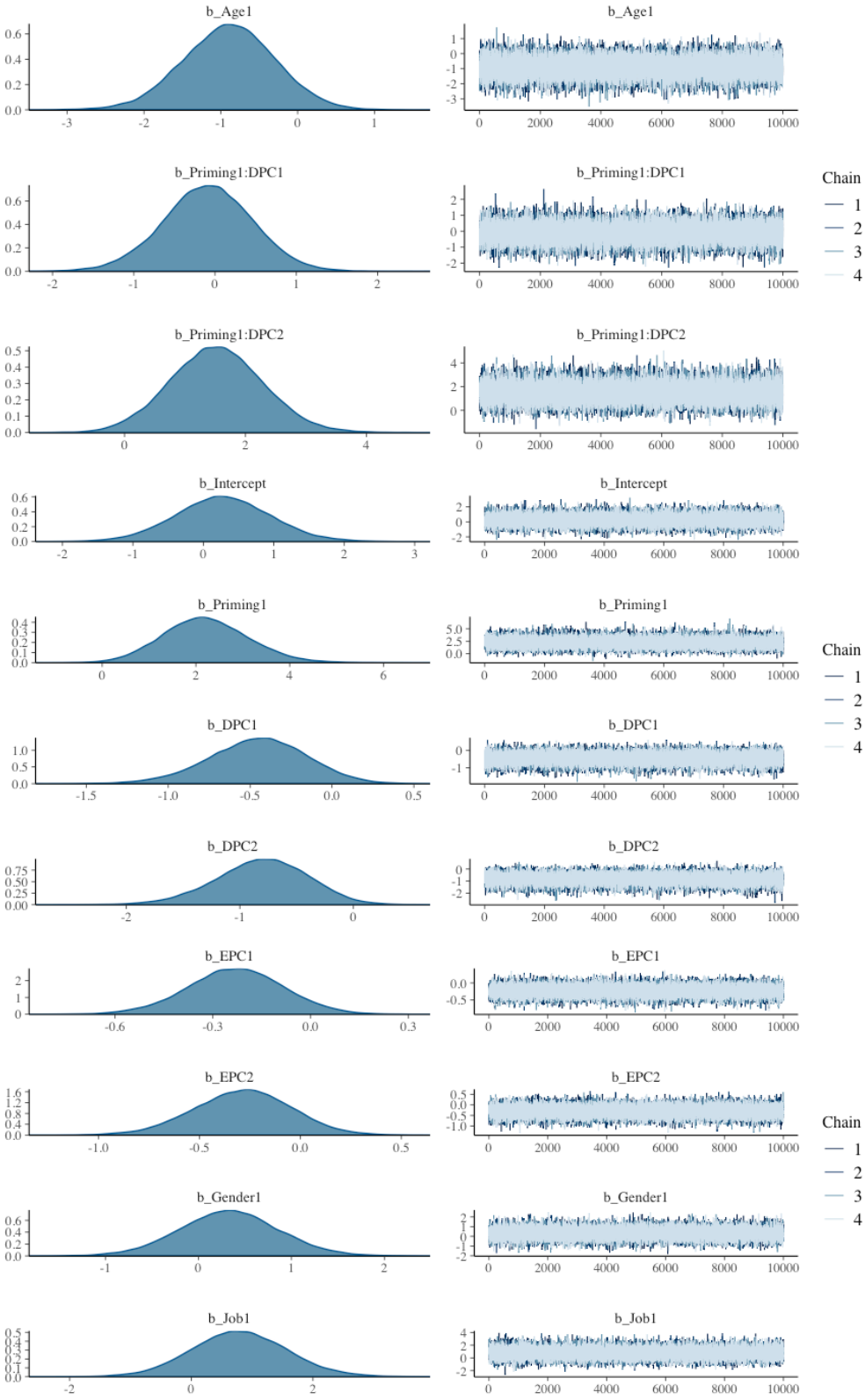


Diagram 18 - Bayesian chains - Model 7



7.4 Study 4 - Comparison and Interaction

	H1 - Goal		H2 - Goal + Group		H3 - Goal + Selfie	
	Included	Sign	Included	Sign	Included	Sign
Priming	✓	−	✓	+	✓	+++
DPC 1	✓	−	✓	−	✓	−
DPC 2	✓	−	✓	−	✓	−
Priming x DPC1	✓	−	✓	+	✓	+
Priming x DPC2	✓	−	✓	−	✓	−
Gender	✓	++	-	-	-	-
Occupation	✓	+	-	-	-	-
Age	✓	−	-	-	-	-
ACT	-	-	✓	−	-	-
PAS	-	-	✓	−	-	-
QUEST	-	-	✓	−	-	-
NOH	-	-	✓	−	-	-
DL	-	-	✓	−	-	-
REC	-	-	✓	−	-	-
GOOD	-	-	✓	−	-	-
EPC 1	-	-	-	-	✓	−
EPC 2	-	-	-	-	✓	−

	H4 - Dark triad					
	Experiment 1		Experiment 2		Experiment 3	
	Included	Sign	Included	Sign	Included	Sign
DPC 1	✓	−	✓	−	✓	−
DPC 2	✓	−	✓	−	✓	−
Priming x DPC1	✓	−	✓	+	✓	+
Priming x DPC2	✓	−	✓	−	✓	−

Table 25 shows a concise summary of the best overall models in frequentist approach and the Bayesian approach over AUC, R^2, AIC, BIC, ACC and LR evaluation metrics. Given the

performance-based nature, all the final selected models are expected to have a different model structure, i.e,. retaining variables with more explaining and predictive power but removing variables with less explaining and predictive power.

For the first three studies, there were no statistically significant relationships from goal priming, the Dark Triad of personality traits and Consumer Ethics towards the socially responsible reward. However, female participants and participants with a full-time occupation were both more likely to opt for the socially responsible reward as the log-odds were estimated to be 1.03 (95% = 0.09 - 1.97, p = 0.032) and 1.48 (95% = 0.01 - 2.98, p = 0.048). This means that considering gender from male to female, the log odds of opting for the socially responsible reward increased by 1.03. Additionally, as to having a full-time job versus being engaged in full-time study or being a homemaker, the log odds of opting for a socially responsible reward increased by 1.48. For the average marginal effect, this meant that the probability for female participants opting for a socially responsible reward was 23% higher than the male participants, and the participants with a full-time occupation opting for the socially responsible reward was 31% higher than the participants without a full-time occupation. In the second study, there was a statistically significant relationship between the group priming and the socially responsible reward as the log-odds was 1.33 (95% CI: 0.01 - 2.66, p = 0.048). This indicated that having been in the group priming versus non-group priming, the log odds of opting for social responsible reward increased by 1.33. In terms of average marginal effect, that meant that the probability of the participants with group priming was 22.6% higher than the participants without the group priming to prefer the socially responsible rewards. In the third study,, there was a statistically significant relationship between salient goal priming and the socially responsible reward as the log-odds was 0.59 (p = 0.01, 95% = 0.59 - 4.32). This indicated that having been in the salient goal priming versus non-salient goal priming, the log odds of opting for the socially responsible reward increased by 0.59. In terms of average marginal effect, that meant that the probability of participants with salient goal priming was 34% higher than the participants without the salient goal priming to prefer the socially responsible rewards. The interaction between salient goal priming and DPC2 had a statistically significant relationship with the socially responsible reward as the log-odds was 0.12 (p = 0.035, 95% = 0.12 - 3.16).

In the interaction effect study, there's no interaction effect between goal priming and DPC1 or DPC2 on the socially responsible reward. The result did suggest that the higher the DPC1 score in priming, the higher likelihood that the individual would choose the socially

responsible rewards. However, this was in opposition to the observation from the control group that the higher the DPC1 score, the lower likelihood of the individual would choose the socially responsible rewards. For the interaction between goal priming and DPC2, both priming and control groups showed that the higher the DPC2 score in priming, the lower likelihood of the individual choosing the socially responsible rewards. The interaction between group priming and DPC1 or DPC2 was contrasting. The result showed that, as the DPC1 score was increasing in the group priming, the individual would have a lower likelihood to opt for the socially responsible rewards. This was the same as the observation in the control group. However, it was found that the higher the DPC2 score in the group priming, the greater the likelihood that the individuals would opt for the socially responsible rewards. However, this was opposite to the observation in the control group, in which the higher the DPC2 score, the lower likelihood of the individual choosing the socially responsible rewards. This shows that there's an interaction effect between group priming and DPC2 on the socially responsible reward. The result of interaction effect between salient goal priming and DPC1 showed that, as the DPC1 score was increasing in the salient goal priming group, the individual would have a lower likelihood to opt for the socially responsible rewards. This was the same as the observation in the control group. However, it was found that the higher the DPC2 score in the salient goal priming group, the greater the likelihood that the individuals would opt for the socially responsible rewards. However, this was opposite to the observation in the control group, in which the higher the DPC2 score, the lower likelihood of the individual choosing the socially responsible rewards. This shows that there's an interaction effect between salient goal priming and DPC2 on the socially responsible reward. There's no interaction effect between the measurements of Consumer Ethics and all the priming conditions on the socially responsible reward.

Table 25 - Model cross-comparison - Frequentist approach

	Model 4			*Model 3*			*Model 7*		
Predictors	*LO*	*CI*	*p*	*LO*	*CI*	*p*	*LO*	*CI*	*p*
(Intercept)	-1.10	-2.26 – 0.05	0.06	0.63	-3.02 – 4.27	0.74	0.13	-1.18 – 1.44	0.85
Priming	0.51	-0.45 – 1.47	0.30	1.33	0.01 – 2.66	**0.05**	2.46	0.59 – 4.32	**0.01**
DPC 1	-0.44	-1.00 – 0.11	0.11	-0.29	-0.77 – 0.18	0.22	-0.39	-0.96 – 0.18	0.18
DPC 2	0.11	-0.63 – 0.85	0.77	-0.52	-1.24 – 0.21	0.16	-0.75	-1.52 – 0.03	0.06
DPC1**	0.62	-0.12 – 1.35	0.10	-0.21	-1.16 – 0.74	0.67	-0.22	-1.29 – 0.86	0.69
DPC2**	-0.02	-1.22 – 1.18	0.97	1.43	-0.02 – 2.88	0.05	1.64	0.12 – 3.16	**0.04**
Gender	1.03	0.09 – 1.98	**0.03**				0.32	-0.71 – 1.35	0.55
Job	1.48	0.00 – 2.97	**0.05**				0.98	-0.59 – 2.55	0.22
Age	-0.63	-2.07 – 0.82	0.39				-0.96	-2.14 – 0.22	0.11
ACT				-0.27	-1.12 – 0.59	0.54			
PAS				0.25	-0.62 – 1.12	0.58			
QUEST				0.54	-0.44 – 1.52	0.28			
NOH				-0.84	-1.84 – 0.16	0.10			
DL				-0.02	-0.73 – 0.68	0.95			
REC				0.30	-0.38 – 0.99	0.38			
GOOD				-0.10	-0.81 – 0.61	0.78			
EPC 1							-0.21	-0.49 – 0.07	0.14
EPC 2							-0.27	-0.73 – 0.19	0.26
R^2		0.17			0.21			0.31	
AIC		135.96			136.73			125.69	
BIC		158.95			170.06			154.57	
AUC		0.68			0.87			0.75	
ACC		0.64			0.82			0.71	

Table 26 - Model cross-comparison - Bayesian approach

	Model 4		*Model 3*		*Model 7*	
Predictors	*Log-Odds*	*HDI (95%)*	*Log-Odds*	*HDI (95%)*	*Log-Odds*	*HDI (95%)*
Intercept	-1.09	-2.28 – 0.03	0.63	-3.11 – 4.52	0.28	-1.01 – 1.61
Priming	0.48	-0.49 – 1.41	1.33	0.04 – 2.72	2.19	0.54 – 4.07
DPC 1	-0.46	-1.01 – 0.09	-0.35	-0.84 – 0.17	-0.44	-1.02 – 0.11
DPC 2	0.09	-0.71 – 0.84	-0.55	-1.30 – 0.20	-0.81	-1.61 – -0.01
Priming1:DPC1	0.63	-0.11 – 1.35	-0.19	-1.17 – 0.86	-0.08	-1.11 – 0.97
Priming1:DPC2	0.01	-1.20 – 1.23	1.45	0.05 – 3.01	1.52	0.11 – 3.07
Gender	1.06	0.08 – 2.03			0.33	-0.71 – 1.36
Job	1.42	-0.02 – 2.87			0.82	-0.64 – 2.34
Age	-0.52	-1.97 – 0.90			-0.89	-2.05 – 0.28
ACT			-0.21	-1.07 – 0.67		
PAS			0.26	-0.65 – 1.19		
QUEST			0.49	-0.54 – 1.50		
NOH			-0.86	-1.88 – 0.17		
DL			-0.04	-0.78 – 0.71		
REC			0.36	-0.35 – 1.06		
GOOD			-0.11	-0.82 – 0.66		
EPC 1					-0.22	-0.52 – 0.05
EPC 2					-0.28	-0.72 – 0.20
R^2		0.162		0.20		0.25
AUC		0.636		0.86		0.76
ACC		0.658		0.82		0.71

DT - Three personality traits for the Dark Triad; DPC - Principal components of the Dark Triad of personality traits; DZS - Z-score adjusted measurements for the Dark Triad of personality traits; ES - Seven sub-scales of Ethical Consumer measurements; EPC - Principal components for Consumer Ethics scale; EZS - Z-value adjusted measurements for Consumer Ethics scale.

8 Discussion

The purpose of the study was to determine how socially responsible consumption is being motivated by conscious behavioural drivers such as having a goal to undertake that form of consumption, and unconscious behavioural drivers such as situational priming and personality trait interacting. This study has taken a goal pursuit approach to determine how that pursuit concerning ethicality or social responsibility would fare across a variety of situational primings. Across all other studies, the evidence showed that unconscious behavioural drivers such as the presence of others and salient goal priming are more effective than conscious behavioural drivers such as having a socially responsible goal or ethical value orientation in motivating individuals to act on socially responsible consumption.

8.1 Experimentation is the new black

Most studies of socially responsible consumption are presented with a strong deterministic nature, in which individuals maintain the same interpretation, motivation and priorities across time and circumstances, and more importantly, individuals are most likely in control of their behaviours. This is like modelling consumer behaviours in a vacuum in which no alternative influences but only individuals' perception and motivation will determine their behaviours (Gruber, 2012). However, Daniel Kahneman and others from the field of behavioural economics have consistently demonstrated how human decisions often fall into the realm of irrationality rather than rationality (Kahneman 2011; Thaler and Sunstein, 2009). In the case of socially responsible consumption, people have been proven to be far from free of influence; they are prone to influence from their past experience, emotion, identity, time urgency and the presence of others (Reese and Kohlmann, 2015; Fishbach et al., 2016; Sen et al., 2016). A preponderance of non-experimental studies has endorsed Jung's (2018) argument as to a moral good lacking freedom being just like the thief in jail. In other words, one's degree of socially responsible consumption cannot be determined without that individual having the freedom to experience the temptations or make the choices that shape modern consumption. No one can really know what moral or socially responsible behaviour consumers would evidence unless they have an opportunity to obey or disobey the moral or socially responsible codes they encounter over the course of everyday life. This study offers an experimentation approach to placing the consumer before ethicality or social responsibility in understanding the motivation of socially responsible consumption.

These experiments are structured in such a way as to eliminate social desirability bias and to determine how, having expressed their commitment to socially responsible consumption, consumers would respond under certain constraints. By using non-surveyed outcome measures, we intended to minimise exposure to the common method bias induced by intentional/willingness-based outcome measures. The first study started with a comparison between the control group and goal priming group, as many of the studies concerning social responsibility or ethicality are trumpeting the idea of having a conscious intention or value orientation towards socially responsible behaviour. The result showed that people still failed to align their behaviour with their social responsibilities, although they had indicated a desire to do so. Their failure suggests that there might be other elements influencing existent conscious behavioural drivers. The second study built on the structure of the first, but introduced one difference into the goal priming group. The presence of others is one of the most common situations people face in everyday life; the aim was to determine the effect of the goal priming reinforced by a situational behavioural driver on socially responsible consumption. The result indicated that participants were more likely to conform to their socially responsible goal in the presence of others. The third study was again intended to build on the structure of the first study but to embrace a different situational priming in the goal priming group. Salient goal priming is like the virtual presence of others as individuals were primed to take a selfie with their reward choice and post it on social media. The basis of that psychological effect emerged from the rise of social media use and a narcissistic attitude among the young population across generations. The result showed that, under salient goal priming, participants were more likely than those without that priming to conform to their socially responsible commitment. Over the three studies, we have seen how the goal pursuit of socially responsibility can fail or succeed, depending on contextual situations rather than ethicality or social responsibility. The change of contextual situations might explain the increase or decrease of the attitude-behaviour gap seen in the latest trend of socially responsible consumption, as people transit from one contextual situation to another, with some situations being more likely than others to activate an unconscious behavioural mechanism. The fourth study has made an attempt to examine individual variations across the goal and situational priming through the dark triad personality traits. The idea was to determine the existence of an internal threshold affecting the likelihood of an individual's responding in a socially responsible way, depending on various situations. The result showed that when the situation is enabling the interest of the individuals with a strong Machiavellian

trait, they're more likely to act on socially responsible consumption. This suggests an interplay between altruism and egoism in prompting socially responsible consumption. The person-situation variability could be further studied in relation to the attitude-behaviour gap in socially responsible consumption.

8.2 Goal intended is not sufficient

The first study was to determine the effect of goal priming situation on social responsibility. The common understanding is that consumers' failing to act on social responsibility is due to lack of access, awareness and choice. In other words, consumers would behave in a socially responsible way if they're given the opportunity and choice. However, the result of study 1 showed that there were no statistically significant differences between the participants from the goal priming group and the control group when choosing a socially responsible reimbursement. In other words, neither highlighting the dimension of social responsibility or just having a social responsible goal is enough to tempt the individuals to act on socially responsible consumption.

First, the finding of the study 1 contradicts most of the previous conclusions associated with consumer ethics or value-orientated studies. The common understanding is that consumers are made to realise their 'civic duty' and moral concerns. In return, they will direct their consumption more like political voters. In a way, the ethical values influence beliefs and the beliefs translate into intentions and the intentions dictates the individual consumptions (Shaw et al., 2006; Soper, 2007; Balderjahn et al., 2013; do Paço et al., 2013). One study examined the relationship between ethical values and socially responsible consumption through Green Party registered voters in California (Kahn, 2007). The self-declared Green Party registration enables an indirect comparison between residents with and without high environmentalism. The study found that the residents who registered as Green Party voters would use more public transit and less driving compared the residents who're not Green Party voters. Another study examined the relationship between ethical values and fair-trade non-food products (Ma and Lee., 2012). It found that ethical values tend to have a positive effect on the attitude and intention to commit fair trade products. However, this is not the case in the current study. Highlighting the dimension of social responsibility might prompt a great degree of temptation for the individuals to act on socially responsible consumption, but it's just not enough to translate socially responsible awareness into actual behaviour. There might be other types of resistance that are hidden and yet still operate against the motivation.

Second, the finding of the study 1 also contradicts the commonly held belief that goal setting can translate intentions into actual behaviours. Previous studies have suggested that when an assigned goal with a clearly articulated rationale is set, the person or persons to whom that goal was given can reach the same level of behavioural performance as those holding participative goals (Locke et al., 1988). In this study, the goal of taking on a challenge to commit as many socially responsible consumption acts as possible over the ensuing two weeks was assigned. A list of acts was made available; however, there's little guarantee as to how well the participants had truly processed the details of the entries on that list. Only a few participants raised further questions regarding the extent of the socially responsible goals, which indicated that the participants tended to feel over-confident as to their ability to engage in socially responsible consumption. This is consistent to the reality of socially responsible consumption the individuals often do not have enough time or mental capacity to examine every consumption regarding its socially responsible dimensions whether the product is locally sourced, environmentally friendly, animal friendly, fair trade and recycled friendly. In addition, self-regulation and self-efficacy is critical to the success of a goal pursuit (Locke and Latham, 2002; Sekerka et al., 2015). The timespan of goal-to-outcome in this study was much shorter compared with traditional goal priming studies. A longer timespan can invite feedback or self-regulation mechanism integrated with the goal priming. This makes the likelihood of getting more socially responsible consumption higher. This might explain the reason that a simple goal priming to promote socially responsible consumption can still fail.

Third, one of the key differences between this and previous studies lies in the concept of goal hierarchy. Consumers operate in a sort of goal pursuit mode every day, with these daily goals focusing on individual needs and priority. It's increasingly common for consumers to be exposed to some forms of goal priming on social responsibility; these exposures often emanate from their surroundings, for example, public advertisements or targeted promotions. This means that assigned goals are becoming more common than other forms, and is one of the reasons for assigning the same goal to all the experiments, thus gaining an opportunity to reflect on what the consumers face every day. Consumer then must think about combining these assigned socially responsible goals with their primary goal, e.g., buying food before catching a train. However, consumers would find greater values if they see the goal as self-determined rather than imposed (Wehmeyer et al., 2011). Voyer (2015) shows that assigned or normative value based socially responsible consumption can prevent some individuals to

commit their act as they feel they're being forced to accept someone's value orientation instead of their own. This creates not only an internal dissonance, but also a motivation to deviate from the assigned or normative value orientation. One common scene is the amount of rubbish that being squeezed or left around the cigarette bin when there's no bin nearby. Another way to look at the challenge of the assigned goal is goal conflict. When two goals are primed to take the driving seat in the attention, one of them is destined to be deferred or shadowed. In this study, the participants were informed that they would get a £4 worth reimbursement before the questionnaire. This was seen as the implicit goal all the participants would carry. The implicit goal acknowledgement is to mirror the mindset of everyday consumers that they tend to have an implicit goal and these goals are less social responsible. By accepting the assigned goal, the individuals are very likely to experience discomfort on the goal conflicts and choose not to opt for the socially responsible choice.

Fourth, other differences include outcome measurement and moral decoupling. Most of the previous findings, as they related to goal priming, were based on continuous measurement. That means that, given a period of time, the individuals are evaluated as to how many goals they have reached. In this study, the outcome measurement was based on the categorical measurement the selection participants had made. In addition, consumers can either isolate the ethical component within consumption or resist further socially responsible consumption if they feel they have been 'immunised' via a previous socially responsible consumption (Merritt et al., 2010; Campbell and Winterich, 2018; Chen et al., 2018). This is often referred as moral decoupling. In this study, some of the participants suggested that they didn't think the assigned socially responsible goal would link to the reimbursement. They felt they should have the final say on when to initiate their pursuit of a socially responsible goal and believed that they would have chosen the socially responsible form of reimbursement if the information about social responsibility was made more explicit or salient. It's not surprising that the participants didn't feel guilty about their failure in taking up the socially responsible consumption in the reimbursement session, as Bhattacharjee et al. (2012) showed that individuals can often come to the terms with an esteemed public figure's violation of moral codes and still endorse that individual. Another way to look at the "off-duty" outcome was discovered by Hui et al. (2009), who examined grocery stores' in-store field data and found that people would often go to junk foods sections after buying healthful foods. In that study, the participants assumed they would start the goal pursuit later, with consumer behaviour between now and the start being "immunised" by the latter pursuit of a socially responsible goal.

Fifth. While many of the participants failed to pursue the socially responsible reimbursement even though they were given the opportunity and choice, female participants and participants with a full-time occupation in the goal priming group evidencing statistically significant differences compared to their counterparts. Gender effect is often reported in the literatures of socially responsible consumption (Luchs and Mooradian, 2012). Lang et al. (2013) examined the relationship of gender effect on disposal frequency of clothing waste. The finding shows that female consumers are more likely to act on frequent clothing disposal. Costa Pinto et al. (2014) examined the relationship of gender effect and identity on sustainable consumption. Female participants would commit more sustainable consumption compared with male participants when the personal identity was highlighted. Morgan et al. (2016) shows that females participants tend to be more sensitive to socially responsible issues compared to their counterpart. Brough et al. (2016) shows that female participants are more willing to adopt environmentally friendly behaviours compared with male participants. However, Chen et al. (2014) examined the relationship of gender, purchase intentions and food safety concerns. However, they failed to see any gender effect on the purchase intentions. Burnett (1981) examined the relationship of gender and blood donation. The finding shows that blood donors are likely to be family men with low self-esteem and risk averse; very fewer women signed up to donate blood. This shows that gender effect might have masked the effect of agreeableness from people's personality trait (Luchs and Mooradian, 2012). If the individuals don't often confront or have problems with the value orientation of environmental issues, they're likely to have tendency to adopt the social norm behaviour or what the green label advertises.

The finding of the first study makes a contribution by examining socially responsible consumption through the lens of goal pursuit, as many of the studies concerning social responsibility or ethicality are based on either attitude or value orientation. While some have successfully linked attitude or value orientation with socially responsible behaviours, the outcome measures were always "intentional", but never "behavioural". In other words, many previous studies preferred to gauge the willingness or intentions of the consumers with the same questionnaire. Moreover, these studies were not based on the actual behavioural choice under constraint. In this study, consumers have been made aware of their social responsibility in their consumption. Furthermore, all of them accepted a goal pursuit of socially responsible consumption, but nevertheless failed to align their behaviour with their goal. This means that conscious behavioural drivers such as awareness of social responsibility or goal intentions are not sufficient to motivate socially responsible behaviours. The literature has suggested that

the goals could be more specific, challenging and salient if they are considered to be effective in motivating individual socially responsible behaviours. Additionally, self-regulation and self-efficacy are critical to the successful pursuit of socially responsible goals (Locke and Latham, 2002; Sekerka et al., 2015). However, Laran (2016) suggests that goal-based consumer behaviours should be examined through conscious and unconscious behavioural drivers together, because the unconscious behavioural mechanism tend to contain many background information as well as hidden influences operating on existing conscious behavioural drivers. In the review of goal-setting studies over decade, Locke and Latham (2015) identified the strength of goal as a behavioural driver is the ability to highlight and consolidate one's consciousness. However, the strength is also the biggest weakness of goal as a behavioural driver because it only stresses on consciousness and leave itself exposed to the influence of unconsciousness. This should serve as a reminder to only consider conscious behavioural drivers in promoting socially responsible consumption, as well as being aware of a potential cause of the long-term existence of the attitude-behaviour gap in that form of consumption. Therefore, the potential solution is to embrace both consciousness and unconsciousness as one gives an individual a purpose while the other comprises all background information as well as the possibility of other, less visible influences. Locke and Latham (2015) suggested that it is necessary to understand in what context or situations goal setting works best and its interaction with other behavioural drivers.

8.3 Situations reinforce the motivation

The second study was to determine the effect of a group priming situation in relation to socially responsible consumption. It is commonly believed that consumers deal with their goal pursuit in either isolation or within a group. The first study showed how individuals conducted their goal pursuit in isolation, and the second study was aimed at examining how individuals would manage their acts of social responsibility goal while in the company of more than three other people. The second study found that there was a statistically significant relationship between the group priming and socially responsible reimbursement, with the participants in the group priming being more likely than those in the control group to choose the socially responsible reimbursements. This meant that, in the presence of others, participants deviated from individual goal pursuit, substituting a newly assigned goal. In this case, the newly assigned goal was same as the previous study that based on social responsibility.

First, the finding of the second study supports the positive effect in the literature concerning

how the presence of others could alter individual goal pursuit, i.e., the desire to make a good impression on one's social circle serves as the motivation. In the previous finding, people tend to lower their portion size when they face an 'obese' group but often match the portion size when they see people with similar size selects a large quantity (McFerran et al., 2009). In a study using in-store field data of the grocery stores, the presence of other shoppers was able to attract more consumers (Hui et al., 2009). A similar social norm has been observed in donation (Small and Cryder, 2016). When individuals are made aware with others giving less than they considered, they would match to the lower donation. Vice versa. The closeness of a relationship can also facilitate the effect of the presence of others on individuals making similar choices in terms of goal pursuit and consumption (Cavanaugh, 2016). The motivation is the desire to make a good impression on one's social circle. Therefore, consumption seen in closer relationships often involves the purchase of gifts or consumption shared with family and friends. O'Neill (2012) suggested that peer influence is one of the key contributors to childhood obesity as children tend to mirror eating behaviours such as food choice and quantity with their friends. Wansink and Chandon (2014) found a similar effect in adults as people would adjust both their manner and quantity of consumption according to their dining peers. Salazar et al. (2013) referred to behaviours influenced by colleagues, family and friends as "herd behaviour" or social learning, finding it had a significant impact on the intention to purchase environmentally friendly products. In this study, a number of participants in group priming were recruited when they were already sitting together as a group. That meant that they were either friends or had a close relationship. Such close relationships would cause the individuals to unconsciously mirror the group norm. For those individuals who had already formed a group relationship, a group identity is potentially formed and the individuals would wrestle with the qualifications and emotions of group membership as part of identity enactment (Coleman and Williams, 2013). The idea of the belongingness in a group is likely to motivate the individuals to conform to group behaviour (White and Simpson, 2013; Sekerka et al., 2015; Yang et al., 2015).

Second, another explanation for the positive finding in the study is that people want to impress their peers with their choice of reimbursement. This could be tied to the signalling mechanism. The idea is that a signal is a costly action that alleviates asymmetrical information about the individuals (Ariely et al., 2009). Puska et al. (2018) found evidence of the signalling effect in organic consumption. When the consumers were primed with a desire for high status, they tended to opt for organic rather than non-organic food. The reason is again

that organic food consumption gives a costly signal about their lifestyle status. Berman et al. (2015) examined the similar effect of bragging on prosocial behaviour. The finding shows that bragging about one's generosity can provide a positive effect to the actor when their prosocial behaviour was previously unknown to peers but the effect is reversed when the prosocial behaviour is already well known. In this study, most of participants are more or less connected they were either recruited together or from the same class cohort. This means that they could have a strong incentive to make a good impression in the presence of others. In addition, the idea of social facilitation suggests that when the task is familiar to the individual and is dependent on instinctual responses, such as lifting weights, bicycling, or eating rapidly, people perform better on particular tasks in the presence of a group (Markus, 1978). In this study, the participants seemed to show significant confidence in the idea of socially responsible consumption as few of them asked for additional information concerning that form of consumption when completing the questionnaire. This meant that they believed themselves to be more familiar with socially responsible consumption than their peers and would have performed well in the presence of a group.

Third, while there were no other statistically significant relationships in the preferred model, the alternative model found that the participants with a full-time occupation with group priming showed statistically significant differences compared to the participants with full-time study / being a homemaker when choosing the socially responsible reward. This shows that there might be an individual variation within the group. Some demographic variation was expected as previous studies found that men consumed 93% more pizza and 86% more salad when dining with a woman than dining with men, while women consumed relatively the same, regardless of the gender of their dining partners and food types (Kniffin et al., 2016). Another difference between this study and those conducted previously lies in the outcome measure. Most studies concerning the presence of others tended to use a continuous outcome measure but this study used a categorical measure. The categorical measure seems to reflect more closely what the majority of consumers experience every day, in which individuals contemplate a purchase decision between socially responsible label and non-socially responsible label in binary decision making.

The second study, which was built on the finding from the first, showed that there were no statistically significant differences between the participants from simply goal priming on social responsibility and the control group when choosing a socially responsible reward. Many of the participants failed to pursue the socially responsible reward, although they were given the

opportunity to do so. This meant that a second behavioural driver could effectively reinforce socially responsible behaviour. The second area of extension development is focused on the non-deterministic nature, such as situational factors (Belk, 1975; Carrington et al., 2010). In the second study, the finding showed that, in the presence of others, people are more likely to act on socially responsible reimbursement. This makes a solid contribution to research using situational factors as an extension to improve the theoretical framework, which are currently a popular practice in the areas of reasoned action and planned behaviour in examining socially responsible consumption. A recent theoretical framework is built on the interdependency of personal and situational components is clearly the future (Carrington et al., 2010; Hassan et al., 2016; Grimmer and Miles, 2017). For a situational context, the current finding shows a good promising start towards understanding the social context involved with other human beings, i.e., the presence of others. It should be the first situational factor to be investigated in connection to socially responsible consumption, as this is the most common situational factor encountered by everyday consumers.

8.4 Selfie on social responsibility is self-aggrandizement

The third study was to determine the effect of a salient goal priming situation in relation to socially responsible consumption. The common understanding is that social media is increasingly emerging as a new medium for people to unveil or interact their goal pursuit. While a goal pursuit might originate in private, it could potentially manifest in a public domain and play a significant role in regulating behaviour. The third study was aimed at examining how individuals manage their goal pursuits in socially responsible consumption when they were expected to reveal those pursuits on social media. The result showed that there was a statistically significant relationship between salient goal priming and socially responsible reimbursement. This indicated that participants with salient goal priming were more likely than those without that priming to choose the socially responsible reimbursement.

First, the finding is consistent with a new line of inquiry suggesting that altruism can sometimes mask vanity in the successful completion of a socially responsible act (Janssen and Vanhamme, 2015; Kulow and Kramer, 2016; Barbarossa and De Pelsmacker, 2016). When altruism and consciousness are factors in the motivation of consumer behaviour, it is possible to elicit the effect of individual narcissism and implicit egotism (Bennett, 2012; Sääksjärvi et al., 2016). This is also consistent with the novel suggestion that people with a vain attitude are more likely to engage in responsible consumption if it suits their interest (Naderi and

Strutton, 2014). In this study, when the individuals consciously considered the selfie as an altruistic act, they might have unconsciously adjusted their motivation towards the socially responsible reimbursement and conform to the social norm. The participants were under the impression that the selfie would be posted on a social media platform, meaning that their choice of reimbursement would be broadcast to many others friends, colleagues and the general public. By conforming to the social norm, an individual can use their socially responsible act as a positive signal to his or her social circle. Previous studies shows that status strivings can influence individuals to engage in socially responsible consumption to achieve high status in their social circle (Sutton and Hargadon, 1996; Griskevicius et al., 2010). Griskevicius et al. (2010) argued that people who own hybrid gas–electric cars, such as the Toyota Prius, do not necessarily score high in environmental conservation. However, a Toyota Prius is expensive, so ownership enables the car owners to not only enjoy its fuel-efficient utility, but also to give a higher social status signal to their peers. A similar observation can be said to Yan et al.'s (2010) study on the purchase intentions of young consumers toward American apparel. The finding shows that the consumer motivation in young people was heavily linked to consumer perceptions of source credibility, but it failed to reject the possibility of status seeking in young people about their lifestyle traits, such as spending power. Another recent paper found that pride could motivate people to have an increased intention to buy ethical products in the future (Antonetti and Maklan, 2014). Small and Cryder (2016) showed that when philanthropists are given naming rights to buildings and parks, their donations tend to be larger. The reason is that the naming right enables the philanthropists to signal their generosity in public domains, such as newspapers or social media. The recent ice-bucket challenge is one symbolic example highlighting the possibility of altruism tangled with vanity in consumer behaviour concerning social responsibility (Rubenstein, 2016; van der Linden, 2017). That challenge started under the aegis of altruism to raise awareness of amyotrophic lateral sclerosis, but it soon became dominated by the nature of narcissism. Other similar campaigns in which altruism and vanity became entangled may include the Movember campaign and No Makeup campaign (Lyes et al., 2016). The Movember campaign started by asking men to take a selfie of their growing a moustache during the month of November, while the No Makeup campaign asked women to take a selfie wearing no make up for a period of time. In return, both campaigns would raise awareness of men's and women's health issues. Another study examined organic food consumption in a young population in India. It found that both altruism and egotism were shown to have a positive impact on the intention of organic

food consumption, but the larger effect came from egotism as younger participants preferred to evaluate their consumption through their own interest first (Yadav, 2016). In this study, the positive finding suggest that the participants have certainly increased their motivation towards the socially responsible reimbursement when compared to the control group.

Second, personal identity can also explain the positive effect of salient goal priming. Belk (2016) referred to this as the extended self, which means that people can experience a sense of ownership in their thinking, mind, body, and social circle. In this case, it's the online self-imagine that the participants intended to maintain. Consumers are more likely to commit a socially responsible act of consumption when a distinctive identity of themselves, such as music or hairstyles, gets highlighted (Berger and Heath, 2007). Such self-presentation is particularly salient in younger consumers, as older consumers tend to develop a resistance to change (Hwang, 2016). Dagher and Itani (2014) also found a significant relationship between green purchasing behaviour and concern for self-image in Lebanese consumers. Nguyen et al. (2017) found the positive relationship between environmental self-identity and green purchase behaviour among young consumers in Vietnam. In another example, van der Wal et al. (2016) showed that when consumers shopped at a high-status sustainable grocery, they were more likely to use the shop-branded bags than people shopped at a low-status sustainable grocery. In other words, the branded shopping bags were often used as an identity for people who could afford to shop at the high-status store. This is an extension of a previous finding that consumers of high-status sustainable grocery are more likely to utilise new bags than recycle those that had been used previously. It shows that individuals often exploit some of the features of sustainable consumption, such as bag consumption, to signal their status through conspicuous conservation. Another study looked at the relationship between identity and intentions towards green consumption (Costa Pinto et al., 2016). It found that the green consumption would vary on the salience of personal identity; the stronger the personal identity, the stronger the impact on green consumption appeared to be. In this study, the positive finding suggests that the need to maintain a good impression about oneself can translate motivation into the actual socially responsible behaviour.

The third study built on the previous findings as to goal and situational priming but enhanced the psychological effect of the situational priming. In a way, the salient goal priming can be seen as a stronger effect of the presence of others as the virtual presence of others is often more connected with the individuals. When the individuals turn to their social media platforms, the effect of the situational priming is initiated. By cultivating situational stimulus such as

public visibility, people are likely to conform to the socially responsible behaviour as they want to maintain a good impression. In the theoretical framework of understanding socially responsible consumption, salient goal priming is a good extension derived from goal and situational priming. Moreover, it's becoming a valuable extension and an experimental venue in the rise of social media use and a narcissistic attitude among the young population across generations. The third study has made a contribution by exploring such effects through the lens of self-promotion, as well as a new form of peer pressure in relation to socially responsible consumption. Millennials are said to feel motivated to post on social media sites to portray a positive image of themselves and socially responsible consumption enables them to build their online identity with a rather salient but less controversial signal than those engaging in conspicuous or vanity consumption.

8.5 Dark knights rise

Having discussed the result of situational priming in relation to socially responsible consumption, the fourth study was to determine how dark triad traits would interact with that type of priming. The common understanding is that those traits can be activated upon a specific situational priming, with the resultant force either motivating or constraining individuals to act on social responsibility. Across the three studies, there's no significant relationships were observed between goal priming and DPC1 or DPC2. No significant relationships were observed between DPC1 (narcissism and psychopath-dominated) and the two forms of situational priming. However, the findings of the second and third study showed a statistically significant relationship between DPC2 (Machiavellianism-dominated) and the two situational priming, i.e., group priming and salient goal priming. That meant that the higher the DPC2 score in group priming and salient goal priming, the greater the likelihood that the individuals would opt for the socially responsible rewards. This suggests that the Machiavellian trait seems to have a positive interaction with the two categories of situational priming. When the situation is enabling the interest of the individuals with a strong Machiavellian trait, they're more likely to act on socially responsible consumption.

The current finding is contradicted to the understanding that individuals with high scores on Machiavellianism tend to show little concern for common ethics and morality (Verbeke et al., 1996). Previous studies between Machiavellianism and socially responsible consumption have largely shown a similar effect. For example, individuals with high scores on Machiavellianism are reported to engage in more unethical clothing consumption activities than those who are

with a low score (Shen and Dickson, 2001). This lack of moral concern seems to be valid in various cultural contexts (Erffmeyer et al., 1999; Rawwas et al., 2005). Arli and Anandya (2017) examined the relationship between Machiavellianism and consumer ethics in Indonesia, finding a negative effect on consumer ethics as individuals with a high Machiavellianism trait tended to show more tolerance for unethical consumer behaviours and to prioritise costs and benefits for themselves. Winter et al. (2004) examined the relationship among Machiavellianism, violation of intellectual property and privacy. Their findings showed that individuals with a high score in Machiavellianism had a higher tolerance for the violation of intellectual property and privacy rights than others. Moreover, working in R&D would strengthen the effect of Machiavellianism on their attitudes towards the violation of intellectual property and privacy rights. Another study examined the relationships between Machiavellianism and attitudes towards the perceived importance of corporate ethics and social responsibility (Simmons and Snell, 2018). It found that people with high Machiavellian scores would evidence lower levels of corporate ethics and social responsibility, both of which are significantly associated with weaker pro-environment views. However, what makes Machiavellianism trait motivated towards socially responsible consumption is the relativism and pragmatism. Given that people with high score in Machiavellianism trait are more relativist than absolutist (Leary et al., 1986), they tend to take advantage of an opportunistic situation by conforming to socially irresponsible consumptions when the personal benefit outweighs the personal cost (Arli et al., 2015). Such personal interests could also be status-striving, making a good impression, relationship building. For those studies that had indicated that individuals with high scores on Machiavellianism are more likely to conceive less socially responsible intentions (Jones and Kavanagh, 1996; Bass et al., 1999; Winter et al., 2004), it is possibly due to the fact that they're using intentions or attitudes rather than actual behaviours as outcome measure, and more importantly, those screening environments were less "opportunistic" or "self-benefiting" in the eyes of individual scored high on Machiavellianism trait. Although it's impossible to draw a further correlation between Machiavellianism and socially responsible behaviours, as the traits were not equally assigned, it still offers a promising sign for future research focusing solely on the relationship between Machiavellians and socially responsible consumption.

The fourth study has made an attempt to examine individual variations across the goal and situational priming through the dark triad personality traits. It has made a contribution to a new form of socially responsible consumption linking prosocial behaviour with conspicuous consumption. The finding shows that the interplay between altruism and egoism in

prompting socially responsible consumption can be far more effective than expected. People are more likely to act on socially responsible consumption if it intersects with their self-interest or vanity needs. In the theoretical framework of understanding socially responsible consumption, the extension of personality traits can provide a good individual threshold on interacting, not only with the behaviour of socially responsible consumption, but also surveys of socially responsible consumption. The latter has often been hindered by social desirability and self-monitoring bias. The dark triad personality traits could serve as an effective lens through which to examine the existence of self-awareness and relativism when individuals feel motivated when completing a socially responsible consumption survey. Moreover, the rising interest in using a situational factor as the first-choice extension to the current theoretical framework of understanding socially responsible consumption should rekindle interest in personality and situation. The growing recognition in social psychology is that determining consumer behaviours is never about the advance of one perspective at the expense of the others; it is always about the interaction of internal factors and situational factors (Fleeson, 2004; Funder, 2009). The person-situation variability could be further studied in relation to the attitude-behaviour gap that has been noted in socially responsible consumption.

8.6 Good ethics fall

Contrary to the finding from previous studies, there was no statistically significant relationship between the measurements of consumer ethics and the socially responsible reimbursement. The measurement of those ethics might be a good proxy to predict socially responsible attitudes, but provides little predictive power as to actual behaviours, which, concern social responsibility in our case. The discrepancy is consistent with the existence of an attitude-behaviour gap in which consumers often fail to translate their intentions or attitudes about ethicality or social responsibility into the actual behaviours, even when they clearly express their commitment to socially responsible consumption (Devinney et al., 2012). The current finding is contradicted to the previous finding that values are considered as the primary motivation to socially responsible consumption. It's suggested that the ethical values influence beliefs and the beliefs translate into intentions and the intentions dictates the individual consumptions (Shaw et al., 2006; Soper, 2007; Balderjahn et al., 2013; do Paço et al., 2013). For example, one study found that consumers were more likely to pursue energy efficient household appliances if they had declared beliefs associated with altruism (Nguyen et al., 2017). Another study examined the relationship between ethical values and fair-trade non-

food products (Ma and Lee., 2012). It found that ethical values tend to have a positive effect on the attitude and intention to commit fair trade products. Another study examined the relationship between environmentally friendly products and green consumption values, which is the tendency to express the desire of environmental protection through the consumption and the preference for environmentally friendly products (Haws et al., 2014). The study found the green scale was highly correlated with the consumer preference for environmentally friendly products. While individual value can be seen as a common navigating system for people's socially responsible consumption, it's unlikely that everyone shares the same set of values and competing values can create gaps in socially responsible consumption. Moreover, value-based behavioural drivers seem to rely heavily on consumers' rational side but behavioural economics have consistently shown the dominance of their irrational side. In a way, the current finding shows that the measure of consumer values only conforms the value orientation of the individuals on the questionnaire, but not on their actual behaviour when under a situational constraint. One potential and under-investigated area in the value-based consumer literature is the common method bias. Many of the consumer studies concerning social responsibility failed to declare this in their methodology. From our literature review, less than 10% of the consumer studies concerning socially responsibility have utilised a check on common method bias. Many studies have opted for non-behavioural outcome measures, such as attitudes and intentions, which are often examined in conjunction with elements of consumer ethics. Therefore, the participants are highly likely to provide biased responses.

The analysis has shown a direct contrast to the previous understanding that ethical value orientation can predict the socially responsible consumption. The contribution lies in the encouragement of examining the effect of ethical value orientation against the actual behaviour, as most of previous studies have been conducted in relation to the intention, willingness or attitudes of socially responsible consumption. Such evidence might have been hindered by common method bias as they tend to use the same questionnaire to gauge the outcome measure. The experimental design can provide a good venue to re-test the efficacy of ethical value orientation on promoting socially responsible consumption across different situation. People experience many kinds of social influences everyday and whether ethical value orientation can face up to those hidden resistances remains to be tested in further contexts.

9 Management implication

For marketing or product managers, the key implication is whether it's worthwhile to treat socially responsible consumers differently from everyday consumers. In other words, should the marketing promotion for socially responsible consumers be different from everyday consumers? The current evidence suggests the answer is probably no. There's no doubt that some individuals will be tempted to act on socially responsible consumption out of consciousness or responsibility. However, most of the individuals still maintain a balance between self-interest and altruism in their everyday consumption. For most consumers, it's more about opportunistic situations or situational constraints rather than consciousness or responsibility. This is not an excuse or ignorance, but an acknowledgement of human nature that human behaviour is just not as consistent as we'd like it to be. The battle in consumers' minds could start with a single intention or multiple intentions to act on socially responsible consumption, but then the intention struggles with many forces, from alliances to resistance motivated by different social influences. The behavioural ending or the final act is just what remains after both the casualties and survivors of those influences. Government agencies, business vendors and charitable organisations should place more attention on cultivating situational factors to promote socially responsible consumption. One situational cultivation is to make the individuals aware of the physical presence or virtual presence or behaviour of others. When individuals learn about aspects of the individuals surrounding them, they're more likely to conform to the norm behaviour. For example, a hotel management worked with marketing researchers to examine a towel reuse program (Goldstein et al., 2008). The finding shows that hotel guests were 26% more likely to reuse their towels when they received a message stating that most of the previous guests had done so. This shows that simple, low-cost situational priming can motivate individuals to act on socially responsible behaviour. A socially responsible logo would also facilitate the socially responsible transaction if the consumer pathway remains indifferent or frictionless. But don't expect most of the consumers to conform simply because of some socially responsible logos. If the logo is involved with some degree of vanity, such as collaboration with highly reconsigned brands, there's a higher likelihood it will attract people to act on socially responsible consumption. Consumers deal with multiple goals each day shopping, dining, watching television and social responsibility is not just a goal within the goal hierarchy. But people often look for costly signals to tell their friends, colleagues and family about their trajectory to becoming a better human being. Socially responsible consumption is clearly a good means to achieve this end. It allows the individuals to feed

their inner ego as well as construct a healthy and altruistic version of themselves. The face of altruism or social responsibility might mask an inner vanity or narcissism, but if the goal post is the final act of socially responsible consumption, the marketing promotion should be focused on reinforcing the idea of socially responsible consumption by highlighting self-interest or status signalling. A selfie post on social media might be judged as being vanity-bragging, but if it gets more people involved or paying attention, just like the ice-bucket challenge, it might worth consideration and promotion. In some of recent marathons, fitness or yoga programmes, business vendors or organisers have shown a great interest in tapping into social media retweet/repost/like/hashtag and set up a "selfie station" to help the individuals to broadcast their socially responsible act. The dilemma of socially responsible consumption is not between ethicality and non-ethicality, but how to reinforce having learnt the feeble motivation and the substantial social resistance. If there's a responsibility to intervene, it's to tune up any situational effects and make social influence effective in promoting social responsibility.

One strong indicator for companies wanting to promote green products and services is to develop social amplifiers that will increase socially responsible consumption. One approach is to set up a sort of selfie station or QR code retweet function to capture the moment of socially responsible consumption with the individual's social media account. The rationale is that instead of thinking about the way in which socially responsible consumption should be promoted on social media, the companies should focus on how to help the consumers share their "social champion act" of socially responsible consumption. By championing the actions of consumers rather than the products themselves, companies can utilise consumers as their social amplifiers, helping them to broadcast their actions as an organisation that is socially responsible. Therefore, the key is to have a frictionless way to help the consumers share their "social champion act", making them more likely to repeat that action and encourage others to do the same (Quesenberry, 2018). This is part of the reason that social influencers are increasingly becoming the new champions of socially responsible consumption, because they are constantly looking for ways both they and the products can look good, casting themselves as "missionaries" for socially responsible consumption. Therefore, it is in the interest of the company to find a frictionless way to convert an offline "social champion act" into the online narratives of their consumers. It's not just sharing, but positive reinforcement. Another approach is to let individuals post personal narratives or short-form media (selfie/video) with hashtags of the brand name or the type of socially responsible consumption; the brand can respond on social media. While every personal narrative on social media is a signal

highlighting the mindfulness of the companies, each can focus on a priority different from the company's priority. By contributing to a "hashtag conversation" or "Tweet-torial", a company can facilitate the consensus and reduce the priority tension (Rodríguez-Vilá and Bharadwaj, 2017), even if some consumers might highlight a different priority compared to that of the company. The most important thing is to empower the individual's socially responsible consumption in their social world, capture what's occupying consumer attention and make it part of the next socially responsible product development.

10 Future research

One of the key extensions in goal priming is self-regulation or the feedback loop. By having a feedback loop on how individuals pursue their socially responsible goal, it's more likely to reveal the dynamics of the motivation and potential enablers/resistance in everyday interactions. The original intention of the study design was to use the daily submission of socially responsible tasks completed by the participants as an outcome measure. The platform was briefly tested with a small group of individuals as they went through a 2-week, self-reported pursuit of goals within socially responsible consumption. They were given a list of socially responsible behaviours and were free to undertake any of them. Each socially responsible task counted as one out of the total points. If they submitted a selfie of the entry, it would give them three points per entry. Some of the individuals were paired to complete the task while others went through the experience on their own. The pairing or grouping mechanism was tested by pairing with another participant or with a fictional participant that controlled by the experiment controller. The preliminary finding was promising; first, the participants in the pairing group with positive effort (both were contributing) outperformed individual participants in completing the socially responsible items. However, when one of the pairs failed to submit, there was a negative spill-over effect on the other person in the group, with the individual submission significantly dropping off. Also people with a high score in narcissism and psychopathy tended to resist the negative spill-over effect from the pairing. They would express their frustration to their partners if others started tailing off but they would sustain their own submission. Second, participants with a high score in Machiavellianism and the narcissistic trait showed a greater tendency to make more selfie submissions as they helped in garnering higher scores in total. In addition, they tended to evidence a more long-lasting effort in the goal pursuit compared to others. The current challenge is to develop a better mechanism to cope with a large-scale number of interaction and tracking through a mobile platform. One potential solution is to hire one or two research assistants to manage the daily tracking or interaction.

One of the challenges in participant recruitment is the inability to recruit an equal number of people having different dark triad personality traits into each experimental group. It would require a longer period of time to find a sufficient number of people with certain types of dark triad personality traits, such as psychopathy. That being the case, it's challenging to estimate the direct effect of each dark personality trait from the experimental groups. It may be possible

to use a BBC dark personality quiz dataset to directly recruit potential participants. The BBC dark personality quiz used the same measure as SD3 to screen individuals who were interested in knowing their dark triad personality trait. This means that the quiz has indirectly classified a large cohort of individuals based on their dark triad personality traits. The quiz was open to anyone on social media (this is confirmed on Facebook and Twitter) and the dark triad profiling was linked to individuals' social media accounts. This means that precise participant recruitment is possible. The advantage of using such participant recruitment is that when the participant agrees to participate, the social media data of individuals can be used to establish their social attitude baseline and contribute further to the dark triad profiling. Moreover, a validation screening can be introduced without additional mental loading or common method bias. SD3 is a clustered approach taken by screening three personality traits together with minimal surveying items. However, a validation screening can be focused on testing the individual trait, such as narcissism or the Machiavellian trait. This can inform the accuracy of SD3, compared to a more robust personality trait screening. The study is in the planning stage and a computational method is being developed to set up a more efficiency data pulling.

One promising development beyond the person-situation discussion is a density-distribution approach to personality (Fleeson, 2001). When a behaviour is examined on a moment-to-moment basis, situational factors tend to dominate and most behaviours tend to be highly inconsistent (Diener, 1996). However, when typical behaviour is examined over time, personality traits prove to be more influential on and consistent with the behaviour (Fleeson, 2004). In a way, traits can be seen as a frequency distribution formed by multiple behavioural incidents; the mean of the distribution reflects a person's underlying trait. The advantage of the density-distribution approach is that traits are no longer a single-aspect or time-episode measurement, but an entire density distribution. The high degree of variability across individual state and situation would then be captured through the distribution (Bleidorn, 2015). However, the disadvantage is that it requires extensive data collection over a long period of time, which is potentially costly. Nevertheless, there are a number of studies citing the promising direction of the use of density-distribution towards person-situation deviation. For instance, introverted individuals could still behave in an extroverted manner when they are under the influence of a strong positive mood moment. Also, people primed by goal setting could respond to the situational cues by acting differently from their recognised personality state (Fleeson, 2007). In a theoretical framework encouraging low-deterministic nature, personality traits provide a useful construct with which to capture the intra-individual variability across

different situational demands. The trait measure might not initiate via a density-distribution approach; rather, the proposed theoretical framework is based on goals, situational attribution and personality traits. This means that a longer time span of screening is needed. With the 2-week tracking platform and social media baseline development, it's possible to develop an integrated study design to test the density-distribution approach with socially responsible consumption.

Experimentation remains significantly underutilised in socially responsible consumption research, especially when looking at the effect of motivation malleability on socially responsible consumption. With the rise of big data and mobile devices, experimentation can be easily implemented through social media apps or branded mobile apps. Many consumer researchers are already using social media data to enrich their understanding of socially responsible consumers; however, only those researchers have used social media platforms as experimental venues to gain further conversations and tease out the underlying behavioural drivers through randomised control trial. Such experimental methods include chat bot research, app notification priming and in-app experimentation. Experiments can also be done that not only examine the interaction between socially responsible goods and consumer segments but can also uncover hidden consumer insights through the behavioural lens, especially in connection with their loyalty card or transaction. Socially responsible consumption is not a zero-sum game, but the devil remains in the vague consensus driven by the consumer surveys. It's extremely risky to bet on a survey finding if the consumers don't often practise what they preach. In addition, mobile experimentation can be done remotely, allowing researchers to reduce self-reporting bias as the participants can remain in a real consumer environment rather than a university setting. Experimentation is an excellent means of providing further validation for researchers as well as policy makers on what really drives individuals towards socially responsible consumption.

11 Limitations

There are a few limitations in the studies. First, outcome measure design: there are three categories of behavioural outcome but the majority of the participants opt for either the first or third category. This created an imbalance class problem and indicated a need to rethink the measure design in the future. Second, the interpretation of the dark triad and consumer ethics: the latent transformation of the original measurements of the dark triad and consumer ethics make interpretation at the individual level very difficult. At the beginning of the analysis, the correlation matrix found a sign of multicollinearity across the measurements of the dark triad traits and consumer ethics, which made the latent transformation necessary to advancing further analysis. The studies opt for two types of variable transformation including principal component analysis (PCA) and z-score. While these methods have been widely used in the studies concerning dimensions reduction and multicollinearity, there might be a better method to transform the measurements. Some potential clustering approaches include Bayesian principal component analysis (BPCA) and t-Distributed Stochastic Neighbor Embedding (t-SNE). Both of the approaches are increasingly gaining recognition in dealing with dimensions reduction. Alternatively, a decision tree can be an effective modelling approach to overcoming multicollinearity and providing statistical analysis. However, one of the original research focuses was the interaction between individual traits and situational priming. The decision tree approach would involve some new challenges as it would be difficult to analyse interactions. Third, the alternative measure to dark triad and consumer ethics: in future, the existence of multicollinearity might encourage researchers to explore an alternative scale or re-validate the SD3 scale and Consumer Ethics scale. One idea gaining popularity involves the whole trait theory, i.e., considering the full spectrum of the traits over a period of time. By tracking multiple incidents and repeated trait surveys, a distribution density can be established for the traits. This shall reveal a more stable trait of the individuals due to its basis on a series of events rather than one time point. However, the whole trait approach demands a deeper and wider data collection over a longer period of time, which was not feasible in the current study setting.

12 Conclusion

The motivation behind the rise in socially responsible consumers is often believed to be growing concerns regarding ethicality or social responsibility. However, the long-established evidence of an attitude-behaviour gap indicate otherwise: consumers often fail to translate their intentions or attitudes about ethicality or social responsibility into their actual behaviours, even when they clearly express their commitment to socially responsible consumption. If behaviours are finally aligning with socially responsible intentions or attitudes, what could be the behavioural driver in making them do so? Our study argues that the rise in socially responsible consumers is often the resultant force of more than one behavioural driver, and more importantly, the idea of socially responsible consumers has not yet been fully tested. At the sociological level, the question behind the rise of socially responsible consumption is associated with the loss of faith in capitalism as an effective social and economic system. People are encouraged to use their new granted consumer power to make social justice. In the philosophical level, the idea of socially responsible consumption faces a great deal of scrutiny. Consumption for variety is a choice to explore. If there's no freedom, there is never the choice between good and evil and nobody knows the what-if. A preponderance of non-experimental studies in the literature has endorsed the Carl Jung's argument on a moral good without freedom as being just like the thief in jail. The tyranny doesn't simply lie in moral absolutism, but also in the fear of moral nihilism growing in the modern consumer behaviour. Human nature, after all, is proven to be malleable and most people are just as often relativists. Yet moral relativism is perhaps the solution that society needs to effectively approach socially responsible consumption. Rather than taking up the cause of morality with whatever principles apply, the solution is to examine every circumstance and decide what principles should be stuffed into that morality bag. This would mean embracing the differences in moral principles across the variety of consumption and recognising the need of being open to different views, values, positions, and prospectives. This goes back to the ambiguity remains as to whether behavioural drivers other than ethicality or socially responsibility can motivate consumers to engage in socially responsible consumption. Should we still refer to individuals not motivated by ethical or socially responsible consciousness as socially responsible consumers, given the behavioural outcome is consistent with what the social justice demands? The classification of socially responsible consumers remains in the eye of the beholder. A high threshold of classification means that individuals are expected to achieve more than just one aspect of social responsibility to earn the title of socially responsible consumers, and people who only con-

sider one or two sides should be disqualified from being considered as such. A low threshold of classification introduces a high incentive in motivating individuals to become socially responsible consumers, but it also artificially converts virtually any consumer into something they already are. In other words, everyday consumers are fully capable of engaging in the same behaviours as socially responsible consumers, but without the glamorous title. A concept or classification is truly meaningful when it serves the uniqueness; in the case of socially responsible consumer, that's hardly the case. If the end doesn't justify the means, the alternative is perhaps to use the means to justify the end – determining the primary motivation to engage in socially responsible behaviours. Our theoretical framework has been given a solid theoretical grounding as well as experimental constructs to validate the hypothesis. It is centred on goal pursuit, situational factors and personality traits. In consumer behaviour research, those three constructs have been well-established as separate elements. The extension of the situational factors is consistent with current theoretical developments in relation to socially responsible consumption, in which social context tends have the strongest effect. The key difference is that the new theoretical framework promotes an easier and measurable primary behavioural construct, i.e., goal. Goals not only make the primary behavioural drivers more countable and controllable in an experimental study, but also make the finding more adaptable and reproducible with future studies. The extension of personality traits is relatively less frequently mentioned in the literature on socially responsible consumption, especially the traits connecting to pride, egoism, contextual-awareness and bypassing attitude. The dark triad traits serve as a good measure with which to capture the individual likelihood of interacting with socially responsible consumption as well as the social context compared to personal-felt control. Our empirical study has continued the theoretical framework in that it is aimed at determining how, in terms of ethicality or social responsibility, that pursuit would fare across a variety of situational primings. The finding has again rejected the idea that consumer ethics or consciousness could effectively motivate consumers to act on social responsibility, as both simple goal priming on social responsibility or consumer ethics measures have failed to align the individuals to the socially responsible consumption. However, the study has shown that individuals are more likely to succeed if they feel they're experiencing the attention or scrutiny of others. In our case, these environments were the presence of others and the perception that the individuals were expected to unveil their goal pursuit on social media. There's a strong possibility that the Machiavellian trait contributed to the behavioural alignment seen under conditions of situational priming, as people with a high score on that trait tend to take ad-

vantage of opportunistic situations by conforming to socially responsible consumptions when it suits their interest. The final verdict is that the increase in consumers buying into social responsibility is more likely driven by the interaction of situational priming and personal traits and, in fact, ethicality or socially responsibility have little influence on behavioural alignment. That being the case, it is very unlikely we can refer to the consumers who are motivated by behavioural drivers other than ethicality or socially responsibility as truly being socially responsible. This suggests that future consumer research concerning social responsibility should examine the idea of a complex system in which an interconnection across agents, traits and situations could play a more significant role in driving and explaining socially responsible behaviours. Taking the finding into managerial implication, our methodological framework can certainly be extended into applied research on socially responsible consumption in luxury goods. Conspicuous consumption are often rooted in both personal signalling and situational priming, such as a personal tailoring service and/or high-end shopping experience. However, the area in which conspicuous consumption often fails is to win their consumers over through social responsibility. Our methodological framework shows that luxury goods brands can start employing social amplifying mechanisms by using social media hashtag narratives to showcase their consumers' acting on socially responsible purchases. The new signal of social responsibility will play particularly well if the consumer base is strongly motivated by how they look good in their social spectrum, which seems to make it a perfect fit for the future research with the industry.

13 Appendix

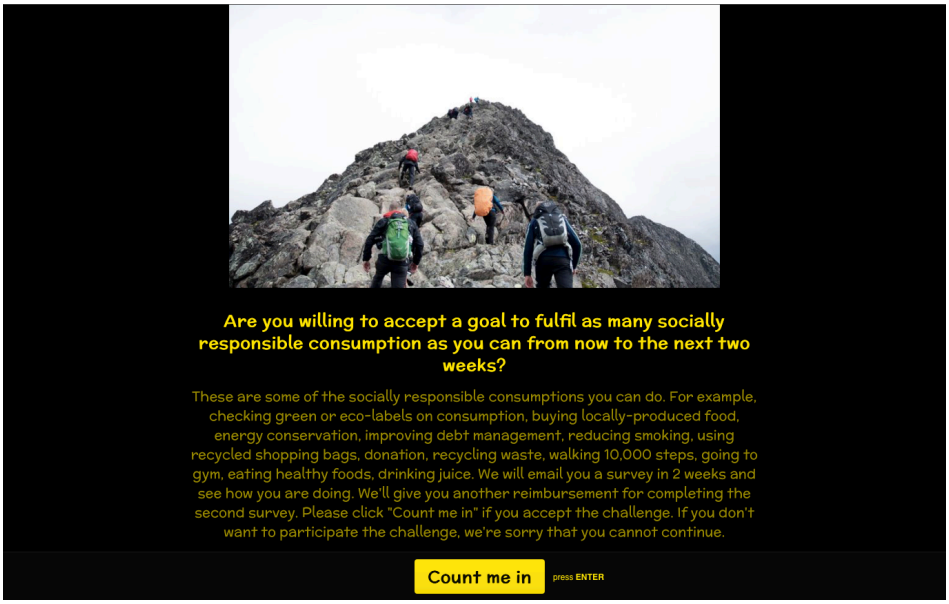
Experiment setting (further breakdown)

All the participants were recruited from university campuses and the public venues nearby. The experiment controller approached the individuals in person and asked if they're willing to participate a social lifestyle survey and there's a £4 worth reimbursement for completing the survey at the end. If they agreed to participate, they could complete the survey through either their own mobile device or a given iPad device. Some of the participants were recruited from the business school emailing system. The participants would then complete the experiment remotely but collected the reimbursement in person. The recruitment process has assigned the participants into two classifications. The first classification is "group recruitment". When approaching potential participants, some individuals already formed as a group - they're sitting together. These participants were only allowed to receive the "group priming" - presence of others. The second classification is "individual recruitment". This means that all the participants were recruited individually. A small portion of the individuals were further grouped together and assigned to the "group priming". All remaining participants have been assigned to the remaining groups: the control group, goal priming group and selfie priming group. The experiment also adopted a snowball recruitment process (a referral-based sampling); that meant that the experiment controller asked the participants to refer their friends to the study, with each referral netting them a small cash reimbursement. However, the reimbursement was only given if their nominated individuals chose to participate. This scheme was only offered after the participants have already collected their own reimbursement. Any referred individuals must collect their reimbursement in person as they're required to sign off the consent form. In the structure of socially responsible goal, the participants were asked if they were interested in taking up a challenge to fulfil as many socially responsible consumption as they can and, in two weeks, retake the survey to gauge their progress. If they rejected the goal setting, they would be invited to leave the experiment and receive no reimbursement. These are the socially responsible consumptions they can consider: buying green or eco-labelled products, buying locally-produced food, energy conservation, improving debt management, reducing smoking, using recycled shopping bags, recycling waste, donation, walking 10,000 steps, going to gym, eating healthy foods, drinking juice. The list of items were only to serve as guidance and the participants were informed that they're free to choose any of them to commit. However, the second survey was never

taken as it only served as goal priming for the participants. Once the participants completed the questionnaire, they were invited to choose their reimbursement. All the participants were given with three reimbursement options for completing the survey. The first option was £4 worth items with £1 donation to Children in Need; the second option was £4 worth items with £1 cash take-away; the third option was £3.5 cash. The choices of £4 worth items were including T-shirt with print logo "Ethical Consumers", six chocolate bars with a sticker "social responsibility" and two bottle of juice with a sticker "social responsibility". All the participants have been further briefed about the experiment and signed consent forms after the experiment.

Goal priming instruction (On screen before the main survey)

- Are you willing to accept a goal to fulfil as many socially responsible consumption as you can from now to the next 2 weeks? These are some of the socially responsible consumptions you can consider to do: buying green or eco-labelled products, buying locally-produced food, energy conservation, improving debt management, reducing smoking, using recycled shopping bags, recycling waste, donation, walking 10,000 steps, going to gym, eating healthy foods, drinking juice.
- We shall email you a survey in 2 weeks and see how you are doing. We'll give you another reimbursement for completing the second survey. Please click "Count me in" if you accept the challenge. If you don't want to participate the challenge, we're sorry that you cannot continue any further.



Experimental items

Time line: Group 1 - Control group

- 00:00:00 - 00:05:00 - Pitching individuals to participate
  - Asking if they're willing to participate a social lifestyle survey and there's a £4 worth reimbursement for the completion of the survey at the end.
  - If yes, they would be invited to take on the second stage.
  - If no, they would not be continuing any further.
- 00:05:00 - 00:35:00 - Screening
  - Starting the questionnaire on either their own mobile device or a given iPad
  - Some might start remotely.
  - Finishing the questionnaire
- 00:35:00 - 00:40:00 - Offering reimbursements
  - 1 - £4 worth items with £1 donation to Children in Need.
  - 2 - £4 worth items with £1 cash take-away.
  - 3 - £3.5 cash.
- 00:40:00 - 00:50:00 - Giving further explanation and consent
  - Explaining the whole rationale of experiment.
  - Getting the consent from the participants.
  - Offering the referral scheme but insisting that they would only receive the referral reimbursement when the nominated individuals chose to participate.

Time line - Group 2 - Goal priming

- 00:00:00 - 00:05:00 - Pitching individuals to participate
  - Asking if they're willing to participate a social lifestyle survey and there's a £4 reimbursement for the completion of the survey at the end.
  - If yes, they would be invited to take on the second stage.
  - If no, they would not be continued further.
- 00:05:00 - Priming a socially responsible goal

  - Title: “Fulfil as many socially responsible consumption as you can”
  - Timespan: From now to the next 2 weeks
  - Substances: buying green or eco-labelled products, buying locally-produced food, energy conservation, improving debt management, reducing smoking, using recycled shopping bags, recycling waste, donation, walking 10,000 steps, going to gym, eating healthy foods, drinking juice.

  - Rejection: If the participant failed to accept the goal, they would not be invited to finish the questionnaire or collect the reimbursement.

- 00:10:00 - 00:40:00 - Screening
  - Starting the questionnaire on either their own mobile device or a given iPad

  - Some might start remotely.
  - Finishing the questionnaire
- 00:40:00 - 00:50:00 - Offering reimbursements
  - 1 - £4 worth items with £1 donation to Children in Need.
  - 2 - £4 worth items with £1 cash take-away.
  - 3 - £3.5 cash.
- 00:50:00 - 00:60:00 - Giving further explanation and consent
  - Explaining the whole rationale of experiment.
  - Getting the consent from the participants.
  - Offering the referral scheme but insisting that they would only receive the referral reimbursement when the nominated individuals chose to participate.

Time line - Group 3 - Group priming

- 00:00:00 - 00:05:00 - Pitching individuals (or a group of individuals) to participate
  - Asking if they’re willing to participate a social lifestyle survey and there’s a reimbursement for the completion of the survey at the end.
  - If yes, they would be invited to take on the second stage.

  - If no, they would not be continued further.

- 00:05:00 - Priming a goal as a socially responsible goal
  - Title: "Fulfil as many socially responsible consumption as you can"
  - Timespan: From the start of the survey to the next 2 weeks
  - Substances: buying green or eco-labelled products, buying locally-produced food, energy conservation, improving debt management, reducing smoking, using recycled shopping bags, recycling waste, donation, walking 10,000 steps, going to gym, eating healthy foods, drinking juice.
  - Rejection: If the participant failed to accept the goal, they would not be invited to finish the questionnaire and collect the reimbursement.

- 00:10:00 - 00:40:00 - Screening
  - Starting the questionnaire on either their own mobile device or a given iPad
  - Finishing the questionnaire

- 00:40:00 - 00:50:00 - Offering reimbursements in the group
  - 1 - £4 worth items with £1 donation to Children in Need.
  - 2 - £4 worth items with £1 cash take-away.
  - 3 - £3.5 cash.
  - Giving 5 minutes to reflect on what they should get the reimbursement

- 00:50:00 - 00:60:00 - Giving further explanation and consent
  - Explaining the whole rationale of experiment.
  - Getting the consent from the participants.
  - Offering the referral scheme but insisting that they would only receive the referral reimbursement when the nominated individuals chose to participate.

Time line - Group 4 - Selfie priming

- 00:00:00 - 00:05:00 - Pitching individuals to participate
  - Asking if they're willing to participate a social lifestyle survey and there's a reimbursement for the completion of the survey at the end.

  - If yes, they would be invited to take on the second stage.
  - If no, they would not be continued further.

- 00:05:00 - Priming a goal as a socially responsible goal
  - Title: "Fulfil as many socially responsible consumption as you can"
  - Timespan: From the start of the survey to the next 2 weeks
  - Substances: buying green or eco-labelled products, buying locally-produced food, energy conservation, improving debt management, reducing smoking, using recycled shopping bags, recycling waste, donation, walking 10,000 steps, going to gym, eating healthy foods, drinking juice.

  - Rejection: If the participant failed to accept the goal, they would not be invited to finish the questionnaire and collect the reimbursement.

- 00:05:00 - 00:10:00 - Priming a goal as a socially responsible goal
  - The participants were told to take a selfie photo of themselves with their reimbursement at the end of the experiment. The selfie was expected to be posted on all social media platforms with which they were familiar, such as Facebook, Instagram, Twitter and Weibo.
  - Rejection: If the participant failed to accept the condition, they would not be invited to finish the questionnaire and collect the reimbursement.

- 00:10:00 - 00:40:00 - Screening
  - Starting the questionnaire on either their own mobile device or a given iPad

  - Finishing the questionnaire

- 00:40:00 - 00:50:00 - Offering reimbursements
  - 1 - £4 worth items with £1 donation to Children in Need.
  - 2 - £4 worth items with £1 cash take-away.
  - 3 - £3.5 cash.
  - Once the participants picked the reimbursement, they would be told that there's no need to take selfie.

- 00:50:00 - 00:60:00 - Giving further explanation and consent

  - Explaining the whole rationale of experiment.
  - Getting the consent from the participants.
  - Offering the referral scheme but insisting that they would only receive the referral reimbursement when the nominated individuals chose to participate.

Scale methodology

Short Dark Triad (SD3) is a 27-item questionnaire to assess the Dark Triad personalty traits. The scale is Likert-styled with anchors 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). There are 5 items with reversal score - reversing the scoring on the reversals items. There are 3 subscales and each subscale is calculated by the mean of the item scores. Consumer Ethics Scale has the same Likert-scale as SD3. It takes the mean score of the questionnaire items for each dimension and there are 7 dimensions.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree

Social Lifestyle Survey (with example of responses)

Part 1 - General Questionnaire

- What is your first name?
  - Yuching
- What is your last name?
  - Cheng
- What is your email address?
  - ********@leeds.ac.uk
- How do you describe your gender? (Female, Male, others)
  - Female
- What's your education qualification? (PhD, Master, Undergraduate, none)
  - Master

- What is your age group? (17 or younger, 18 to 24, 25 to 34, 35 to 44, 45 to 54, 55 to 64)
  - 18 to 24
- In which country were you born?
  - Taiwan
- Which language do you use when you speak to your parents?
  - Chinese
- Which social media do you use most? (Facebook, WhatsApp, WeChat, Instagram, Line, Twitter, SnapChat, Others)
  - Facebook
- How many people, including yourself, live in your current accommodation? (0 - 10)
  - 6

Part 2 - Random (dummy) questions (with answers)

- Which form of transport do you travel to your study/work? (Walk, bicycle, train, car, bus, ship, plane)
  - Walk
- How long does it take if you walk from your accommodation to your study/work? (0 - 15 mins, 15 - 30 mins, 30 - 60 mins, more than 1hrs)
  - 15 - 30 mins
- Please describe one junk food you like particularly.
  - Pizza
- Please describe one fruit and vegetable you dislike particularly.
  - Green peppers
- How likely do you recycle your smartphone? (1 Extremely unlikely, 2 Unlikely, 3 Neither likely nor unlikely, 4 Likely, 5 Extremely likely)

  - 3 Neither likely nor unlikely

- How likely do you buy a prefect pair of sport shoes made by children? (1 Extremely unlikely, 2 Unlikely, 3 Neither likely nor unlikely, 4 Likely, 5 Extremely likely)
  - 3 Neither likely nor unlikely
- How likely would you make a donation to the university you had studied? (1 Extremely unlikely, 2 Unlikely, 3 Neither likely nor unlikely, 4 Likely, 5 Extremely likely)
  - 3 Neither likely nor unlikely
- How much do you think you would donate every year? (£0, £5, £10, £50, £100)
  - £5
- How likely would you buy our T-shirt to support Children in Need? (1 Extremely unlikely, 2 Unlikely, 3 Neither likely nor unlikely, 4 Likely, 5 Extremely likely)
  - 3 Neither likely nor unlikely
- How much do you think you would pay for the T-shirt? (£5, £10, £15, £20, £25, No thanks)
  - £5
- Which country do you want to go for your summer holiday?
  - Austria
- Which dessert do you like most?
  - Cupcake

Part 3 - Random (dummy) questions - (1 Strongly disagree, 2 disagree, 3 Neither agree or disagree, 4 Agree, 5 Strongly agree)

- I think that there's a gender inequality at work or study place.
  - 3 Neither agree or disagree
- When choosing a place to live, I'd rather live very closed to my work or study place.
  - 4 Agree

- I want to buy a new mobile phone.
  - 2 disagree
- I'd like to work in the same city after graduating.
  - 3 Neither agree or disagree

- My parents are in contact with me every day.
  - 3 Neither agree or disagree
- Brexit (Britain leaving the EU) is bad for me.
  - 3 Neither agree or disagree
- Public strike is good for me.
  - 3 Neither agree or disagree

Part 4 - Consumer Ethics Survey (1 Strongly disagree, 2 disagree, 3 Neither agree or disagree, 4 Agree, 5 Strongly agree)

- Returning damaged merchandise when the damage is your fault.
  - 3
- Giving misleading price information to a clerk for an unpriced item.
  - 3
- Using a long distance access code that does not belong to you.
  - 3
- Drinking a can of soda in a store without paying it.
  - 1
- Reporting a lost item as stolen to an insurance company in order to collect the money.
  - 2
- Lying about a child's age in order to get a lower price.
  - 3

- Not saying anything when the waitress miscalculates the bill in your favour.

  – 4

- Observing someone shoplifting and ignoring it.

  – 3

- Getting to much change and not saying anything.

  – 3

- Using an expired coupon for merchandise.

  – 3

- Returning merchandise to a store by claiming it was a gift when it was not.

  – 3

- Using a coupon for merchandise you did not buy.

  – 3

- Not telling the truth when negotiating the price of a new automobile.

  – 4

- Stretching the truth on an income tax return.

  – 3

- Installing software on your computer without buying it.

  – 3

- Burning a CD instead of buying it.

  – 2

- Using computer software or games that you did not buy.

  – 2

- Spending over an hour trying on different dresses and not purchasing any.

  – 1

- Downloading music from the internet instead of buying it.

– 2

- Buying counterfeit goods instead of buying the original manufacturers brands.

  – 3

- Buying products labeled as “environmentally friendly” even if they don’t work as well as competing.

  – 4

- Purchasing something made of recycled materials even though it is more expensive.

  – 4

- Buying only from companies that have a strong record of protecting the environment.

  – 4

- Recycling materials such as cans, bottles, newspapers etc.

  – 5

- Returning to the store and paying for an item that the cashier mistakenly did not charge you for.

  – 3

- Correcting a bill that has been miscalculated in your favour.

  – 5

- Giving a larger than expected tip to a waiter or waitress.

  – 2

- Not purchasing products from companies that you believe don’t treat their employees fairly.

  – 4

Part 5 - Short Dark Triad (SD3) Survey (1 Strongly disagree, 2 disagree, 3 Neither agree or disagree, 4 Agree, 5 Strongly agree)

- It’s not wise to tell your secrets.

  - 2

- People see me as a natural leader.

  - 4

- I like to get revenge on authorities.

  - 4

- I like to use clever manipulation to get my way.

  - 5

- I hate being the center of attention.

  - 3

- I avoid dangerous situations.

  - 4

- Whatever it takes, you must get the important people on your side.

  - 4

- Many group activities tend to be dull without me.

  - 3

- Payback needs to be quick and nasty.

  - 3

- Avoid direct conflict with others because they may be useful in the future.

  - 3

- I know that I am special because everyone keeps telling me so.

  - 3

- People often say I'm out of control.

  - 3

- It's wise to keep track of information that you can use against people later.

  - 3

- I like to get acquainted with important people.
  - 3
- It's true that I can be mean to others.
  - 4
- You should wait for the right time to get back at people.
  - 3
- I feel embarrassed if someone compliments me.
  - 4
- People who mess with me always regret it.
  - 4
- There are things you should hide from other people because they don't need to know.
  - 3
- I have been compared to famous people.
  - 2
- I have never gotten into trouble with the law.
  - 5
- Make sure your plans benefit you, not others.
  - 5
- I am an average person.
  - 4
- I enjoy having sex with people I hardly know
  - 3
- Most people can be manipulated.
  - 3
- I insist on getting the respect I deserve.

  - 3

- I'll say anything to get what I want.
  - 4

Part 6 - Experimental group allocation and reimbursement choice

- Priming group
  - Salient goal priming (selfie group)
- Reimbursement choice
  - 1 - Ethical consumption (donation)

14 Bibliography

- Aarts, Henk, AP Dijksterhuis, and Cees Midden (1999), 'To plan or not to plan? Goal achievement or interrupting the performance of mundane behaviors', European Journal of Social Psychology, 29 (8), 971-79.
- Aarts, Henk, Peter M Gollwitzer, and Ran R Hassin (2004), 'Goal contagion: perceiving is for pursuing.', Journal of personality and social psychology, 87 (1), 23.
- Aarts, Henk and Ruud Custers (2012), 'Unconscious goal pursuit: Nonconscious goal regulation and motivation', The Oxford handbook of human motivation, 232-47.
- Achabou, M.A., Dekhili, S. and Hamdoun, M., 2017, May. "I Would Like a European Eco-Product!": A Study on the Preference of Algerian and Tunisian Consumers for Local Ecological Products. In Academy of Marketing Science Annual Conference (pp. 539-553). Springer, Cham.
- Achar, C., So, J., Agrawal, N. and Duhachek, A., 2016. What we feel and why we buy: the influence of emotions on consumer decision-making. Current Opinion in Psychology, 10, pp.166-170.
- Adnan, N., Nordin, S.M., Rahman, I., Vasant, P.M. and Noor, A., 2017. A comprehensive review on theoretical framework-based electric vehicle consumer adoption research. International Journal of Energy Research, 41(3), pp.317-335.

- Agostinho, Denise and Arminda Paço (2012), 'Analysis of the motivations, generativity and demographics of the food bank volunteer', International Journal of Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Marketing, 17 (3), 249-61.
- Agrawal, N and D Maheswaran (2005), 'Motivated reasoning in outcome-bias effects', Journal of Consumer Research,
- Ajzen, Icek (1991), 'The theory of planned behavior', Organizational behavior and human decision processes, 50 (2), 179-211.
- Ajzen, Icek (1998), 'Models of human social behavior and their application to health psychology', Psychology & Health, 13 (4), 735-39.
- Ajzen, Icek (2002), 'Perceived behavioral control, self-efficacy, locus of control, and the theory of planned behavior 1', Journal of applied social psychology, 32 (4), 665-83.
- Ajzen, Icek (2011), 'The theory of planned behaviour: reactions and reflections',
- Aiello, J.R. and Douthitt, E.A., 2001. Social facilitation from Triplett to electronic performance monitoring. Group Dynamics: Theory, Research, and Practice, 5(3), p.163.
- Albinsson, Pia A, B Yasanthi Perera, and G David Shows (2017), 'Pursuing fitness: how dialectic goal striving and intersubjectivity influence consumer outcomes', Consumption Markets & Culture, 20 (1), 35-58.
- Allport, F.H., 1920. The influence of the group upon association and thought. Journal of experimental psychology, 3(3), p.159.
- Anagnostou, Angela, Paul T.M. Ingenbleek, and Hans C.M. van Trijp (2015), 'Sustainability labelling as a challenge to legitimacy: spillover effects of organic Fairtrade coffee on consumer perceptions of mainstream products and retailers', Journal of Consumer Marketing, 32 (6), 422-31.
- Anderson, C. and Cowan, J., 2014. Personality and status attainment: A micropolitics perspective. In The psychology of social status (pp. 99-117). Springer, New York, NY.
- Andorfer, Veronika A. and Ulf Liebe (2012), 'Research on Fair Trade Consumption—A Review', Journal of Business Ethics, 106 (4), 415-35.
- Antonetti, Paolo and Stan Maklan (2013), 'Moral emotions and self-regulation: An investigation in the case of ethical consumption', ACR European Advances,
- Antonetti, P. and Maklan, S., 2014. Feelings that make a difference: How guilt and pride convince consumers of the effectiveness of sustainable consumption choices. Journal of Business Ethics, 124(1), pp.117-134.
- Antonetti, P. and Maklan, S., 2014. Exploring postconsumption guilt and pride in the

context of sustainability. Psychology & Marketing, 31(9), pp.717-735.

- Appel, Helmut, Alexander L Gerlach, and Jan Crusius (2016), 'The interplay between Facebook use, social comparison, envy, and depression', Current Opinion in Psychology, 9 44-49.
- Argo, J.J., Dahl, D.W. and Manchanda, R.V., 2005. The influence of a mere social presence in a retail context. Journal of consumer research, 32(2), pp.207-212.
- Ariely, Dan, Anat Bracha, and Stephan Meier (2009), 'Doing Good or Doing Well? Image Motivation and Monetary Incentives in Behaving Prosocially', American Economic Review, 99 (1), 544-55.
- Ariely, Dan and Michael I. Norton (2009), 'Conceptual Consumption', Annual Review of Psychology, 60 (1), 475-99.
- Arli, D. and Anandya, D., 2018. Exploring the impact of empathy, compassion, and Machiavellianism on consumer ethics in an emerging market. Asian Journal of Business Ethics, 7(1), pp.1-19.
- Arli, Denni, Fandy Tjiptono, and Warat Winit (2015), 'Consumer ethics among young consumers in developing countries: a cross national study', Social Responsibility Journal, 11 (3), 449-66.
- Armitage, Christopher J and Mark Conner (2001), 'Efficacy of the theory of planned behaviour: A meta-analytic review', British journal of social psychology, 40 (4), 471-99.
- Armstrong, C.M.J., Connell, K.Y.H., Lang, C., Ruppert-Stroescu, M. and LeHew, M.L., 2016. Educating for sustainable fashion: Using clothing acquisition abstinence to explore sustainable consumption and life beyond growth. Journal of consumer policy, 39(4), pp.417-439.
- Arnett, J.J., 2013. The evidence for generation we and against generation me. Emerging adulthood, 1(1), pp.5-10.
- Arnould, Eric J. and Craig J. Thompson (2015), 'Introduction: Consumer Culture Theory: Ten Years Gone (and Beyond)', Research in Consumer Behavior: Consumer Culture Theory (Emerald Group Publishing Limited), 1-21.
- Arvola, A., Vassallo, M., Dean, M., Lampila, P., Saba, A., Lähteenmäki, L. and Shepherd, R., 2008. Predicting intentions to purchase organic food: The role of affective and moral attitudes in the Theory of Planned Behaviour. Appetite, 50(2-3), pp.443-454.
- Aschemann-Witzel, Jessica and Emilie Marie Niebuhr Aagaard (2014), 'Elaborating on the attitude-behaviour gap regarding organic products: young Danish consumers and

in-store food choice', International Journal of Consumer Studies, 38 (5), 550-58.

- Atif, Muhammad, Ahmed Anis Charfi, and Eric Lombardot (2013), 'Why do some consumers consume ethically? A contingency framework for understanding ethical decision making', Journal of Marketing Research & Case Studies, 2013 1.
- Atkinson, Lucy and Sonny Rosenthal (2014), 'Signaling the green sell: the influence of eco-label source, argument specificity, and product involvement on consumer trust', Journal of Advertising, 43 (1), 33-45.
- Atkinson, L., 2015. Green Consumption. The Wiley Blackwell Encyclopedia of Consumption and Consumer Studies, pp.1-6.
- Auger, Pat and Timothy M Devinney (2007), 'Do what consumers say matter? The misalignment of preferences with unconstrained ethical intentions', Journal of Business Ethics, 76 (4), 361-83.
- Austin, James T and Jeffrey B Vancouver (1996), 'Goal constructs in psychology: Structure, process, and content.', Psychological bulletin, 120 (3), 338.
- Ayal, S., Gino, F., Barkan, R. and Ariely, D., 2015. Three principles to REVISE people's unethical behavior. Perspectives on Psychological Science, 10(6), pp.738-741.
- Azizan, Syaidatina Akila Mohamad and Norazah Mohd Suki (2017), 'Consumers' intentions to purchase organic food products', Green Marketing and Environmental Responsibility in Modern Corporations (IGI Global), 68-82.
- Bagozzi, Richard P and Pratibha A Dabholkar (1994), 'Consumer recycling goals and their effect on decisions to recycle: A means-end chain analysis', Psychology & Marketing, 11 (4), 313-40.
- Bagozzi, Richard P and Susan K Kimmel (1995), 'A comparison of leading theories for the prediction of goal-directed behaviours', British Journal of Social Psychology, 34 (4), 437-61.
- Bagozzi, Richard P (1997), 'Goal-directed behaviors in marketing: Cognitive and emotional perspectives', Psychology & Marketing, 14 (6), 539-43.
- Bagozzi, Richard P and Utpal Dholakia (1999), 'Goal setting and goal striving in consumer behavior', The Journal of Marketing, 19-32.
- Bagozzi, Richard P and Utpal M Dholakia (2005), 'Three roles of past experience in goal setting and goal striving', The routines of decision making, 21-38.
- Bagozzi, Richard P. and Elizabeth A. Edwards (1998), 'Goal setting and goal pursuit in the regulation of body weight', Psychology & Health, 13 (4), 593-621.

- Bagozzi, Richard P. (2000), 'On the Concept of Intentional Social Action in Consumer Behavior: Figure 1', Journal of Consumer Research, 27 (3), 388-96.
- Bagozzi, Richard P. and Elizabeth A. Edwards (2000), 'Goal-striving and the implementation of goal intentions in the regulation of body weight', Psychology & Health, 15 (2), 255-70.
- Bagozzi, RP and PR Warshaw (1992), 'An Examination of the Etiology of the Attitude-Behavior Relation for Goal-Directed Behaviors.', Multivariate Behav Res, 27 (4), 601-34.
- Balderjahn, I., Buerke, A., Kirchgeorg, M., Peyer, M., Seegebarth, B. and Wiedmann, K.P., 2013. Consciousness for sustainable consumption: scale development and new insights in the economic dimension of consumers' sustainability. AMS review, 3(4), pp.181-192.
- Balsiger, P., 2014. Between shaming corporations and promoting alternatives: The politics of an "ethical shopping map". Journal of Consumer Culture, 14(2), pp.218-235.
- Barbarossa, Camilla and Alberto Pastore (2015), 'Why environmentally conscious consumers do not purchase green products: a cognitive mapping approach', Qualitative Market Research: An International Journal, 18 (2), 188-209.
- Barbarossa, Camilla and Patrick De Pelsmacker (2016), 'Positive and Negative Antecedents of Purchasing Eco-friendly Products: A Comparison Between Green and Non-green Consumers', Journal of Business Ethics, 134 (2), 229-47.
- Bardhi, F. and Eckhardt, G.M., 2012. Access-based consumption: The case of car sharing. Journal of consumer research, 39(4), pp.881-898.
- Bass, K., Barnett, T. and Brown, G., 1999. Individual difference variables, ethical judgments, and ethical behavioral intentions. Business Ethics Quarterly, 9(2), pp.183-205.
- Baumeister, R.F., Vohs, K.D., Nathan DeWall, C. and Zhang, L., 2007. How emotion shapes behavior: Feedback, anticipation, and reflection, rather than direct causation. Personality and social psychology review, 11(2), pp.167-203.
- BBC. (2019). Facebook users continue to grow despite privacy scandals. [online] [Accessed 30 January 2019] Available from https://www.bbc.co.uk/news/business-47065972
- Bearden, William O, Richard G Netemeyer, and Jesse E Teel (1989), 'Measurement of consumer susceptibility to interpersonal influence', Journal of consumer research, 15 (4), 473-81.

- Becker, G.S. and Elias, J.J., 2007. Introducing incentives in the market for live and cadaveric organ donations. Journal of economic perspectives, 21(3), pp.3-24.
- Belk, R., 2019. On standing out and fitting in. Journal of Global Fashion Marketing, pp.1-9.
- Belk, Russell (2016), 'Extended self and the digital world', Current Opinion in Psychology, 10 50-54.
- Belk, R.W., 2013. Extended self in a digital world. Journal of Consumer Research, 40(3), pp.477-500.
- Belk, Russell (1975), 'Situational variables and consumer behavior', Journal of Consumer research, 2 (3), 157-64.
- Belk, Russell (1985), 'Materialism: Trait aspects of living in the material world', Journal of Consumer research, 12 (3), 265-80.
- Bellezza, Silvia, Francesca Gino, and Anat Keinan (2014), 'The Red Sneakers Effect: Inferring Status and Competence from Signals of Nonconformity', Journal of Consumer Research, 41 (1), 35-54.
- Belletier, C., Normand, A. and Huguet, P., 2019. Social-Facilitation-and-Impairment Effects: From Motivation to Cognition and the Social Brain. Current Directions in Psychological Science, p.0963721419829699.
- Benjamin Jr, L.T. and Simpson, J.A., 2009. The power of the situation: The impact of Milgram's obedience studies on personality and social psychology. American Psychologist, 64(1), p.12.
- Berger, Jonah and Chip Heath (2007), 'Where consumers diverge from others: Identity signaling and product domains', Journal of Consumer Research, 34 (2), 121-34.
- Bergman, J.Z., Westerman, J.W., Bergman, S.M., Westerman, J. and Daly, J.P., 2014. Narcissism, materialism, and environmental ethics in business students. Journal of Management Education, 38(4), pp.489-510.
- Bergman, S.M., Fearrington, M.E., Davenport, S.W. and Bergman, J.Z., 2011. Millennials, narcissism, and social networking: What narcissists do on social networking sites and why. Personality and Individual Differences, 50(5), pp.706-711.
- Berman, J.Z., Levine, E.E., Barasch, A. and Small, D.A., 2015. The Braggart's dilemma: On the social rewards and penalties of advertising prosocial behavior. Journal of Marketing Research, 52(1), pp.90-104.
- Berné-Manero, C., Pedraja-Iglesias, M. and Ramo-Sáez, P., 2014. A measurement model

for the socially responsible consumer. International Review on Public and Nonprofit Marketing, 11(1), pp.31-46.

- Bezençon, Valéry and Sam Blili (2010), 'Ethical products and consumer involvement: what's new', European Journal of Marketing, 44 (9/10), 1305-21.
- Black, P., Meservy, T., Tayler, W.B. and Williams, J.O., 2019, March. Surrogation Fundamentals: Measurement and Cognition. AAA.
- Blackburn, S., 1999. Is objective moral justification possible on a quasi-realist foundation?. Inquiry, 42(2), pp.213-227.
- Blackburn, S., 2013. Relativism. The Blackwell Guide to Ethical Theory, pp.43-58.
- Bleidorn, W., 2015. What accounts for personality maturation in early adulthood?. Current Directions in Psychological Science, 24(3), pp.245-252.
- Bhattacharjee A, Berman JZ, Reed A. Tip of the hat, wag of the finger: How moral decoupling enables consumers to admire and admonish. Journal of Consumer Research. 2012 Sep 18;39(6):1167-84.
- Böcker, L. and Meelen, T., 2017. Sharing for people, planet or profit? Analysing motivations for intended sharing economy participation. Environmental Innovation and Societal Transitions, 23, pp.28-39.
- Boddy, C.R., 2005. The implications of corporate psychopaths for business and society: An initial examination and a call to arms. Australasian Journal of Business and Behavioural Sciences, 1(2), pp.30-40.
- Boddy, C.R., 2011. The corporate psychopaths theory of the global financial crisis. Journal of Business Ethics, 102(2), pp.255-259.
- Boddy, C.R., 2017. Psychopathic leadership a case study of a corporate psychopath CEO. Journal of Business Ethics, 145(1), pp.141-156.
- Boddy, CR (2014), 'Corporate psychopaths, conflict, employee affective well-being and counterproductive work behaviour', Journal of business ethics,
- Boddy, C.R., Galvin, P. and Ladyshewsky, R.K., 2011. Corporate psychopaths. In Ethical Leadership (pp. 17-33). Palgrave Macmillan, London.
- Boddy, Clive R, Richard K Ladyshewsky, and Peter Galvin (2010), 'The influence of corporate psychopaths on corporate social responsibility and organizational commitment to employees', Journal of Business Ethics, 97 (1), 1-19.
- Bond, C.F. and Titus, L.J., 1983. Social facilitation: a meta-analysis of 241 studies. Psychological bulletin, 94(2), p.265.

- Botetzagias, Iosif, Andora-Fani Dima, and Chrisovaladis Malesios (2015), 'Extending the theory of planned behavior in the context of recycling: The role of moral norms and of demographic predictors', Resources, conservation and recycling, 95 58-67.
- Boulstridge, Emma and Marylyn Carrigan (2000), 'Do consumers really care about corporate responsibility? Highlighting the attitude—behaviour gap', Journal of Communication Management, 4 355-68.
- Bray, Jeffery, Nick Johns, and David Kilburn (2011), 'An Exploratory Study into the Factors Impeding Ethical Consumption', Journal of Business Ethics, 98 (4), 597-608.
- Brendl, C.M., Chattopadhyay, A., Pelham, B.W. and Carvallo, M., 2005. Name letter branding: Valence transfers when product specific needs are active. Journal of Consumer Research, 32(3), pp.405-415.
- Brenton, Scott (2013), 'The political motivations of ethical consumers', International Journal of Consumer Studies, 37 (5), 490-97.
- Brick, C., Sherman, D.K. and Kim, H.S., 2017. "Green to be seen" and "brown to keep down": Visibility moderates the effect of identity on pro-environmental behavior. Journal of Environmental Psychology, 51, pp.226-238.
- Brinkmann, J and K Peattle (2008), 'Consumer ethics research: Reframing the debate about consumption for good', EJBO-Electronic Journal of Business Ethics and …,
- Briley, D.A., Morris, M.W. and Simonson, I., 2005. Cultural chameleons: Biculturals, conformity motives, and decision making. Journal of Consumer Psychology, 15(4), pp.351-362.
- Brooker, George (1976), 'The self-actualizing socially conscious consumer', Journal of Consumer Research, 3 (2), 107-12.
- Brooks, Ian (2018), Organisational Behaviour, (Pearson UK).
- Brooks, Nathan and Katarina Fritzon (2016), 'RETRACTED ARTICLE: Psychopathic personality characteristics amongst high functioning populations', Crime Psychology Review, 2 (1), 22-44.
- Brough, A.R., Wilkie, J.E., Ma, J., Isaac, M.S. and Gal, D., 2016. Is eco-friendly unmanly? The green-feminine stereotype and its effect on sustainable consumption. Journal of Consumer Research, 43(4), pp.567-582.
- Brunell, A.B., Gentry, W.A., Campbell, W.K., Hoffman, B.J., Kuhnert, K.W. and DeMarree, K.G., 2008. Leader emergence: The case of the narcissistic leader. Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 34(12), pp.1663-1676.

- Brunneder, Johanna and Utpal Dholakia (2018), 'The self-creation effect: making a product supports its mindful consumption and the consumer's well-being', Marketing Letters, 29 (3), 377-89.
- Burnett, John J (1981), 'Psychographic and demographic characteristics of blood donors', Journal of Consumer Research, 8 (1), 62-66.
- Cailleba, Patrice and Herbert Casteran (2010), 'Do Ethical Values Work? A Quantitative Study of the Impact of Fair Trade Coffee on Consumer Behavior', Journal of Business Ethics, 97 (4), 613-24.
- Campbell, Margaret C and Karen Page Winterich (2018), 'A Framework for the Consumer Psychology of Morality in the Marketplace', Journal of Consumer Psychology, 28 (2), 167-79.
- Canavan, Brendan (2017), 'Narcissism normalisation: tourism influences and sustainability implications', Journal of Sustainable Tourism, 25 (9), 1322-37.
- Cardigo, Cristina and Paulo Rita (2011), 'Fostering Sustainable Consumption Practices Through Consumer Empowerment', ACR European Advances,
- Carfora, V., Caso, D., Sparks, P. and Conner, M., 2017. Moderating effects of pro-environmental self-identity on pro-environmental intentions and behaviour: A multi-behaviour study. Journal of Environmental Psychology, 53, pp.92-99.
- Carlston, Donal E (2013), The Oxford handbook of social cognition, (Oxford University Press).
- Carrigan, Marylyn and Ahmad Attalla (2001), 'The myth of the ethical consumer–do ethics matter in purchase behaviour', Journal of consumer marketing, 18 (7), 560-78.
- Carrigan, M. and Bosangit, C., 2016. The challenges of responsible marketing and consumption. In Ethics and Morality in Consumption (pp. 107-126). Routledge.
- Carrigan, Marylyn and Patrick de Pelsmacker (2009), 'Will ethical consumers sustain their values in the global credit crunch', International Marketing Review, 26 (6), 674-87.
- Carrington, Michal J, Benjamin A Neville, and Gregory J Whitwell (2010), 'Why ethical consumers don't walk their talk: Towards a framework for understanding the gap between the ethical purchase intentions and actual buying behaviour of ethically minded consumers', Journal of business ethics, 97 (1), 139-58.
- Carrington, Michal Jemma, Detlev Zwick, and Benjamin Neville (2016), 'The ideology of the ethical consumption gap', Marketing Theory, 16 (1), 21-38.
- Caruana, Robert, Michal J. Carrington, and Andreas Chatzidakis (2016), ' "Beyond the

Attitude-Behaviour Gap: Novel Perspectives in Consumer Ethics": Introduction to the Thematic Symposium', Journal of Business Ethics, 136 (2), 215-18.

- Castille, C.M., Buckner, J.E. and Thoroughgood, C.N., 2018. Prosocial citizens without a moral compass? Examining the relationship between Machiavellianism and unethical pro-organizational behavior. Journal of Business Ethics, 149(4), pp.919-930.
- Cavanaugh, Lisa A (2016), 'Consumer behavior in close relationships', Current Opinion in Psychology, 10 101-6.
- Chartrand, T.L., Huber, J., Shiv, B. and Tanner, R.J., 2008. Nonconscious goals and consumer choice. Journal of Consumer Research, 35(2), pp.189-201.
- Chatzidakis, Andreas, Sally Hibbert, and Andrew P Smith (2007), 'Why people don't take their concerns about fair trade to the supermarket: The role of neutralisation', Journal of Business Ethics, 74 (1), 89-100.
- Chatzidakis, Andreas (2015), 'Guilt and ethical choice in consumption: A psychoanalytic perspective', Marketing Theory, 15 (1), 79-93.
- Chatzidakis, Andreas, Minas Kastanakis, and Anastasia Stathopoulou (2016), 'Socio-Cognitive Determinants of Consumers' Support for the Fair Trade Movement', Journal of Business Ethics, 133 (1), 95-109.
- Cheah, Isaac and Ian Phau (2011), 'Attitudes towards environmentally friendly products: The influence of ecoliteracy, interpersonal influence and value orientation', Marketing Intelligence & Planning, 29 (5), 452-72.
- Cheema, A. and Bagchi, R., 2011. The effect of goal visualization on goal pursuit: Implications for consumers and managers. Journal of Marketing, 75(2), pp.109-123.
- Chen, Jie, Lefa Teng, and Yonghai Liao (2018), 'Counterfeit luxuries: does moral reasoning strategy influence consumers' pursuit of counterfeits', Journal of Business Ethics, 151 (1), 249-64.
- Chen, Jue and Antonio Lobo (2010), 'An Exploratory Study Investigating the Dimensions Influencing Consumers' Purchase Intentions relating to Organic Food in Urban China'.
- Chen, Jue and Antonio Lobo (2012), 'Organic food products in China: determinants of consumers' purchase intentions', The International Review of Retail, Distribution and Consumer Research, 22 (3), 293-314.
- Chen, Jue, Antonio Lobo, and Natalia Rajendran (2014), 'Drivers of organic food purchase intentions in mainland C hina–evaluating potential customers' attitudes, demo-

graphics and segmentation', International Journal of Consumer Studies, 38 (4), 346-56.

- Chen, SERENA, Gràinne M Fitzsimons, and Susan M Andersen (2007), 'Automaticity in close relationships', Social psychology and the unconscious: The automaticity of higher mental processes, 133-72.
- Cho, S. and Krasser, A.H., 2011. What makes us care? The impact of cultural values, individual factors, and attention to media content on motivation for ethical consumerism. International Social Science Review, 86(1/2), pp.3-23.
- Chylinski, Matthew and Anna Chu (2010), 'Consumer cynicism: antecedents and consequences', European Journal of Marketing, 44 (6), 796-837.
- Coleman, Nicole Verrochi and Patti Williams (2013), 'Feeling Like My Self: Emotion Profiles and Social Identity', Journal of Consumer Research, 40 (2), 203-22.
- Coid, J., Yang, M., Ullrich, S., Roberts, A. and Hare, R.D., 2009. Prevalence and correlates of psychopathic traits in the household population of Great Britain. International journal of law and psychiatry, 32(2), pp.65-73.
- Conrey, F.R., Sherman, J.W., Gawronski, B., Hugenberg, K. and Groom, C.J., 2005. Separating multiple processes in implicit social cognition: the quad model of implicit task performance. Journal of personality and social psychology, 89(4), p.469.
- Cook, Daniel Thomas and J Michael Ryan (2015), The Wiley Blackwell Encyclopedia of Consumption and Consumer Studies, (John Wiley & Sons).
- Cornish, LS (2013), 'Ethical Consumption or Consumption of Ethical Products? An Exploratory Analysis of Motivations behind the Purchase of Ethical Products', Advances in Consumer Research, 41 337-41.
- Costa Pinto, D., Herter, M.M., Rossi, P. and Borges, A., 2014. Going green for self or for others? Gender and identity salience effects on sustainable consumption. International Journal of Consumer Studies, 38(5), pp.540-549.
- Costa Pinto, D., Nique, W.M., Maurer Herter, M. and Borges, A., 2016. Green consumers and their identities: how identities change the motivation for green consumption. International journal of consumer studies, 40(6), pp.742-753.
- Crysel, Laura C, Benjamin S Crosier, and Gregory D Webster (2013), 'The Dark Triad and risk behavior', Personality and individual differences, 54 (1), 35-40.
- Culiberg, Barbara (2014), 'Towards an understanding of consumer recycling from an ethical perspective', International Journal of Consumer Studies, 38 (1), 90-97.
- Culiberg, Barbara and Leila Elgaaied-Gambier (2016), 'Going green to fit in - under-

standing the impact of social norms on pro-environmental behaviour, a cross-cultural approach', International Journal of Consumer Studies, 40 (2), 179-85.

- Culwell, Michael Shaun (2010), 'Attitudes And Intentional Markers For Behavioral Change In Smokers: Examining The Effects Of Intention On Behavior Change',
- D'Souza, M. and Lima, G.A.S.F.D., 2015. The dark side of power: the Dark Triad in opportunistic decision-making. Advances in Scientific and Applied Accounting, São Paulo, 8(2), pp.135-156.
- Dagher, Grace K. and Omar Itani (2014), 'Factors influencing green purchasing behaviour: Empirical evidence from the Lebanese consumers', Journal of Consumer Behaviour, 13 (3), 188-95.
- Dahl, Alicia A, Sarah B Hales, and Gabrielle M Turner-McGrievy (2016), 'Integrating social media into weight loss interventions', Current Opinion in Psychology, 9 11-15.
- Dalton, Amy N. and Stephen A. Spiller (2012), 'Too Much of a Good Thing: The Benefits of Implementation Intentions Depend on the Number of Goals', Journal of Consumer Research, 39 (3), 600-14.
- Dascher, Erin D., Jiyun Kang, and Gwendolyn Hustvedt (2014), 'Water sustainability: environmental attitude, drought attitude and motivation', International Journal of Consumer Studies, 38 (5), 467-74.
- Dancy, J., 2001. Moral particularism.
- David, P, S Kline, and Y Dai (2005), 'Corporate social responsibility practices, corporate identity, and purchase intention: A dual-process model', Journal of Public Relations Research,
- Davies, Iain A., Zoe Lee, and Ine Ahonkhai (2012), 'Do Consumers Care About Ethical-Luxury', Journal of Business Ethics, 106 (1), 37-51.
- de la Peña, Alicia and Claudia Quintanilla (2015), 'Share, like and achieve: the power of F acebook to reach health-related goals', International Journal of Consumer Studies, 39 (5), 495-505.
- de Groot, J.I., Schubert, I. and Thøgersen, J., 2016. Morality and green consumer behaviour: A psychological perspective. In Ethics and morality in consumption (pp. 89-106). Routledge.
- De Groot, J.I. and Steg, L., 2009. Morality and prosocial behavior: The role of awareness, responsibility, and norms in the norm activation model. The Journal of social psychology, 149(4), pp.425-449. Vancouver

- De Groot, J.I. and Steg, L., 2009. Mean or green: which values can promote stable pro-environmental behavior?. Conservation Letters, 2(2), pp.61-66.
- de Ribera, O.S., Kavish, N., Katz, I.M. and Boutwell, B.B., 2019. Untangling intelligence, psychopathy, antisocial personality disorder, & conduct problems: A meta-analytic review. bioRxiv, p.100693.
- DeZoort, F.T. and Harrison, P.D., 2018. Understanding auditors' sense of responsibility for detecting fraud within organizations. Journal of Business Ethics, 149(4), pp.857-874.
- Deaux, Kay and Mark Snyder (2012), 'The Oxford Handbook of Personality and Social Psychology',
- Dehart, T., Pelham, B., Fiedorowicz, L., Carvallo, M. and Gabriel, S., 2011. Including others in the implicit self: Implicit evaluation of significant others. Self and Identity, 10(1), pp.127-135.
- DellaVigna, Stefano, John A List, and Ulrike Malmendier (2012), 'Testing for altruism and social pressure in charitable giving', The quarterly journal of economics, 127 (1), 1-56.
- Deluga, R.J., 1997. Relationship among American presidential charismatic leadership, narcissism, and rated performance. The Leadership Quarterly, 8(1), pp.49-65.
- Dermody, J., Hanmer-Lloyd, S., Koenig-Lewis, N. and Zhao, A.L., 2015. Advancing sustainable consumption in the UK and China: the mediating effect of pro-environmental self-identity. Journal of Marketing Management, 31(13-14), pp.1472-1502.
- DeSombre, Elizabeth R (2018), Why Good People Do Bad Environmental Things, (Oxford University Press).
- Devinney, Timothy M, Pat Auger, and Giana Eckhardt (2012), 'Can the socially responsible consumer be mainstream',
- Dholakia, U.M., Kahn, B.E., Reeves, R., Rindfleisch, A., Stewart, D. and Taylor, E., 2010. Consumer behavior in a multichannel, multimedia retailing environment. Journal of Interactive Marketing, 24(2), pp.86-95.
- Diallo, M.F., Diop-Sall, F., Leroux, E. and Valette-Florence, P., 2015. Responsible tourist behaviour: The role of social engagement. Recherche et Applications en Marketing (English Edition), 30(3), pp.85-104.
- Diener, E., 1996. Traits can be powerful, but are not enough: Lessons from subjective well-being. Journal of research in personality, 30(3), pp.389-399.
- Dijksterhuis, A., Smith, P.K., Van Baaren, R.B. and Wigboldus, D.H., 2005. The un-

conscious consumer: Effects of environment on consumer behavior. Journal of consumer psychology, 15(3), pp.193-202.

- Dijksterhuis, Ap, Tanya L Chartrand, and Henk Aarts (2007), 'Effects of priming and perception on social behavior and goal pursuit.',
- do Paço, A., Alves, H., Shiel, C. and Filho, W.L., 2013. Development of a green consumer behaviour model. International Journal of Consumer Studies, 37(4), pp.414-421.
- Dolan, P., Elliott, A., Metcalfe, R. and Vlaev, I., 2012. Influencing financial behavior: From changing minds to changing contexts. Journal of Behavioral Finance, 13(2), pp.126-142.
- Dolan, P., Hallsworth, M., Halpern, D., King, D., Metcalfe, R. and Vlaev, I., 2012. Influencing behaviour: The mindspace way. Journal of Economic Psychology, 33(1), pp.264-277.
- Doherty, B., Bezençon, V. and Balineau, G., 2015. 18. Fairtrade International and the European market. Handbook of research on fair trade, p.316.
- Dosil, JOAQUÍN, GJ Cremades, and SANTIAGO Rivera (2014), 'Psychological skills training and programs', Routledge companion to sport and exercise psychology, 327-42.
- Drayton, LA and LR Santos… (2018), 'Psychopaths fail to automatically take the perspective of others', Proceedings of the …,
- Du, S., Bartels, J., Reinders, M. and Sen, S., 2015. A Cross-Country Investigation of Organic Consumption Behavior: a Social Identification Perspective. ACR Asia-Pacific Advances.
- Dubois, David, Derek D Rucker, and Adam D Galinsky (2011), 'Super size me: Product size as a signal of status', Journal of Consumer Research, 38 (6), 1047-62.
- Dweck, Carol S and Ellen L Leggett (1988), 'A social-cognitive approach to motivation and personality.', Psychological review, 95 (2), 256.
- Eberly-Lewis, M.B. and Coetzee, T.M., 2015. Dimensionality in adolescent prosocial tendencies: Individual differences in serving others versus serving the self. Personality and Individual Differences, 82, pp.1-6.
- Ein-Gar, Danit and Liat Levontin (2013), 'Giving from a distance: Putting the charitable organization at the center of the donation appeal', Journal of Consumer Psychology, 23 (2), 197-211.
- Eisend, Marin and Pakize Schuchert-Güler (2006), 'Explaining counterfeit purchases: A

review and preview', Academy of Marketing Science Review, 2006 1.

- Eleni, Papaoikonomou, Nicholas G Paparoidamis, and Ruben Chumpitaz (2015), 'Understanding Ethical Consumers: A New Approach Towards Modeling Ethical Consumer Behaviours', Marketing Dynamism & Sustainability: Things Change, Things Stay the Same… (Springer), 223-25.
- Elliot, Andrew J (2014), Advances in motivation science, (1; Academic Press).
- Engel, Jannis and Nora Szech (2017), 'A little good is good enough: Ethical consumption, cheap excuses, and moral self-licensing',
- Erffmeyer, R.C., Keillor, B.D. and LeClair, D.T., 1999. An empirical investigation of Japanese consumer ethics. Journal of Business Ethics, 18(1), pp.35-50.
- Ertz, M., Durif, F., Lecompte, A. and Boivin, C., 2018. Does "sharing" mean "socially responsible consuming"? Exploration of the relationship between collaborative consumption and socially responsible consumption. Journal of Consumer Marketing, 35(4), pp.392-402.
- Ertz, M., Karakas, F. and Sarigöllü, E., 2016. Exploring pro-environmental behaviors of consumers: An analysis of contextual factors, attitude, and behaviors. Journal of Business Research, 69(10), pp.3971-3980.
- Erve, SA (2013), 'Minimizing the young consumers' attitude-behaviour gap in green purchasing', (University of Twente).
- Escalas, J., White, K., Townsend, C., Ward, M.K., Chan, C., Kettle, K.L. and Forehand, M.R., 2013. Self-Identity and Consumer Behavior Dissociative versus Associative Responses to Social Identity Threat: The Role of Consumer Self-Construal Self-Affirmation through the Choice of Highly Aesthetic Products It's Not Me, It's You: How Gift Giving Creates Gi. Journal of Consumer Research, 39(5).
- Escalera-Chávez, Milka Elena, et al. (2014), 'CONFIRMATION THEORETICAL MODEL OF SUSTAINABLE CONSUMPTION', British Journal of Marketing Studies, 2 27-36.
- Evans, Jonathan St BT (2003), 'In two minds: dual-process accounts of reasoning', Trends in cognitive sciences, 7 (10), 454-59.
- Farmer, A., Breazeale, M., Stevens, J.L. and Waites, S.F., 2017. Eat green, get lean: Promoting sustainability reduces consumption. Journal of Public Policy & Marketing, 36(2), pp.299-312.
- Fen Crystal Yap, Sheau and Christina Kwai Choi Lee (2014), 'Leveraging the power of

online social networks: a contingency approach', Marketing Intelligence & Planning, 32 (3), 345-74.

- Fennis, B.M., Adriaanse, M.A., Stroebe, W. and Pol, B., 2011. Bridging the intention–behavior gap: Inducing implementation intentions through persuasive appeals. Journal of Consumer Psychology, 21(3), pp.302-311.
- Fernandes, Maria F and Donna M Randall (1992), 'The nature of social desirability response effects in ethics research', Business Ethics Quarterly, 183-205.
- Fleeson, W., 2001. Toward a structure-and process-integrated view of personality: Traits as density distributions of states. Journal of personality and social psychology, 80(6), p.1011.
- Fleeson, W., 2004. Moving personality beyond the person-situation debate: The challenge and the opportunity of within-person variability. Current Directions in Psychological Science, 13(2), pp.83-87.
- Fleeson, W., 2007. Situation-based contingencies underlying trait-content manifestation in behavior. Journal of personality, 75(4), pp.825-862.
- Finney, Sherry L. (2014), 'Encouraging sustainable consumption: An exploration of consumer behaviour', The Marketing Review, 14 (2), 189-203.
- Fischer, Agneta and Ursula Hess (2017), 'Mimicking emotions', Current opinion in psychology, 17 151-55.
- Fishbach, Ayelet, Janina Steinmetz, and Yanping Tu (2016), 'Motivation in a social context: Coordinating personal and shared goal pursuits with others', Advances in motivation science 3 (Elsevier), 35-79.
- Fisher, R.J., Vandenbosch, M. and Antia, K.D., 2008. An empathy-helping perspective on consumers' responses to fund-raising appeals. Journal of consumer research, 35(3), pp.519-531.
- Folz, D.H. and Hazlett, J.M., 1991. Public participation and recycling performance: explaining program success. Public administration review, 51(6), p.526.
- Foster, J.D. and Campbell, W.K., 2007. Are there such things as "narcissists" in social psychology? A taxometric analysis of the Narcissistic Personality Inventory. Personality and Individual Differences, 43(6), pp.1321-1332.
- Foster, Joshua D, Ilan Shrira, and W Keith Campbell (2006), 'Theoretical models of narcissism, sexuality, and relationship commitment', Journal of social and Personál Relationships, 23 (3), 367-86.

- Foxall, G.R., Oliveira-Castro, J.M., James, V.K., Yani-de-Soriano, M.M. and Sigurdsson, V., 2006. Consumer behavior analysis and social marketing: The case of environmental conservation. Behavior and social issues, 15(1), pp.101-125.
- Funder, D.C., 2009. Persons, behaviors and situations: An agenda for personality psychology in the postwar era. Journal of Research in Personality, 43(2), pp.120-126.
- Fung, Elaine and Rong Liu (2019), 'Sustainable Sports Fashion and Consumption', Consumer Behaviour and Sustainable Fashion Consumption (Springer), 39-67.
- Gal, David and Blakeley B McShane (2012), 'Can small victories help win the war? Evidence from consumer debt management', Journal of Marketing Research, (0), 487-501.
- Gam, H.J., Cao, H., Farr, C. and Kang, M., 2010. Quest for the eco-apparel market: a study of mothers' willingness to purchase organic cotton clothing for their children. International Journal of Consumer Studies, 34(6), pp.648-656.
- Ganegoda, Deshani B, Gary P Latham, and Robert Folger (2016), 'The effect of a consciously set and a primed goal on fair behavior', Human Resource Management, 55 (5), 789-807.
- Gao, Yixing Lisa and Anna S. Mattila (2016), 'The Impact of Option Popularity, Social Inclusion/Exclusion, and Self-affirmation on Consumers' Propensity to Choose Green Hotels', Journal of Business Ethics, 136 (3), 575-85.
- Ger, G., 2018. Research curation: intersectional structuring of consumption. Journal of Consumer Research, 45.
- Gentina, E., Shrum, L.J., Lowrey, T.M., Vitell, S.J. and Rose, G.M., 2018. An integrative model of the influence of parental and peer support on consumer ethical beliefs: The mediating role of self-esteem, power, and materialism. Journal of Business Ethics, 150(4), pp.1173-1186.
- Gęsiarz, Filip and Molly J Crockett (2015), 'Goal-directed, habitual and Pavlovian prosocial behavior', Frontiers in behavioral neuroscience, 9 135.
- Geyskens, K., Dewitte, S., Pandelaere, M. and Warlop, L., 2008. Tempt me just a little bit more: The effect of prior food temptation actionability on goal activation and consumption. Journal of Consumer Research, 35(4), pp.600-610.
- Ghosh, Sanjukta, Biplab Datta, and Parama Barai (2016), 'Modeling and Promoting Organic Food Purchase', Journal of Food Products Marketing, 22 (6), 623-42.
- Gino, F., 2018. Rebel talent: Why it pays to break the rules at work and in life. Pan

Macmillan.

- Glanz, Karen, Barbara K Rimer, and Kasisomayajula Viswanath (2008), Health behavior and health education: theory, research, and practice, (John Wiley & Sons).
- Gleim, Mark and Stephanie J. Lawson (2014), 'Spanning the gap: an examination of the factors leading to the green gap', Journal of Consumer Marketing, 31 (6/7), 503-14.
- Gleim, M.R., Smith, J.S., Andrews, D. and Cronin Jr, J.J., 2013. Against the green: A multi-method examination of the barriers to green consumption. Journal of retailing, 89(1), pp.44-61.
- Globus, G.G., Pribram, K.H. and Vitiello, G. eds., 2004. Brain and being: at the boundary between science, philosophy, language and arts (Vol. 58). John Benjamins Publishing.
- Göçer, Aysu and Bengü Sevil Oflaç (2017), 'Understanding young consumers' tendencies regarding eco-labelled products', Asia Pacific Journal of Marketing and Logistics, 29 (1), 80-97.
- Godin, Gaston and Gerjo Kok (1996), 'The theory of planned behavior: a review of its applications to health-related behaviors', American journal of health promotion, 11 (2), 87-98.
- Gollwitzer, Peter M and Veronika Brandstätter (1997), 'Implementation intentions and effective goal pursuit.', Journal of personality and social psychology, 73 (1), 186.
- Gómez-Miñambres, Joaquín (2012), 'Motivation through goal setting', Journal of Economic Psychology, 33 (6), 1223-39.
- González, E.M., Felix, R., Carrete, L., Centeno, E. and Castaño, R., 2015. Green shades: a segmentation approach based on ecological consumer behavior in an emerging economy. Journal of marketing theory and practice, 23(3), pp.287-302.
- Grant, P.S., Bal, A. and Parent, M., 2012. Operatic flash mob: Consumer arousal, connectedness and emotion. Journal of Consumer Behaviour, 11(3), pp.244-251.
- Gregory-Smith, Diana, Andrew Smith, and Heidi Winklhofer (2013), 'Emotions and dissonance in 'ethical' consumption choices', Journal of Marketing Management, 29 (11-12), 1201-23.
- Grimmer, Martin, Ashley P Kilburn, and Morgan P Miles (2016), 'The effect of purchase situation on realized pro-environmental consumer behavior', Journal of Business Research, 69 (5), 1582-86.
- Grimmer, Martin and Morgan P. Miles (2017), 'With the best of intentions: a large

sample test of the intention-behaviour gap in pro-environmental consumer behaviour', International Journal of Consumer Studies, 41 (1), 2-10.

- Griskevicius, Vladas and Douglas T Kenrick (2013), 'Fundamental motives: How evolutionary needs influence consumer behavior', Journal of Consumer Psychology, 23 (3), 372-86.
- Griskevicius, V., Tybur, J.M., Sundie, J.M., Cialdini, R.B., Miller, G.F. and Kenrick, D.T., 2007. Blatant benevolence and conspicuous consumption: When romantic motives elicit strategic costly signals. Journal of personality and social psychology, 93(1), p.85.
- Griskevicius, V., Tybur, J.M. and Van den Bergh, B., 2010. Going green to be seen: status, reputation, and conspicuous conservation. Journal of personality and social psychology, 98(3), p.392.
- Groening, C., Sarkis, J. and Zhu, Q., 2018. Green marketing consumer-level theory review: A compendium of applied theories and further research directions. Journal of Cleaner Production, 172, pp.1848-1866.
- Gruber, Verena (2012), Sustainable consumption decisions: an examination of consumer cognition and behavior, (na).
- Guarin, Alejandro and Peter Knorringa (2014), 'New middle-class consumers in rising powers: Responsible consumption and private standards', Oxford development studies, 42 (2), 151-71.
- Ha-Brookshire, Jung E. and Pamela S. Norum (2011), 'Willingness to pay for socially responsible products: case of cotton apparel', Journal of Consumer Marketing, 28 (5), 344-53.
- Haberstroh, K., Orth, U.R., Hoffmann, S. and Brunk, B., 2017. Consumer response to unethical corporate behavior: A re-examination and extension of the moral decoupling model. Journal of business ethics, 140(1), pp.161-173.
- Hall, S.M., 2011. Exploring the 'ethical everyday': An ethnography of the ethics of family consumption. Geoforum, 42(6), pp.627-637.
- Halpern, D., Valenzuela, S. and Katz, J.E., 2016. "Selfie-ists" or "Narci-selfiers"?: A cross-lagged panel analysis of selfie taking and narcissism. Personality and Individual Differences, 97, pp.98-101.
- Hamelin, Nicolas, Talha Harcar, and Yamina Benhari (2013), 'Ethical Consumerism: A View From the Food Industry in Morocco', Journal of Food Products Marketing, 19 (5), 343-62.

- Hamilton, Rebecca W and Gabriel J Biehal (2005), 'Achieving your goals or protecting their future? The effects of self-view on goals and choices', Journal of Consumer Research, 32 (2), 277-83.
- Han, Heesup, Bo Meng, and Wansoo Kim (2017), 'Emerging bicycle tourism and the theory of planned behavior', Journal of Sustainable Tourism, 25 (2), 292-309.
- Handayani, Wiwik (2017), 'Green Consumerism: an Eco-Friendly Behaviour Form Through The Green Product Consumption and Green Marketing', Sinergi: Jurnal Ilmiah Ilmu Manajemen, 7 (2),
- Harman, E., 2011. Does moral ignorance exculpate?. Ratio, 24(4), pp.443-468.
- Harris, Fiona, Helen Roby, and Sally Dibb (2016), 'Sustainable clothing: challenges, barriers and interventions for encouraging more sustainable consumer behaviour', International Journal of Consumer Studies, 40 (3), 309-18.
- Harrison, A., Summers, J. and Mennecke, B., 2018. The effects of the dark triad on unethical behavior. Journal of Business Ethics, 153(1), pp.53-77.
- Hassan, L., Shaw, D., Shiu, E., Walsh, G. and Parry, S., 2013. Uncertainty in ethical consumer choice: a conceptual model. Journal of Consumer Behaviour, 12(3), pp.182-193.
- Hassan, Louise M., Edward Shiu, and Deirdre Shaw (2016), 'Who Says There is an Intention–Behaviour Gap? Assessing the Empirical Evidence of an Intention–Behaviour Gap in Ethical Consumption', Journal of Business Ethics, 136 (2), 219-36.
- Haws, Kelly L, William O Bearden, and Utpal M Dholakia (2012), 'Situational and trait interactions among goal orientations', Marketing Letters, 23 (1), 47-60.
- Haws, Kelly L., Karen Page Winterich, and Rebecca Walker Naylor (2014), 'Seeing the world through GREEN-tinted glasses: Green consumption values and responses to environmentally friendly products', Journal of Consumer Psychology, 24 (3), 336-54.
- Haugtvedt, C.P., Herr, P.M. and Kardes, F.R., 2018. Goal-Directed Consumer Behavior: Motivation, Volition, and Affect: Hans Baumgartner and Rik Pieters. In Handbook of Consumer Psychology (pp. 376-401). Routledge.
- He, A.Z., Cai, T., Deng, T.X. and Li, X., 2016. Factors affecting non-green consumer behaviour: an exploratory study among C hinese consumers. International Journal of Consumer Studies, 40(3), pp.345-356.
- Heath, T., O'Malley, L., Heath, M. and Story, V., 2016. Caring and conflicted: Mothers' ethical judgments about consumption. Journal of Business Ethics, 136(2), pp.237-250.

- Hegarty, W.H. and Sims, H.P., 1978. Some determinants of unethical decision behavior: An experiment. Journal of applied Psychology, 63(4), p.451.
- Hegarty, W.H. and Sims, H.P., 1979. Organizational philosophy, policies, and objectives related to unethical decision behavior: A laboratory experiment. journal of Applied Psychology, 64(3), p.331.
- Hepper, E.G., Hart, C.M., Meek, R., Cisek, S. and Sedikides, C., 2014. Narcissism and empathy in young offenders and non-offenders. European Journal of Personality, 28(2), pp.201-210.
- Heyes, C.J. and Jones, M., 2016. Cosmetic surgery in the age of gender. In Cosmetic Surgery (pp. 17-34). Routledge.
- Hillenbrand, Carola and Kevin Guy Money (2015), 'Unpacking the mechanism by which psychological ownership manifests at the level of the individual: A dynamic model of identity and self', Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice, 23 (2), 148-65.
- Hinsliff, G. (2018) Airbnb and the so-called sharing economy is hollowing out our cities. The Guardian. [Online]. [Accessed 18 Sep 2018] Avaliable from: https://www.theguardian.com/commentisfree/2018/aug/31/airbnb-sharing-economy-cities-barcelona-inequality-locals
- Hodson, G. and Olson, J.M., 2005. Testing the generality of the name letter effect: Name initials and everyday attitudes. Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 31(8), pp.1099-1111.
- Hoffmann, Stefan and Katharina Hutter (2012), 'Carrotmob as a New Form of Ethical Consumption. The Nature of the Concept and Avenues for Future Research', Journal of Consumer Policy, 35 (2), 215-36.
- Hosseinpour, M., Nezakati, H., Sidin, S.M. and Yee, W.F., 2016. Consumer's Intention of Purchase Sustainable Products: The Moderating Role of Attitude and Trust. Journal of Marketing and Management, 7(1), p.40.
- Howie, K.M., Yang, L., Vitell, S.J., Bush, V. and Vorhies, D., 2018. Consumer participation in cause-related marketing: An examination of effort demands and defensive denial. Journal of Business Ethics, 147(3), pp.679-692.
- Huang, Rongbing and Danping Chen (2015), 'Does Environmental Information Disclosure Benefit Waste Discharge Reduction? Evidence from China', Journal of Business Ethics, 129 (3), 535-52.
- Huang, S.C., Broniarczyk, S.M., Zhang, Y. and Beruchashvili, M., 2014. From close to

distant: The dynamics of interpersonal relationships in shared goal pursuit. Journal of Consumer Research, 41(5), pp.1252-1266.

- Hui, C.M., Finkel, E.J., Fitzsimons, G.M., Kumashiro, M. and Hofmann, W., 2014. The Manhattan effect: When relationship commitment fails to promote support for partners' interests. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 106(4), p.546.
- Hui, S.K., Bradlow, E.T. and Fader, P.S., 2009. Testing behavioral hypotheses using an integrated model of grocery store shopping path and purchase behavior. Journal of consumer research, 36(3), pp.478-493.
- Huffman, Cynthia, Srinivasan Ratneshwar, and David Glen Mick (2003), 'Consumer goal structures and goal-determination processes: An integrative framework', The why of consumption (Routledge), 29-55.
- Humphrey, K., 2016. Buying a Better World: Ethical Consumption and the Critical Social Sciences. In Ethics and Morality in Consumption (pp. 170-184). Routledge.
- Hunt, S.D. and Chonko, L.B., 1984. Marketing and machiavellianism. Journal of Marketing, 48(3), pp.30-42.
- Hunt, S.D. and Vitell, S., 1986. A general theory of marketing ethics. Journal of macromarketing, 6(1), pp.5-16.
- Hunt, S.D. and Vitell, S.J., 2006. The general theory of marketing ethics: A revision and three questions. Journal of macromarketing, 26(2), pp.143-153.
- Hwang, Jiyoung and Jay Kandampully (2015), 'Embracing CSR in pro-social relationship marketing program: understanding driving forces of positive consumer responses', Journal of Services Marketing, 29 (5), 344-53.
- Hwang, Jiyoung (2016), 'Organic food as self-presentation: The role of psychological motivation in older consumers' purchase intention of organic food', Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services, 28 281-87.
- Hwang, Jiyoung and Merlyn A. Griffiths (2017), 'Share more, drive less: Millennials value perception and behavioral intent in using collaborative consumption services', Journal of Consumer Marketing, 34 (2), 132-46.
- Isaacson, W., 2013. Steve Jobs.
- JK Simpson, B. and K. Radford, S., 2014. Situational variables and sustainability in multi-attribute decision-making. European Journal of Marketing, 48(5/6), pp.1046-1069.
- Janssen, Catherine and Joëlle Vanhamme (2015), 'Theoretical Lenses for Understanding

the CSR–Consumer Paradox', Journal of Business Ethics, 130 (4), 775-87.

- Jayawardhena, Chanaka, Kevin Morrell, and Chris Stride (2016), 'Ethical consumption behaviours in supermarket shoppers: determinants and marketing implications', Journal of Marketing Management, 32 (7-8), 777-805.
- Jericho, Greg. (2016) The dark side of Uber: why the sharing economy needs tougher rules, The Guardian. [Online]. Monday 18 Aprial 2016 [Accessed 10 September 2018]. Avaliable from: https://www.theguardian.com/business/grogonomics/2016/apr/18/uber-airbnb-sharing-economy-tougher-rules-australia
- Jin, L., Huang, S.C. and Zhang, Y., 2013. The unexpected positive impact of fixed structures on goal completion. Journal of Consumer Research, 40(4), pp.711-725.
- Jin Ma, Yoon, Mary A. Littrell, and Linda Niehm (2012), 'Young female consumers' intentions toward fair trade consumption', International Journal of Retail & Distribution Management, 40 (1), 41-63.
- Joireman, Jeff and Kristina M Durante (2016), 'Editorial overview: Consumer behavior',
- Jonason, Peter K and Gregory D Webster (2010), 'The dirty dozen: A concise measure of the dark triad.', Psychological assessment, 22 (2), 420.
- Jones, Daniel N and Robert D Hare (2016), 'The mismeasure of psychopathy: A commentary on Boddy's PM-MRV', Journal of business ethics, 138 (3), 579-88.
- Jones, DN and DL Paulhus (2012), 'Introducing the Short Dark Triad (SD3): A brief measure of dark personalities', Journal of Research in Personality,
- Jones, G.E. and Kavanagh, M.J., 1996. An experimental examination of the effects of individual and situational factors on unethical behavioral intentions in the workplace. Journal of Business Ethics, 15(5), pp.511-523.
- Joralemon, D., 2001. Shifting ethics: debating the incentive question in organ transplantation. Journal of Medical Ethics, 27(1), pp.30-35.
- Jung, C.G., 1939. Conscious, unconscious, and individuation. Collected works,
- Jung, C.G., 2014. Aion: Researches into the Phenomenology of the Self. Routledge.
- Jung, C.G., 2014. The archetypes and the collective unconscious. Routledge.
- Jung, C.G., 2018. The Quotable Jung. Princeton University Press.
- Kahn, Matthew E (2007), 'Do greens drive Hummers or hybrids? Environmental ideology as a determinant of consumer choice', Journal of Environmental Economics and Management, 54 (2), 129-45.
- Kahneman, D., 2003. A perspective on judgment and choice: mapping bounded

rationality. American psychologist, 58(9), p.697. Vancouver

- Kahneman, D., 2011. Thinking, fast and slow. Macmillan.
- Kaiser, Florian G and Hannah Scheuthle (2003), 'Two challenges to a moral extension of the theory of planned behavior: moral norms and just world beliefs in conservationism', Personality and individual differences, 35 (5), 1033-48.
- Kajonius, P.J., Persson, B.N., Rosenberg, P. and Garcia, D., 2016. The (mis) measurement of the Dark Triad Dirty Dozen: exploitation at the core of the scale. PeerJ, 4, p.e1748.
- Kalafatis, S.P., Pollard, M., East, R. and Tsogas, M.H., 1999. Green marketing and Ajzen's theory of planned behaviour: a cross-market examination. Journal of consumer marketing, 16(5), pp.441-460.
- Kang, Jiyun, Chuanlan Liu, and Sang-Hoon Kim (2013), 'Environmentally sustainable textile and apparel consumption: the role of consumer knowledge, perceived consumer effectiveness and perceived personal relevance', International Journal of Consumer Studies, 37 (4), 442-52.
- Kaplan, I. (2018). Jay Z opens up to David Letterman about cheating on Beyoncé. The Independent. [Accessed Friday 6 April 2018][Online] Available from https://www.independent.co.uk/arts-entertainment/music/news/jay-z-beyonc-cheating-david-letterman-interview-infidelity-netflix-a8292416.html
- Kapur, A.S. and Samadhiya, R., 2015. Umesha de Silva, and Lucas Lu. 2015b. Vanity Capital: The Global Bull Market in Narcissism, pp.1-30.
- Karlin, B, JF Zinger, and R Ford (2015), 'The effects of feedback on energy conservation: A meta-analysis.', Psychol Bull, 141 (6), 1205-27.
- Karampournioti, E., Hennigs, N. and Wiedmann, K.P., 2018. When pain is pleasure: Identifying consumer psychopaths. Psychology & Marketing, 35(4), pp.268-282.
- Karau, S.J. and Williams, K.D., 1993. Social loafing: A meta-analytic review and theoretical integration. Journal of personality and social psychology, 65(4), p.681.
- Kaufmann, Hans Ruediger, Mohammad Fateh Ali Khan Panni, and Yianna Orphanidou (2012), 'Factors affecting consumers' green purchasing behavior: An integrated conceptual framework', Amfiteatru Economic Journal, 14 (31), 50-69.
- Kenrick, D.T. and Dantchik, A., 1983. Interactionism, idiographics, and the social psychological invasion of personality. Journal of Personality, 51(3), pp.286-307.

- Kettle, Keri L. and Gerald Häubl (2011), 'The Signature Effect: Signing Influences Consumption-Related Behavior by Priming Self-Identity', Journal of Consumer Research, 38 (3), 474-89.
- Kim, M.J. and Choi, J.N., 2018. Group identity and positive deviance in work groups. The Journal of social psychology, 158(6), pp.730-743.
- Kim, Gwang-Suk, Grace Y Lee, and Kiwan Park (2010), 'A cross-national investigation on how ethical consumers build loyalty toward fair trade brands', Journal of Business Ethics, 96 (4), 589-611.
- Kim, Jieun, Jae-Eun Kim, and Kim KP Johnson (2010), 'The customer-salesperson relationship and sales effectiveness in luxury fashion stores: the role of self monitoring', Journal of Global Fashion Marketing, 1 (4), 230-39.
- King, Maryon F and Gordon C Bruner (2000), 'Social desirability bias: A neglected aspect of validity testing', Psychology & Marketing, 17 (2), 79-103.
- Kitzmueller, Markus and Jay Shimshack (2012), 'Economic perspectives on corporate social responsibility', Journal of Economic Literature, 50 (1), 51-84.
- Kniffin, K.M., Sigirci, O. and Wansink, B., 2016. Eating heavily: men eat more in the company of women. Evolutionary Psychological Science, 2(1), pp.38-46.
- Knox, G, D Bell, and D Corsten (2011), 'Situational Determinants of Unplanned Buying in Emerging and Developed Markets–working paper report no. 11-114', Marketing Science Institute,
- Knox, George, David R Bell, and Daniel Corsten (2011), 'Situational determinants of unplanned buying in emerging and developed markets', Marketing Science Institute Working Paper Series. Marketing Science Institute,
- Koller, Monika, Arne Floh, and Alexander Zauner (2011), 'Further insights into perceived value and consumer loyalty: A "Green" perspective', Psychology and Marketing, 28 (12), 1154-76.
- Konrath, S. and Tian, Y., 2018. Narcissism and prosocial behavior. In Handbook of Trait Narcissism (pp. 371-378). Springer, Cham.
- Konrath, S., Ho, M.H. and Zarins, S., 2016. The strategic helper: Narcissism and prosocial motives and behaviors. Current Psychology, 35(2), pp.182-194.
- Koo, M. and Fishbach, A., 2012. The small-area hypothesis: Effects of progress monitoring on goal adherence. Journal of Consumer Research, 39(3), pp.493-509.
- Kosek, Bridgette (2015), 'The influence of Instagram on exercise and eating behavior',

- Kowalski, C.M., Rogoza, R., Vernon, P.A. and Schermer, J.A., 2018. The Dark Triad and the self-presentation variables of socially desirable responding and self-monitoring. Personality and Individual Differences, 120, pp.234-237.
- Kozar, Joy M and Sara B Marcketti (2011), 'Examining ethics and materialism with purchase of counterfeits', Social Responsibility Journal, 7 (3), 393-404.
- Kraus, Karolina and Julie Emontspool (2017), 'Guilt and Loathing in the Kitchen: Why Sustainable Consumers Waste Food', ACR North American Advances,
- Kwan, V.S., Kuang, L.L. and Hui, N.H., 2009. Identifying the sources of self-esteem: The mixed medley of benevolence, merit, and bias. Self and Identity, 8(2-3), pp.176-195.
- Kulow, Katina and Thomas Kramer (2016), 'In pursuit of good karma: When charitable appeals to do right go wrong', Journal of Consumer Research, 43 (2), 334-53.
- Kumar, Prashant and Bhimrao M Ghodeswar (2015), 'Factors affecting consumers' green product purchase decisions', Marketing Intelligence & Planning, 33 (3), 330-47.
- Kumar, Prashant (2016), 'State of green marketing research over 25 years (1990-2014)', Marketing Intelligence & Planning, 34 (1), 137-58.
- Lacey, Russell, Pamela A Kennett-Hensel, and Chris Manolis (2015), 'Is corporate social responsibility a motivator or hygiene factor? Insights into its bivalent nature', Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 43 (3), 315-32.
- Lamberton, C., 2016. Collaborative consumption: a goal-based framework. Current Opinion in Psychology, 10, pp.55-59.
- Landry, C.E., Lange, A., List, J.A., Price, M.K. and Rupp, N.G., 2010. Is a donor in hand better than two in the bush? Evidence from a natural field experiment. American Economic Review, 100(3), pp.958-83.
- Lang, Chunmin, Cosette M. Armstrong, and Laura A. Brannon (2013), 'Drivers of clothing disposal in the US: An exploration of the role of personal attributes and behaviours in frequent disposal', International Journal of Consumer Studies, 37 (6), 706-14.
- Langlois, Marietta A, Rick Petosa, and Jeffrey S Hallam (1999), 'Why do effective smoking prevention programs work? Student changes in social cognitive theory constructs', Journal of School Health, 69 (8), 326-31.
- Laran, Juliano, Chris Janiszewski, and Marcus Cunha Jr (2008), 'Context-dependent effects of goal primes', Journal of Consumer Research, 35 (4), 653-67.
- Laran, Juliano (2016), 'Consumer goal pursuit', Current Opinion in Psychology, 10 22-26.

- Laran, J. and Janiszewski, C., 2008. Behavioral consistency and inconsistency in the resolution of goal conflict. Journal of consumer research, 35(6), pp.967-984.
- Latham, Gary P and Craig C. Pinder (2005), 'Work Motivation Theory and Research at the Dawn of the Twenty-First Century', Annual Review of Psychology, 56 (1), 485-516.
- Latham, Gary P (2016), 'Goal setting: a possible theoretical framework for examining the effect of priming goals on organizational behavior', Current Opinion in Psychology, 12 85-88.
- Laurin, Kristin (2016), 'Interpersonal influences on goals: Current and future directions for goal contagion research', Social and Personality Psychology Compass, 10 (11), 668-78.
- Lawson, Rob (2010), 'Consumer behaviour', Marketing theory a student text, 263-80.
- Leary, M.R., Knight, P.D. and Barnes, B.D., 1986. Ethical ideologies of the Machiavellian. Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 12(1), pp.75-80.
- Lee, Christina Kwai Choi, Crystal Sheau Fen Yap, and Deborah S. Levy (2016), 'Place identity and sustainable consumption: implications for social marketing', Journal of Strategic Marketing, 24 (7), 578-93.
- Lee, Hyun-Joo (2016), 'Individual and Situational Determinants of U.S. Consumers' Buying Behavior of Organic Foods', Journal of International Food & Agribusiness Marketing, 28 (2), 117-31.
- Lee, Hyun-Joo (2016), 'Individual and situational determinants of US consumers' buying behavior of organic foods', Journal of International Food & Agribusiness Marketing, 28 (2), 117-31.
- Lee, Jihyun and Yuri Lee (2015), 'The interactions of CSR, self-congruity and purchase intention among Chinese consumers', Australasian Marketing Journal (AMJ), 23 (1), 19-26.
- Lee, Kaman (2010), 'The Green Purchase Behavior of Hong Kong Young Consumers: The Role of Peer Influence, Local Environmental Involvement, and Concrete Environmental Knowledge', Journal of International Consumer Marketing, 23 (1), 21-44.
- Lee, Kaman (2014), 'Predictors of Sustainable Consumption among Young Educated Consumers in Hong Kong', Journal of International Consumer Marketing, 26 (3), 217-38.
- Lee, Leonard and Dan Ariely (2006), 'Shopping goals, goal concreteness, and conditional promotions', Journal of Consumer Research, 33 (1), 60-70.

- Lee, Saerom, Karen Page Winterich, and William T Ross Jr (2014), 'I'm moral, but I won't help you: The distinct roles of empathy and justice in donations', Journal of Consumer Research, 41 (3), 678-96.
- Lee, S.A. and Gibbons, J.A., 2017. The Dark Triad and compassion: Psychopathy and narcissism's unique connections to observed suffering. Personality and Individual Differences, 116, pp.336-342.
- Leone, Christopher and Victoria Corte (1994), 'Concern for self-presentation and self-congruence: Self-monitoring, Machiavellianism, and social conflicts', Social Behavior and Personality: an international journal, 22 (3), 305-12.
- Leonidou, L.C., Coudounaris, D.N., Kvasova, O. and Christodoulides, P., 2015. Drivers and outcomes of green tourist attitudes and behavior: sociodemographic moderating effects. Psychology & Marketing, 32(6), pp.635-650.
- Leonidou, L.C., Leonidou, C.N. and Kvasova, O., 2010. Antecedents and outcomes of consumer environmentally friendly attitudes and behaviour. Journal of Marketing Management, 26(13-14), pp.1319-1344.
- Lien, Ching-Yu and Eric Ng (2014), 'Establishing an influence model of green consumption behavior at night market: an exploratory study in Taiwan', Proceedings of the International Conference on Marketing Studies (ICMS 2014), 1-13.
- Lilienfeld, S.O., Latzman, R.D., Watts, A.L., Smith, S.F. and Dutton, K., 2014. Correlates of psychopathic personality traits in everyday life: Results from a large community survey. Frontiers in psychology, 5, p.740.
- Lilienfeld, S.O. and Arkowitz, H., 2013. All about Me. Scientific American Mind, 23(6), pp.64-65.
- Lim, Weng Marc, Juliette Li Shuang Yong, and Kherina Suryadi (2014), 'Consumers' Perceived Value and Willingness to Purchase Organic Food', Journal of Global Marketing, 27 (5), 298-307.
- Lingnau, Volker, Florian Fuchs, and Till E Dehne-Niemann (2017), 'The influence of psychopathic traits on the acceptance of white-collar crime: do corporate psychopaths cook the books and misuse the news', Journal of Business Economics, 87 (9), 1193-227.
- Lobo, Antonio and Jue Chen (2012), 'Marketing of organic food in urban China: An analysis of consumers' lifestyle segments', Journal of International Marketing and Exporting, 17 (1), 14-26.
- Locke, E.A., Latham, G.P. and Erez, M., 1988. The determinants of goal commitment.

Academy of management review, 13(1), pp.23-39.

- Locke, Edwin A and Gary P Latham (2006), 'New directions in goal-setting theory', Current directions in psychological science, 15 (5), 265-68.
- Locke, Edwin A. and Gary P. Latham (2002), 'Building a practically useful theory of goal setting and task motivation: A 35-year odyssey.', American Psychologist, 57 (9), 705-17.
- Locke, Edwin A. and Gary P. Latham (2015), 'Breaking the Rules', Advances in Motivation Science (Elsevier), 99-126.
- Loe, T.W., Ferrell, L. and Mansfield, P., 2000. A review of empirical studies assessing ethical decision making in business. Journal of business ethics, 25(3), pp.185-204.
- Loebnitz, Natascha, Geertje Schuitema, and Klaus G. Grunert (2015), 'Who Buys Oddly Shaped Food and Why? Impacts of Food Shape Abnormality and Organic Labeling on Purchase Intentions', Psychology & Marketing, 32 (4), 408-21.
- Loken, Barbara (2006), 'Consumer Psychology: Categorization, Inferences, Affect, and Persuasion', Annual Review of Psychology, 57 (1), 453-85.
- Louro, MJ, R Pieters, and M Zeelenberg (2007), 'Dynamics of multiple-goal pursuit.', J Pers Soc Psychol, 93 (2), 174-93.
- Lowe, Ben, David Lynch, and Julian Lowe (2015), 'Reducing household water consumption: a social marketing approach', Journal of Marketing Management, 31 (3-4), 378-408.
- Łowicki, Paweł and Marcin Zajenkowski (2017), 'No empathy for people nor for God: The relationship between the Dark Triad, religiosity and empathy', Personality and Individual Differences, 115 169-73.
- Lu, Long-Chuan and Chia-Ju Lu (2010), 'Moral philosophy, materialism, and consumer ethics: An exploratory study in Indonesia', Journal of Business Ethics, 94 (2), 193-210.
- Luchs, Michael G and Todd A Mooradian (2012), 'Sex, personality, and sustainable consumer behaviour: Elucidating the gender effect', Journal of Consumer Policy, 35 (1), 127-44.
- Luchs, Michael Gerhard, Marcus Phipps, and Tim Hill (2015), 'Exploring consumer responsibility for sustainable consumption', Journal of Marketing Management, 31 (13-14), 1449-71.
- Lundblad, Louise and Iain A Davies (2016), 'The values and motivations behind sustainable fashion consumption', Journal of Consumer Behaviour, 15 (2), 149-62.

- Lyes, A., Palakshappa, N. and Bulmer, S., 2016. Cause-related events: fulfilling the objectives of social partnerships. International Journal of Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Marketing, 21(4), pp.286-301.
- Lynn, M. and Latane, B., 1984. The psychology of restaurant tipping 1. Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 14(6), pp.549-561.
- Lynn, M. and McCall, M., 2000. Gratitude and gratuity: a meta-analysis of research on the service-tipping relationship. The Journal of Socio-Economics, 29(2), pp.203-214.
- Ma, Yoon Jin and Hyun-Hwa Lee (2012), 'Understanding consumption behaviours for fair trade non-food products: focusing on self-transcendence and openness to change values', International Journal of Consumer Studies, 36 (6), 622-34.
- Madden, T.J., Ellen, P.S. and Ajzen, I., 1992. A comparison of the theory of planned behavior and the theory of reasoned action. Personality and social psychology Bulletin, 18(1), pp.3-9.
- Mahmut, Mehmet K, Louise Cridland, and Richard J Stevenson (2016), 'Exploring the Relationship between Psychopathy and Helping Behaviors in Naturalistic Settings: Preliminary Findings', The Journal of general psychology, 143 (4), 254-66.
- Malti, T and SP Dys (2018), 'From being nice to being kind: development of prosocial behaviors.', Curr Opin Psychol, 20 45-49.
- Mancha, Ruben M and Carol Y Yoder (2015), 'Cultural antecedents of green behavioral intent: An environmental theory of planned behavior', Journal of Environmental Psychology, 43 145-54.
- Maples, Jessica L, Joanna Lamkin, and Joshua D Miller (2014), 'A test of two brief measures of the dark triad: The dirty dozen and short dark triad.', Psychological assessment, 26 (1), 326.
- Markus, H., 1978. The effect of mere presence on social facilitation: An unobtrusive test. Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 14(4), pp.389-397.
- Martin, C.J., 2016. The sharing economy: A pathway to sustainability or a nightmarish form of neoliberal capitalism?. Ecological economics, 121, pp.149-159.
- Riefolo, G., 2014. Personality traits and prosocial behavior: how subjective characteristics may impact on consumption habits.
- Marsh, A., 2017. The Fear Factor: How One Emotion Connects Altruists, Psychopaths, and Everyone In-between. Basic Books.
- Marsh, Abigail A and Elise M Cardinale (2012), 'When psychopathy impairs moral

judgments: neural responses during judgments about causing fear', Social cognitive and affective neuroscience, 9 (1), 3-11.

- Martin, Diane M. and Terhi Väistö (2016), 'Reducing the Attitude-Behavior Gap in Sustainable Consumption: A Theoretical Proposition and the American Electric Vehicle Market', Review of Marketing Research: Marketing in and for a Sustainable Society (Emerald Group Publishing Limited), 193-213.
- Martiskainen, Mari (2007), 'Affecting consumer behaviour on energy demand',
- McCalley, LT and Cees JH Midden (2002), 'Energy conservation through product-integrated feedback: The roles of goal-setting and social orientation', Journal of economic psychology, 23 (5), 589-603.
- McCullough, Brian P (2013), 'Identifying the influences on sport spectator recycling behaviours using the theory of planned behaviour', International Journal of Sport Management and Marketing, 14 (1-4), 146-68.
- McDonagh, Pierre and Andrea Prothero (2014), 'Sustainability marketing research: past, present and future', Journal of Marketing Management, 30 (11-12), 1186-219.
- McDonagh, Pierre and Diane M. Martin (2015), 'Sustainable consumption: activism, innovation and brands', Journal of Marketing Management, 31 (13-14), 1379-82.
- McDonald, S., Oates, C.J., Thyne, M., Timmis, A.J. and Carlile, C., 2015. Flying in the face of environmental concern: why green consumers continue to fly. Journal of Marketing Management, 31(13-14), pp.1503-1528.
- McDonald, S., Oates, C.J., Young, C.W. and Hwang, K., 2006. Toward sustainable consumption: Researching voluntary simplifiers. Psychology & Marketing, 23(6), pp.515-534.
- McEachern, Morven G and Marylyn Carrigan (2012), 'Revisiting contemporary issues in green/ethical marketing: An introduction to the special issue', Journal of Marketing Management, 28 (3-4), 189-94.
- McElreath, R and J Koster (2014), 'Using multilevel models to estimate variation in foraging returns. Effects of failure rate, harvest size, age, and individual heterogeneity.', Hum Nat, 25 (1), 100-20.
- McFerran, B., Dahl, D.W., Fitzsimons, G.J. and Morales, A.C., 2009. I'll have what she's having: Effects of social influence and body type on the food choices of others. Journal of Consumer Research, 36(6), pp.915-929.
- McGuire, William J (1976), 'Some internal psychological factors influencing consumer

choice', Journal of Consumer research, 2 (4), 302-19.

- Melewar, T.C., Small, J., Andrews, M. and Kim, D., 2007. Revitalising suffering multinational brands: an empirical study. International marketing review.
- Memery, J., Angell, R., Megicks, P. and Lindgreen, A., 2015. Unpicking motives to purchase locally-produced food: analysis of direct and moderation effects. European Journal of Marketing, 49(7/8), pp.1207-1233.
- Merritt, Anna C, Daniel A Effron, and Benoît Monin (2010), 'Moral self-licensing: When being good frees us to be bad', Social and personality psychology compass, 4 (5), 344-57.
- Meyer, H.K. and Speakman, B., 2016. Journalists and Mobile: Melding Social Media and Social Capital. In Handbook of Research on Human Social Interaction in the Age of Mobile Devices (pp. 200-219). IGI Global.
- Michaelidou, Nina and Louise Hassan (2014), 'New advances in attitude and behavioural decision-making models', Journal of Marketing Management, 30 (5-6), 519-28.
- Miller, J.D. and Lynam, D.R., 2015. Understanding psychopathy using the basic elements of personality. Social and Personality Psychology Compass, 9(5), pp.223-237.
- Milfont, Taciano L and Ezra Markowitz (2016), 'Sustainable consumer behavior: a multilevel perspective', Current Opinion in Psychology, 10 112-17.
- Miniard, Paul W and Joel B Cohen (1983), 'Modeling personal and normative influences on behavior', Journal of Consumer Research, 10 (2), 169-80.
- Miniero, G., Codini, A., Bonera, M., Corvi, E. and Bertoli, G., 2014. Being green: from attitude to actual consumption. International journal of consumer studies, 38(5), pp.521-528.
- Mohd Suki, Norazah and Norbayah Mohd Suki (2015), 'Does religion influence consumers' green food consumption? Some insights from Malaysia', Journal of Consumer Marketing, 32 (7), 551-63.
- Mohr, L.A., Webb, D.J. and Harris, K.E., 2001. Do consumers expect companies to be socially responsible? The impact of corporate social responsibility on buying behavior. Journal of Consumer affairs, 35(1), pp.45-72.
- Moisander, J., 2007. Motivational complexity of green consumerism. International journal of consumer studies, 31(4), pp.404-409.
- Monnot, E., Reniou, F., Parguel, B. and Elgaaied-Gambier, L., 2019. "Thinking outside the packaging box": should brands consider store shelf context when eliminating overpackaging?. Journal of Business Ethics, 154(2), pp.355-370.

- Monson, T.C., Hesley, J.W. and Chernick, L., 1982. Specifying when personality traits can and cannot predict behavior: An alternative to abandoning the attempt to predict single-act criteria. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 43(2), p.385.
- Montagnini, Francesca, Isabella Maggioni, and Roberta Sebastiani (2016), 'Emerging Segments in Ethical Consumption: Young Adults and Cosmetics', Looking Forward, Looking Back: Drawing on the Past to Shape the Future of Marketing (Springer), 206-15.
- Moons, Ingrid and Patrick De Pelsmacker (2012), 'Emotions as determinants of electric car usage intention', Journal of Marketing Management, 28 (3-4), 195-237.
- Moraes, Caroline, Marylyn Carrigan, and Isabelle Szmigin (2012), 'The coherence of inconsistencies: Attitude–behaviour gaps and new consumption communities', Journal of Marketing Management, 28 (1-2), 103-28.
- Moraes, C., Carrigan, M., Bosangit, C., Ferreira, C. and McGrath, M., 2017. Understanding ethical luxury consumption through practice theories: A study of fine jewellery purchases. Journal of Business Ethics, 145(3), pp.525-543.
- Morgan, Carissa J., Candace C. Croney, and Nicole J. Olynk Widmar (2016), 'Exploring Relationships between Ethical Consumption, Lifestyle Choices, and Social Responsibility', Advances in Applied Sociology, 06 (05), 199-216.
- Morren, M. and Grinstein, A., 2016. Explaining environmental behavior across borders: A meta-analysis. Journal of Environmental Psychology, 47, pp.91-106.
- Moser, Andrea K. (2015), 'Thinking green, buying green? Drivers of pro-environmental purchasing behavior', Journal of Consumer Marketing, 32 (3), 167-75.
- Moser, Andrea K. (2016), 'Consumers' purchasing decisions regarding environmentally friendly products: An empirical analysis of German consumers', Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services, 31 389-97.
- Moyer, JW. (2015), Alphabet, now Google's overlord, ditches 'Don't be evil' for 'do the right thing', The Washington Post, [Accessed May 5, 2018] [Online] Available from https://www.washingtonpost.com/news/morning-mix/wp/2015/10/05/alphabet-now-googles-overlord-ditches-dont-be-evil-in-favor-of-do-the-right-thing/
- Muncy, J.A. and Vitell, S.J., 1992. Consumer ethics: An investigation of the ethical beliefs of the final consumer. Journal of business Research.
- Muralidharan, Sidharth and Kim Sheehan (2018), 'The Role of Guilt in Influencing Sustainable Pro-Environmental Behaviors among Shoppers: Differences in Response

by Gender to Messaging about England's Plastic-Bag Levy', Journal of Advertising Research, 58 (3), 349-62.

- Naderi, I. and Paswan, A.K., 2016. Narcissistic consumers in retail settings. Journal of Consumer Marketing, 33(5), pp.376-386.
- Naderi, I. and Strutton, D., 2014. Can normal narcissism be managed to promote green product purchases? Investigating a counterintuitive proposition. Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 44(5), pp.375-391.
- Naderi, I. and Strutton, D., 2015. I support sustainability but only when doing so reflects fabulously on me: can green narcissists be cultivated?. Journal of Macromarketing, 35(1), pp.70-83.
- Nair, Sumesh R. and Victoria J. Little (2016), 'Context, Culture and Green Consumption: A New Framework', Journal of International Consumer Marketing, 28 (3), 169-84.
- Nassivera, Federico and Sandro Sillani (2017), 'Consumer Behavior Toward Eco-Labeled Minimally Processed Fruit Product', Journal of International Food & Agribusiness Marketing, 29 (1), 29-45.
- Neo, B., Sellbom, M., Smith, S.F. and Lilienfeld, S.O., 2018. Of boldness and badness: Insights into workplace malfeasance from a triarchic psychopathy model perspective. Journal of Business Ethics, 149(1), pp.187-205.
- Newholm, Terry and Deirdre Shaw (2007), 'Studying the ethical consumer: a review of research', Journal of Consumer Behaviour, 6 (5), 253-70.
- Newman, George E., Margarita Gorlin, and Ravi Dhar (2014), 'When Going Green Backfires: How Firm Intentions Shape the Evaluation of Socially Beneficial Product Enhancements', Journal of Consumer Research, 41 (3), 823-39.
- Newman, Kevin P and Rebecca K Trump (2017), 'When are Consumers Motivated to Connect with Ethical Brands? The Roles of Guilt and Moral Identity Importance', Psychology & Marketing, 34 (6), 597-609.
- Nguyen, The Ninh, Antonio Lobo, and Steven Greenland (2017), 'Energy efficient household appliances in emerging markets: the influence of consumers' values and knowledge on their attitudes and purchase behaviour', International Journal of Consumer Studies, 41 (2), 167-77.
- Nguyen, The Ninh, Antonio Lobo, and Steven Greenland (2017), 'The influence of cultural values on green purchase behaviour', Marketing Intelligence & Planning, 35 (3), 377-96.

- Nguyen, The Ninh, Antonio Lobo, and Bach Khoa Nguyen (2017), 'Young consumers' green purchase behaviour in an emerging market', Journal of Strategic Marketing, 1-18.
- Nicholls, A.R., Madigan, D.J., Backhouse, S.H. and Levy, A.R., 2017. Personality traits and performance enhancing drugs: The Dark Triad and doping attitudes among competitive athletes. Personality and Individual Differences, 112, pp.113-116.
- Niinimäki, K., 2015. Ethical foundations in sustainable fashion. Textiles and Clothing Sustainability, 1(1), p.3.
- Nittala, Rajyalakshmi (2014), 'Green Consumer Behavior of the Educated Segment in India', Journal of International Consumer Marketing, 26 (2), 138-52.
- Norman, Paul, Mark Conner, and Russell Bell (1999), 'The theory of planned behavior and smoking cessation.', Health psychology, 18 (1), 89.
- Norton, MI, D Mochon, and D Ariely (2012), 'The IKEA effect: When labor leads to love', Journal of consumer psychology,
- Nunes, J.C. and Dreze, X., 2006. The endowed progress effect: How artificial advancement increases effort. Journal of Consumer Research, 32(4), pp.504-512.
- Nuttavuthisit, Krittinee and John Thøgersen (2017), 'The importance of consumer trust for the emergence of a market for green products: The case of organic food', Journal of Business Ethics, 140 (2), 323-37.
- O'Connor, A., 2018. Politics of the Pantry: Housewives, Food, and Consumer Protest in Twentieth-Century America.
- O'Neill, Erin (2012), 'The Degree Of Peer Influences On Children's Food Choices At Summer Camp'
- O'Fallon, Michael J and Kenneth D Butterfield (2005), 'A review of the empirical ethical decision-making literature: 1996–2003', Journal of business ethics, 59 (4), 375-413.
- Oettingen, G., Ahn, J.N., Gollwitzer, P.M., Kappes, A. and Kawada, C.L., 2014. Goal projection and giving help. Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 54, pp.204-214.
- Oh, Jong-Chul and Sung-Joon Yoon (2014), 'Theory-based approach to factors affecting ethical consumption', International Journal of Consumer Studies, 38 (3), 278-88.
- Oh, M. and Jackson, J., 2011. Animal rights vs. cultural rights: Exploring the dog meat debate in South Korea from a world polity perspective. Journal of Intercultural Studies, 32(1), pp.31-56.
- Okur, Nazan and Canan Saricam (2019), 'The Impact of Knowledge on Consumer Behaviour Towards Sustainable Apparel Consumption', Consumer Behaviour and Sustain-

able Fashion Consumption (Springer), 69-96.

- Olivola, CY and E Shafir (2013), 'The Martyrdom Effect: When Pain and Effort Increase Prosocial Contributions.', J Behav Decis Mak, 26 (1), 91-105.
- Olson, J.M. and Zanna, M.P., 1993. Attitudes and attitude change. Annual review of psychology, 44(1), pp.117-154.
- Onel, Naz (2017), 'Pro-environmental Purchasing Behavior of Consumers', Social Marketing Quarterly, 23 (2), 103-21.
- Onel, Naz (2017), 'Pro-environmental Purchasing Behavior of Consumers: The Role of Norms', Social Marketing Quarterly, 23 (2), 103-21.
- Over, H (2018), 'The influence of group membership on young children's prosocial behaviour.', Curr Opin Psychol, 20 17-20.
- Ovide, S. (2019) Facebook's Midas Touch Remains Strong After Data Scandals. The Washington Post. [Accessed 26 April 2019] [Online] Available from https://www.washingtonpost.com/business/facebooks-midas-touch-remains-strong-after-data-scandals/2019/04/25/1b2d2838-6769-11e9-a698-2a8f808c9cfb_story.html
- Ozdamar Ertekin, Zeynep and Deniz Atik (2015), 'Sustainable Markets', Journal of Macromarketing, 35 (1), 53-69.
- Pagiaslis, Anastasios and Athanasios Krystallis Krontalis (2014), 'Green Consumption Behavior Antecedents: Environmental Concern, Knowledge, and Beliefs', Psychology & Marketing, 31 (5), 335-48.
- Pancer, Ethan, Lindsay McShane, and Theodore J. Noseworthy (2017), 'Isolated Environmental Cues and Product Efficacy Penalties: The Color Green and Eco-labels', Journal of Business Ethics, 143 (1), 159-77.
- Pandelaere, Mario (2016), 'Materialism and well-being: the role of consumption', Current Opinion in Psychology, 10 33-38.
- Panzone, L., Hilton, D., Sale, L. and Cohen, D., 2016. Socio-demographics, implicit attitudes, explicit attitudes, and sustainable consumption in supermarket shopping. Journal of Economic Psychology, 55, pp.77-95.
- Papaoikonomou, Eleni, Gerard Ryan, and Matias Ginieis (2011), 'Towards a Holistic Approach of the Attitude Behaviour Gap in Ethical Consumer Behaviours: Empirical Evidence from Spain', International Advances in Economic Research, 17 (1), 77-88.
- Papaoikonomou, Eleni, Mireia Valverde, and Gerard Ryan (2012), 'Articulating the Meanings of Collective Experiences of Ethical Consumption', Journal of Business Ethics,

110 (1), 15-32.

- Papies, Esther K (2016), 'Goal priming as a situated intervention tool', Current Opinion in Psychology, 12 12-16.
- Partos, H. (2019). The NHS has a cunning plan to get more men donating blood. The Wired. [Online]. [Accessed from Tuesday 11 June 2019]. Available from https: //www.wired.co.uk/article/blood-donation-uk-nhs-men
- Payne, A., Scharf, K. and Smith, S., 2014. Online fundraising-the perfect ask? (No. 194). Competitive Advantage in the Global Economy (CAGE).
- Paul, Justin, Ashwin Modi, and Jayesh Patel (2016), 'Predicting green product consumption using theory of planned behavior and reasoned action', Journal of retailing and consumer services, 29 123-34.
- Paulhus, D.L., 2001. Normal narcissism: Two minimalist accounts. Psychological Inquiry, 12(4), pp.228-230.
- Paulhus, D.L. and Williams, K.M., 2002. The dark triad of personality: Narcissism, Machiavellianism, and psychopathy. Journal of research in personality, 36(6), pp.556-563.
- Paulhus, D.L., Westlake, B.G., Calvez, S.S. and Harms, P.D., 2013. Self-presentation style in job interviews: The role of personality and culture. Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 43(10), pp.2042-2059.
- Pelham, Brett W, Mauricio Carvallo, and John T Jones (2005), 'Implicit egotism', Current Directions in Psychological Science, 14 (2), 106-10.
- Perugini, Marco and Richard P Bagozzi (2001), 'The role of desires and anticipated emotions in goal-directed behaviours: Broadening and deepening the theory of planned behaviour', British Journal of Social Psychology, 40 (1), 79-98.
- Pettit, P., 2018. The birth of ethics: Reconstructing the role and nature of morality. Berkeley Tanner Lectures.
- Pham, Michel Tuan (2014), 'Using consumer psychology to fight obesity', Journal of Consumer Psychology, 24 (3), 411-12.
- Phau, Ian, Min Teah, and Joe Chuah (2015), 'Consumer attitudes towards luxury fashion apparel made in sweatshops', Journal of Fashion Marketing and Management, 19 (2), 169-87.
- Phipps, M., Ozanne, L.K., Luchs, M.G., Subrahmanyan, S., Kapitan, S., Catlin, J.R., Gau, R., Naylor, R.W., Rose, R.L., Simpson, B. and Weaver, T., 2013. Understand-

ing the inherent complexity of sustainable consumption: A social cognitive framework. Journal of Business Research, 66(8), pp.1227-1234.

- Piff, P.K., 2014. Wealth and the inflated self: Class, entitlement, and narcissism. Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 40(1), pp.34-43.
- Pincus, A.L. and Lukowitsky, M.R., 2010. Pathological narcissism and narcissistic personality disorder. Annual review of clinical psychology, 6, pp.421-446.
- Poortinga, W. and Whitaker, L., 2018. Promoting the use of reusable coffee cups through environmental messaging, the provision of alternatives and financial incentives. Sustainability, 10(3), p.873.
- Porpino, Gustavo, Juracy Parente, and Brian Wansink (2015), 'Food waste paradox: antecedents of food disposal in low income households', International Journal of Consumer Studies, 39 (6), 619-29.
- Promberger, M, P Dolan, and TM Marteau (2012), '"Pay them if it works": discrete choice experiments on the acceptability of financial incentives to change health related behaviour.', Soc Sci Med, 75 (12), 2509-14.
- Prothero, A., Dobscha, S., Freund, J., Kilbourne, W.E., Luchs, M.G., Ozanne, L.K. and Thøgersen, J., 2011. Sustainable consumption: Opportunities for consumer research and public policy. Journal of Public Policy & Marketing, 30(1), pp.31-38.
- Puska, P., Kurki, S., Lähdesmäki, M., Siltaoja, M. and Luomala, H., 2018. Sweet taste of prosocial status signaling: When eating organic foods makes you happy and hopeful. Appetite, 121, pp.348-359.
- Quazi, Ali, Azlan Amran, and Mehran Nejati (2016), 'Conceptualizing and measuring consumer social responsibility: a neglected aspect of consumer research', International Journal of Consumer Studies, 40 (1), 48-56.
- Quelch, J.A. and Knoop, C.I., 2018. Mental Health and Work. In Compassionate Management of Mental Health in the Modern Workplace (pp. 1-25). Springer, Cham.
- Quesenberry, K.A., 2018. The basic social media mistakes companies still make. Harvard Business Review.
- Ramirez, Edward (2013), 'The Consumer Adoption of Sustainability-Oriented Offerings: Toward a Middle-Range Theory', The Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice, 21 (4), 415-28.
- Ratner, Rebecca (2013), 'Consumer Goal Pursuit', Journal of Consumer Research, 40 (2), vi-viii.

- Ratneshwar, Srinivasan, David Glen Mick, and Cynthia Huffman (2003), 'Introduction: the "why" of consumption', The Why of Consumption (Routledge), 21-28.
- Rawwas, Mohammed YA, Scott J Vitell, and Jamal A Al-Khatib (1994), 'Consumer ethics: The possible effects of terrorism and civil unrest on the ethical values of consumers', Journal of Business Ethics, 13 (3), 223-31.
- Rawwas, M.Y., Swaidan, Z. and Oyman, M., 2005. Consumer ethics: A cross-cultural study of the ethical beliefs of Turkish and American consumers. Journal of Business Ethics, 57(2), pp.183-195.
- Reese, G and F Kohlmann (2015), 'Feeling global, acting ethically: global identification and fairtrade consumption.', J Soc Psychol, 155 (2), 98-106.
- Reimers, Vaughan, Bryce Magnuson, and Fred Chao (2016), 'The academic conceptualisation of ethical clothing', Journal of Fashion Marketing and Management: An International Journal, 20 (4), 383-99.
- Reimers, Vaughan, Bryce Magnuson, and Fred Chao (2016), 'The academic conceptualisation of ethical clothing: Could it account for the attitude behaviour gap', Journal of Fashion Marketing and Management: An International Journal, 20 (4), 383-99.
- Reis, Harry T and John G Holmes (2012), 'Perspectives on the situation', The Oxford handbook of personality and social psychology (Oxford University Press New York), 64-92.
- Rex, Judy, Antonio Lobo, and Civilai Leckie (2015), 'Evaluating the Drivers of Sustainable Behavioral Intentions: An Application and Extension of the Theory of Planned Behavior', Journal of Nonprofit & Public Sector Marketing, 27 (3), 263-84.
- Riefolo, Giovanni (2014), 'Personality traits and prosocial behavior: how subjective characteristics may impact on consumption habits'.

- Richardson, M.J., Dale, R. and Marsh, K.L., 2014. Complex dynamical systems in social and personality psychology. Handbook of research methods in social and personality psychology, 253.
- Roberts, B.W. and DelVecchio, W.F., 2000. The rank-order consistency of personality traits from childhood to old age: a quantitative review of longitudinal studies. Psychological bulletin, 126(1), p.3.
- Roberts, J.A., 1993. Sex differences in socially responsible consumers' behavior. Psychological Reports, 73(1), pp.139-148.

- Rodríguez-Vilá, O. and Bharadwaj, S., 2017. Competing on social purpose. Harvard Business Review, pp.94-101. How Brands Can Build Successful Relationships with Influencers
- Rolls, ET (2016), 'Motivation Explained: ultimate and proximate accounts of hunger and appetite', Advances in Motivation Science 3 (Elsevier), 187-249.
- Romero, Marisabel and Dipayan Biswas (2016), 'Healthy-Left, Unhealthy-Right: Can Displaying Healthy Items to the Left (versus Right) of Unhealthy Items Nudge Healthier Choices', Journal of Consumer Research, 43 (1), 103-12.
- Roos, Daniel and Rüdiger Hahn (2017), 'Understanding collaborative consumption: an extension of the Theory of Planned Behavior with value-based personal norms', Journal of Business Ethics, 1-19.
- Rosen, G., 2004. Skepticism about moral responsibility. Philosophical perspectives, 18, pp.295-313.
- Rosen, G., 2015. The alethic conception of moral responsibility. The nature of moral responsibility: New essays, 1, pp.65-88.
- Rothenberg, A., 2014. Flight from wonder: An investigation of scientific creativity. Oxford University Press.
- Ryan, R.M. and Legate, N., 2012. Through a Fly's Eye: Multiple Yet Overlapping Perspectives on Future Directions for Human Motivation Research. In The Oxford handbook of human motivation.
- Rubenstein, J.C., 2016. The lessons of effective altruism. Ethics & International Affairs, 30(4), pp.511-526.
- Sääksjärvi, Maria, Katarina Hellén, and George Balabanis (2016), 'Sometimes a celebrity holding a negative public image is the best product endorser', European Journal of Marketing, 50 (3/4), 421-41.
- Salazar, Helen Arce, Leon Oerlemans, and Saskia van Stroe-Biezen (2013), 'Social influence on sustainable consumption: evidence from a behavioural experiment', International Journal of Consumer Studies, 37 (2), 172-80.
- Sargeant, Adrian (1999), 'Charitable giving: Towards a model of donor behaviour', Journal of Marketing Management, 15 (4), 215-38.
- Saricam, Canan and Nazan Okur (2019), 'Analysing the Consumer Behavior Regarding Sustainable Fashion Using Theory of Planned Behavior', Consumer Behaviour and Sustainable Fashion Consumption (Springer), 1-37.

- Sarigollu, Emine and Rong Huang (2011), 'Examining the Relationship of Locus of Control, Pro-Environmental Attitude and Pro-Environmental Behavior', ACR North American Advances,
- Sassatelli, R., 2006. Virtue, responsibility and consumer choice: Framing critical consumerism (pp. 219-250). Berg.
- Savary, Jennifer, Kelly Goldsmith, and Ravi Dhar (2015), 'Giving against the odds: When tempting alternatives increase willingness to donate', Journal of Marketing Research, 52 (1), 27-38.
- Schaffner, Dorothea, Sascha Demarmels, and Uta Juettner (2015), 'Promoting biodiversity: do consumers prefer feelings, facts, advice or appeals', Journal of Consumer Marketing, 32 (4), 266-77.
- Schlaile, Michael P, Katharina Klein, and Wolfgang Böck (2018), 'From bounded morality to consumer social responsibility: A transdisciplinary approach to socially responsible consumption and its obstacles', Journal of Business Ethics, 149 (3), 561-88.
- Schnier, K.E., Merion, R.M., Turgeon, N. and Howard, D., 2018. Subsidizing altruism in living organ donation. Economic Inquiry, 56(1), pp.398-423.
- Schouten, Ronald, James Silver, and Jim Silver (2012), Almost a Psychopath: Do I (or Does Someone I Know) Have a Problem with Manipulation and Lack of Empathy, (Hazelden Publishing).
- Schrempf-Stirling, Judith (2013), 'The Myth of the Ethical Consumer. The Myth of the Ethical Consumer, by T. M. Devinney, P. Auger, and G. M. Eckhardt Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2010. Paperback, 258 pp., ISBN: 978-0-5217-4755-4', Business Ethics Quarterly, 23 (04), 622-24.
- Schultz, P Wesley, Stuart Oskamp, and Tina Mainieri (1995), 'Who recycles and when? A review of personal and situational factors', Journal of environmental psychology, 15 (2), 105-21.
- Schwartz, S.H., 2012. An overview of the Schwartz theory of basic values. Online readings in Psychology and Culture, 2(1), p.11.
- Schweitzer, Maurice E, Lisa Ordóñez, and Bambi Douma (2004), 'Goal setting as a motivator of unethical behavior', Academy of Management Journal, 47 (3), 422-32.
- Scott, M.L. and Nowlis, S.M., 2013. The effect of goal specificity on consumer goal reengagement. Journal of Consumer Research, 40(3), pp.444-459.
- Sebastiani, Roberta, Francesca Montagnini, and Daniele Dalli (2013), 'Ethical Con-

sumption and New Business Models in the Food Industry. Evidence from the Eataly Case', Journal of Business Ethics, 114 (3), 473-88.

- Sedikides, C., Gregg, A.P., Cisek, S. and Hart, C.M., 2007. The I that buys: Narcissists as consumers. Journal of Consumer Psychology, 17(4), pp.254-257.
- Segev, Sigal, Maria Elena Villar, and Yu Liu (2015), 'Hispanics and Green Consumption: Exploring the Green "Attitude-Behavior Gap" ', Ideas in Marketing: Finding the New and Polishing the Old (Springer), 99-99.
- Sekerka, Leslie E, Deborah Brown McCabe, and Richard P Bagozzi (2015), 'Ethical Consumerism: Movement From Desire to Decision to Buy Green', Ideas in Marketing: Finding the New and Polishing the Old (Springer), 548-57.
- Sela, Aner and Baba Shiv (2009), 'Unraveling Priming: When Does the Same Prime Activate a Goal versus a Trait', Journal of Consumer Research, 36 (3), 418-33.
- Sen, S. and Bhattacharya, C.B., 2001. Does doing good always lead to doing better? Consumer reactions to corporate social responsibility. Journal of marketing Research, 38(2), pp.225-243.
- Sen, Sankar, Shuili Du, and CB Bhattacharya (2016), 'Corporate social responsibility: a consumer psychology perspective', Current Opinion in Psychology, 10 70-75.
- Sexton, S.E. and Sexton, A.L., 2014. Conspicuous conservation: The Prius halo and willingness to pay for environmental bona fides. Journal of Environmental Economics and Management, 67(3), pp.303-317.
- Shaw, D. and Shiu, E., 2002. An assessment of ethical obligation and self-identity in ethical consumer decision-making: a structural equation modelling approach. International Journal of Consumer Studies, 26(4), pp.286-293.
- Shaw, Deirdre, Edward Shiu, and Ian Clarke (2015), 'Ethical consumption: The contribution of ethical obligation and self-identity to the theory of planned behaviour', Global Perspectives in Marketing for the 21st Century (Springer), 359-359.
- Shaw, Deirdre, Terry Newholm, and Roger Dickinson (2006), 'Consumption as voting: an exploration of consumer empowerment', European Journal of Marketing, 40 (9/10), 1049-67.
- Shaw, Deirdre, Grehan, E., Shiu, E., Hassan, L. and Thomson, J., 2005. An exploration of values in ethical consumer decision making. Journal of Consumer Behaviour: An International Research Review, 4(3), pp.185-200.
- Shaw, Deirdre, Robert McMaster, and Terry Newholm (2016), 'Care and Commitment

in Ethical Consumption: An Exploration of the 'Attitude–Behaviour Gap", Journal of Business Ethics, 136 (2), 251-65.

- Shen, D. and Dickson, M.A., 2001. Consumers' acceptance of unethical clothing consumption activities: influence of cultural identification, ethnicity, and machiavellianism. Clothing and Textiles Research Journal, 19(2), pp.76-87.
- Sheth, Jagdish N., Nirmal K. Sethia, and Shanthi Srinivas (2011), 'Mindful consumption: a customer-centric approach to sustainability', Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 39 (1), 21-39.
- Shilts, Mical Kay, Marcel Horowitz, and Marilyn S Townsend (2004), 'Goal setting as a strategy for dietary and physical activity behavior change: a review of the literature', American Journal of Health Promotion, 19 (2), 81-93.
- Sideridis, G.D., Kaissidis, A. and Padeliadu, S., 1998. Comparison of the theories of reasoned action and planned behaviour. British Journal of Educational Psychology, 68(4), pp.563-580.
- Simmons, R.S. and Snell, R.S., 2018. Machiavellianism, support for CESR, and attitudes towards environmental responsibility amongst undergraduate students. International Journal of Ethics Education, 3(1), pp.47-66.
- Singhapakdi, A., 1993. Ethical perceptions of marketers: The interaction effects of Machiavellianism and organizational ethical culture. Journal of Business Ethics, 12(5), pp.407-418.
- Singhapakdi, A. and Vitell, S.J., 1990. Marketing ethics: Factors influencing perceptions of ethical problems and alternatives. Journal of Macromarketing, 10(1), pp.4-18.
- Small, Deborah A and Cynthia Cryder (2016), 'Prosocial consumer behavior', Current Opinion in Psychology, 10 107-11.
- Sobo, E.J., 2016. What is herd immunity, and how does it relate to pediatric vaccination uptake? US parent perspectives. Social science & medicine, 165, pp.187-195.
- Song, So Young and Youn-Kyung Kim (2016), 'Theory of Virtue Ethics: Do Consumers' Good Traits Predict Their Socially Responsible Consumption', Journal of Business Ethics,
- Soper, Kate (2007), 'Re-thinking the `Good Life`', Journal of Consumer Culture, 7 (2), 205-29.
- Sparks, Paul and Richard Shepherd (1992), 'Self-identity and the theory of planned behavior: Assesing the role of identification with" green consumerism"', Social psychology

quarterly, 388-99.

- Spence, M., 1978. Job market signaling. In Uncertainty in economics (pp. 281-306). Academic Press.
- Spiteri Cornish, L., 2013. Ethical Consumption or Consumption of Ethical Products? An Exploratory Analysis of Motivations behind the Purchase of Ethical Products. ACR North American Advances.
- Stanislawski, Sumire, Yasushi Sonobe, and Shuji Ohira (2013), 'Green consumption and the theory of planned behavior in the context of post-Megaquake behaviors in Japan', ACR North American Advances,
- Steenhaut, S. and Van Kenhove, P., 2006. An empirical investigation of the relationships among a consumer's personal values, ethical ideology and ethical beliefs. Journal of Business Ethics, 64(2), pp.137-155.
- Steers, Mai-Ly N (2016), "It's complicated': Facebook's relationship with the need to belong and depression', Current Opinion in Psychology, 9 22-26.
- Steg, L., Bolderdijk, J.W., Keizer, K. and Perlaviciute, G., 2014. An integrated framework for encouraging pro-environmental behaviour: The role of values, situational factors and goals. Journal of Environmental psychology, 38, pp.104-115.
- Stieler, Maximilian and Claas Christian Germelmann (2016), 'The ties that bind us: feelings of social connectedness in socio-emotional experiences', Journal of Consumer Marketing, 33 (6), 397-407.
- Stinson, F.S., Dawson, D.A., Goldstein, R.B., Chou, S.P., Huang, B., Smith, S.M., Ruan, W.J., Pulay, A.J., Saha, T.D., Pickering, R.P. and Grant, B.F., 2008. Prevalence, correlates, disability, and comorbidity of DSM-IV narcissistic personality disorder: results from the wave 2 national epidemiologic survey on alcohol and related conditions. The Journal of clinical psychiatry, 69(7), p.1033.
- Stone, J. 2019. EU introduces new minimum rights for 'gig economy' workers like Uber drivers and Deliveroo riders. The Independent. [Online] [Accessed 17 April 2019] Available from https://www.independent.co.uk/news/world/europe/eu-workers-rights-gig-economy-uber-deliveroo-training-a8874561.html
- Strack, F. and Deutsch, R., 2015. The duality of everyday life: Dual-process and dual system models in social psychology. APA handbook of personality and social psychology, 1, pp.891-927.
- Strauss, B., 2002. Social facilitation in motor tasks: a review of research and theory.

Psychology of sport and exercise, 3(3), pp.237-256.

- Strecher, V.J., Seijts, G.H., Kok, G.J., Latham, G.P., Glasgow, R., DeVellis, B., Meertens, R.M. and Bulger, D.W., 1995. Goal setting as a strategy for health behavior change. Health education quarterly, 22(2), pp.190-200.
- Strizhakova, Yuliya and Robin A. Coulter (2013), 'The "green" side of materialism in emerging BRIC and developed markets: The moderating role of global cultural identity', International Journal of Research in Marketing, 30 (1), 69-82.
- Stroebe, W., Mensink, W., Aarts, H., Schut, H. and Kruglanski, A.W., 2017. Why dieters fail: Testing the goal conflict model of eating. In The Goal Conflict Model of Eating Behavior (pp. 21-41). Routledge.
- Swann Jr, W.B. and Seyle, C., 2005. Personality psychology's comeback and its emerging symbiosis with social psychology. Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 31(2), pp.155-165.
- Swinburn, B.A., Sacks, G., Hall, K.D., McPherson, K., Finegood, D.T., Moodie, M.L. and Gortmaker, S.L., 2011. The global obesity pandemic: shaped by global drivers and local environments. The Lancet, 378(9793), pp.804-814.
- Sung, Y., Lee, J.A., Kim, E. and Choi, S.M., 2016. Why we post selfies: Understanding motivations for posting pictures of oneself. Personality and Individual Differences, 97, pp.260-265.
- Sunstein, C.R. and Reisch, L.A., 2014. Automatically green: Behavioral economics and environmental protection. Harv. Envtl. L. Rev., 38, p.127.
- Sutton, R.I. and Hargadon, A., 1996. Brainstorming Groups in Context: Effectiveness in a Product Design Firm. Administrative Science Quarterly, pp.685-718.
- Tan, Chin-Seang, Hooi-Yin Ooi, and Yen-Nee Goh (2017), 'A moral extension of the theory of planned behavior to predict consumers' purchase intention for energy-efficient household appliances in Malaysia', Energy Policy, 107 459-71.
- Tangari, Andrea Heintz and Ronn J. Smith (2012), 'How the Temporal Framing of Energy Savings Influences Consumer Product Evaluations and Choice', Psychology and Marketing, 29 (4), 198-208.
- Tanner, Carmen and Sybille Wölfing Kast (2003), 'Promoting sustainable consumption: Determinants of green purchases by Swiss consumers', Psychology & Marketing, 20 (10), 883-902.
- Tate, Kelly, Andrew J Stewart, and Michael Daly (2014), 'Influencing green behaviour

through environmental goal priming: The mediating role of automatic evaluation', Journal of Environmental Psychology, 38 225-32.

- Taufique, K.M.R., Siwar, C., Chamhuri, N. and Sarah, F.H., 2016. Integrating general environmental knowledge and eco-label knowledge in understanding ecologically conscious consumer behavior. Procedia Economics and Finance, 37, pp.39-45.
- ten Brinke, L., Black, P.J., Porter, S. and Carney, D.R., 2015. Psychopathic personality traits predict competitive wins and cooperative losses in negotiation. Personality and Individual Differences, 79, pp.116-122.
- Teng, Yi-Man, Kun-Shan Wu, and Hsiao-Hui Liu (2015), 'Integrating altruism and the theory of planned behavior to predict patronage intention of a green hotel', Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research, 39 (3), 299-315.
- Thaler, R.H. and Sunstein, C.R., 2009. Nudge: Improving decisions about health, wealth, and happiness. Penguin.
- The Economist, 2004. The lunatic you work for.[Online] [Accessed from 10 May 2018] Available from https://www.economist.com/business/2004/05/06/the-lunatic-you-work-for
- Thøgersen, John, Pernille Haugaard, and Anja Olesen (2010), 'Consumer responses to ecolabels', European Journal of Marketing, 44 (11/12), 1787-810.
- Thøgersen, John, Anne-Katrine Jørgensen, and Sara Sandager (2012), 'Consumer decision making regarding a "green" everyday product', Psychology & Marketing, 29 (4), 187-97.
- Triki, Anis, Gail Lynn Cook, and Darlene Bay (2017), 'Machiavellianism, moral orientation, social desirability response bias, and anti-intellectualism: A profile of Canadian accountants', Journal of Business Ethics, 144 (3), 623-35.
- Triplett, N., 1898. The dynamogenic factors in pacemaking and competition. The American journal of psychology, 9(4), pp.507-533.
- Trzesniewski, K.H. and Donnellan, M.B., 2010. Rethinking "Generation Me": A study of cohort effects from 1976-2006. Perspectives on psychological science, 5(1), pp.58-75.
- Trzesniewski, K.H., Donnellan, M.B. and Robins, R.W., 2008. Is "Generation Me" really more narcissistic than previous generations?. Journal of Personality, 76(4), pp.903-918.
- Tsarenko, Y., Ferraro, C., Sands, S. and McLeod, C., 2013. Environmentally conscious consumption: The role of retailers and peers as external influences. Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services, 20(3), pp.302-310.

- Tso, L.S., Tang, W., Li, H., Yan, H.Y. and Tucker, J.D., 2016. Social media interventions to prevent HIV: a review of interventions and methodological considerations. Current opinion in psychology, 9, pp.6-10.
- Twenge, J.M., 2014. Generation me-revised and updated: Why today's young Americans are more confident, assertive, entitled–and more miserable than ever before. Simon and Schuster.
- Twenge, J.M., Konrath, S., Foster, J.D., Keith Campbell, W. and Bushman, B.J., 2008. Egos inflating over time: A cross-temporal meta-analysis of the Narcissistic Personality Inventory. Journal of personality, 76(4), pp.875-902.
- Tu, Yanping and Ayelet Fishbach (2015), 'Words speak louder: Conforming to preferences more than actions.', Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 109 (2), 193.
- Tubbs, M.E., 1986. Goal setting: A meta-analytic examination of the empirical evidence. Journal of applied psychology, 71(3), p.474.
- Urien, Bertrand and William Kilbourne (2011), 'Generativity and self-enhancement values in eco-friendly behavioral intentions and environmentally responsible consumption behavior', Psychology & Marketing, 28 (1), 69-90.
- Uusitalo, Outi and Reetta Oksanen (2004), 'Ethical consumerism: a view from Finland', International journal of consumer studies, 28 (3), 214-21.
- Uziel, L., 2007. Individual differences in the social facilitation effect: A review and meta-analysis. Journal of Research in Personality, 41(3), pp.579-601.
- Valentine, Sean, Gary Fleischman, and Lynn Godkin (2018), 'Villains, victims, and verisimilitudes: An exploratory study of unethical corporate values, bullying experiences, psychopathy, and selling professionals' ethical reasoning', Journal of Business Ethics, 148 (1), 135-54.
- Valor, Carmen (2008), 'Can consumers buy responsibly? Analysis and solutions for market failures', Journal of consumer policy, 31 (3), 315-26.
- van der Linden, S., 2017. The nature of viral altruism and how to make it stick. Nature Human Behaviour, 1(0041), pp.1-3.
- van der Wal, Arianne J., Femke van Horen, and Amir Grinstein (2016), 'The paradox of 'green to be seen': Green high-status shoppers excessively use (branded) shopping bags', International Journal of Research in Marketing, 33 (1), 216-19.
- Van Doorn, Jenny and Peter C Verhoef (2011), 'Willingness to pay for organic products: Differences between virtue and vice foods', International Journal of Research in

Marketing, 28 (3), 167-80.

- Van Houwelingen, Jeannet H and W Fred Van Raaij (1989), 'The effect of goal-setting and daily electronic feedback on in-home energy use', Journal of consumer research, 16 (1), 98-105.
- Van Koningsbruggen, G.M., Stroebe, W. and Aarts, H., 2013. Successful restrained eating and trait impulsiveness. Appetite, 60, pp.81-84.
- Van Scotter, J.R. and Roglio, K.D.D., 2018. CEO bright and dark personality: Effects on ethical misconduct. Journal of Business Ethics, pp.1-25.
- Veblen, T., 2005. Conspicuous consumption (Vol. 38). Penguin UK.
- Veiga, Ricardo Teixeira and Juliane Almeida Ribeiro (2011), 'Personality and Sustainable Consumption: an Application of the 3M Model', ACR North American Advances,
- Venhoeven, Leonie, Jan Bolderdijk, and Linda Steg (2013), 'Explaining the Paradox: How Pro-Environmental Behaviour can both Thwart and Foster Well-Being', Sustainability, 5 (4), 1372-86.
- Verbeke, W., Ouwerkerk, C. and Peelen, E., 1996. Exploring the contextual and individual factors on ethical decision making of salespeople. Journal of Business Ethics, 15(11), pp.1175-1187.
- Vermeir, Iris and Wim Verbeke (2006), 'Sustainable Food Consumption: Exploring the Consumer "Attitude – Behavioral Intention" Gap', Journal of Agricultural and Environmental Ethics, 19 (2), 169-94.
- Vermeir, Iris and Wim Verbeke (2008), 'Sustainable food consumption among young adults in Belgium: Theory of planned behaviour and the role of confidence and values', Ecological Economics, 64 (3), 542-53.
- Vikas, Ram Manohar, Rohit Varman, and Russell W Belk (2015), 'Status, caste, and market in a changing Indian village', Journal of Consumer Research, 42 (3), 472-98.
- Villani, Kathryn EA and Yoram Wind (1975), 'On the usage of "modified" personality trait measures in consumer research', Journal of Consumer Research, 2 (3), 223-28.
- Vitell, Scott J, James R Lumpkin, and Mohammed YA Rawwas (1991), 'Consumer ethics: An investigation of the ethical beliefs of elderly consumers', Journal of Business Ethics, 10 (5), 365-75.
- Vitell, Scott J and James Muncy (2005), 'The Muncy–Vitell consumer ethics scale: A modification and application', Journal of Business Ethics, 62 (3), 267-75.
- Voelpel, S.C., Eckhoff, R.A. and Förster, J., 2008. David against Goliath? Group size

and bystander effects in virtual knowledge sharing. Human Relations, 61(2), pp.271-295.

- Voyer, Peter (2015), 'Consumer proclivity for sustainable consumption: A social normative approach', ACR North American Advances,
- Wang, Jianming and Longchang Wu (2016), 'The impact of emotions on the intention of sustainable consumption choices: evidence from a big city in an emerging country', Journal of cleaner production, 126 325-36.
- Wang, Shih-Tse (2014), 'Consumer characteristics and social influence factors on green purchasing intentions', Marketing Intelligence & Planning, 32 (7), 738-53.
- Wang, Y. and Griskevicius, V., 2013. Conspicuous consumption, relationships, and rivals: Women's luxury products as signals to other women. Journal of Consumer Research, 40(5), pp.834-854.
- Wang, Yajin and Vladas Griskevicius (2014), 'Conspicuous Consumption, Relationships, and Rivals: Women's Luxury Products as Signals to Other Women', Journal of Consumer Research, 40 (5), 834-54.
- Wang, Y. and Yu, C., 2017. Social interaction-based consumer decision-making model in social commerce: The role of word of mouth and observational learning. International Journal of Information Management, 37(3), pp.179-189.
- Wansink, B (2004), 'Environmental factors that increase the food intake and consumption volume of unknowing consumers.', Annu Rev Nutr, 24 455-79.
- Wansink, Brian and Pierre Chandon (2014), 'Slim by design: Redirecting the accidental drivers of mindless overeating', Journal of Consumer Psychology, 24 (3), 413-31.
- Wated, Guillermo and Juan I Sanchez (2015), 'Managerial tolerance of nepotism: The effects of individualism–collectivism in a Latin American context', Journal of Business Ethics, 130 (1), 45-57.
- Waxman, Olivia B. (2014), Of Course Kim Kardashian Took a Selfie While Doing the Ice Bucket Challenge. Time.com. [Online] [Accessed 9 September 2014] Available from: https://time.com/3309446/kim-kardashian-als-ice-bucket-challenge/
- Webster Jr, Frederick E (1975), 'Determining the characteristics of the socially conscious consumer', Journal of consumer research, 2 (3), 188-96.
- Webster Jr, Frederick E(1975), 'Determining the characteristics of the socially conscious consumer', Journal of consumer research, 2 (3), 188-96.
- Weijo, Henri, Diane M Martin, and John W Schouten (2014), 'Against ethics and CSR: A call for a science-based marketholistic approach to sustainability in business', Hand-

book of Research on Marketing and Corporate Social Responsibility, 135-46.

- Weijters, Bert, Frank Goedertier, and Sofie Verstreken (2014), 'Online Music Consumption in Today's Technological Context: Putting the Influence of Ethics in Perspective', Journal of Business Ethics, 124 (4), 537-50.
- Weiss, Maureen R, Anthony J Amorose, and Lindsay E Kipp (2012), 'Youth motivation and participation in sport and physical activity', The Oxford handbook of human motivation (Oxford University Press),
- Wehmeyer, M.L., Abery, B.H., Zhang, D., Ward, K., Willis, D., Hossain, W.A., Balcazar, F., Ball, A., Bacon, A., Calkins, C. and Heller, T., 2011. Personal self-determination and moderating variables that impact efforts to promote self-determination. Exceptionality, 19(1), pp.19-30.
- Wells, Victoria K., Cerys A. Ponting, and Ken Peattie (2011), 'Behaviour and climate change: Consumer perceptions of responsibility', Journal of Marketing Management, 27 (7-8), 808-33.
- Wesley, Scarlett C, Min-Young Lee, and Eun Young Kim (2012), 'The role of perceived consumer effectiveness and motivational attitude on socially responsible purchasing behavior in South Korea', Journal of Global Marketing, 25 (1), 29-44.
- Westgate, Erin C and Jason Holliday (2016), 'Identity, influence, and intervention: The roles of social media in alcohol use', Current Opinion in Psychology, 9 27-32.
- Wheeler, S Christian and Jonah Berger (2007), 'When the same prime leads to different effects', Journal of Consumer Research, 34 (3), 357-68.
- White, Katherine and Bonnie Simpson (2013), 'When do (and don't) normative appeals influence sustainable consumer behaviors', Journal of Marketing, 77 (2), 78-95.
- Wilcox, K., Vallen, B., Block, L. and Fitzsimons, G.J., 2009. Vicarious goal fulfillment: When the mere presence of a healthy option leads to an ironically indulgent decision. Journal of Consumer Research, 36(3), pp.380-393.
- Williams, K., Harkins, S.G. and Latané, B., 1981. Identifiability as a deterrant to social loafing: Two cheering experiments. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 40(2), p.303.
- Williams, Patti (2014), 'Emotions and consumer behavior', Journal of Consumer Research, 40 (5), viii-xi.
- Winter, S.J., Stylianou, A.C. and Giacalone, R.A., 2004. Individual differences in the acceptability of unethical information technology practices: The case of Machiavellian-

ism and ethical ideology. Journal of Business Ethics, 54(3), pp.273-301.

- Winterich, Karen Page, Vikas Mittal, and William T. Ross (2009), 'Donation Behavior toward In-Groups and Out-Groups: The Role of Gender and Moral Identity', Journal of Consumer Research, 36 (2), 199-214.
- Woiceshyn, J (2011), 'A model for ethical decision making in business: Reasoning, intuition, and rational moral principles', Journal of business Ethics,
- Wood, R.E., Mento, A.J. and Locke, E.A., 1987. Task complexity as a moderator of goal effects: A meta-analysis. Journal of applied psychology, 72(3), p.416.
- Wright, L.T., Shaw, D., Newholm, T. and Dickinson, R., 2006. Consumption as voting: an exploration of consumer empowerment. European Journal of Marketing.
- Wu, Shwu-Ing and Jia-Yi Chen (2014), 'A model of green consumption behavior constructed by the theory of planned behavior', International Journal of Marketing Studies, 6 (5), 119.
- Wu, Shwu-Ing and Yen-Jou Chen (2014), 'The impact of green marketing and perceived innovation on purchase intention for green products', International Journal of Marketing Studies, 6 (5), 81.
- Wu, W., Wang, H., Lee, H.Y., Lin, Y.T. and Guo, F., 2019. How Machiavellianism, Psychopathy, and Narcissism Affect Sustainable Entrepreneurial Orientation: The Moderating Effect of Psychological Resilience. Frontiers in psychology, 10.
- Xie, Chunyan, Richard P Bagozzi, and Sigurd V Troye (2008), 'Trying to prosume: toward a theory of consumers as co-creators of value', Journal of the Academy of marketing Science, 36 (1), 109-22.
- Xie, W., Yu, B., Zhou, X., Sedikides, C. and Vohs, K.D., 2014. Money, moral transgressions, and blame. Journal of Consumer Psychology, 24(3), pp.299-306.
- Xue, Fei (2015), 'Message Framing and Collectivistic Appeal in Green Advertising—A Study of Chinese Consumers', Journal of International Consumer Marketing, 27 (2), 152-66.
- Yadav, Rambalak (2016), 'Altruistic or egoistic: Which value promotes organic food consumption among young consumers? A study in the context of a developing nation', Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services, 33 92-97.
- Yadav, Rambalak and Govind S Pathak (2017), 'Determinants of consumers' green purchase behavior in a developing nation: Applying and extending the theory of planned behavior', Ecological Economics, 134 114-22.

- Yamoah, F.A., Duffy, R., Petrovici, D. and Fearne, A., 2016. Towards a framework for understanding fairtrade purchase intention in the mainstream environment of supermarkets. Journal of Business Ethics, 136(1), pp.181-197.
- Yamoah, F.A., Fearne, A. and Duffy, R., 2014. Exploring supermarket loyalty card analysis to identify who buys fairtrade. The International Review of Retail, Distribution and Consumer Research, 24(3), pp.328-346.
- Yan, Ruoh-Nan, Jennifer Paff Ogle, and Karen H Hyllegard (2010), 'The impact of message appeal and message source on Gen Y consumers' attitudes and purchase intentions toward American Apparel', Journal of Marketing communications, 16 (4), 203-24.
- Yang, Haiyang, Antonios Stamatogiannakis, and Amitava Chattopadhyay (2015), 'Pursuing Attainment versus Maintenance Goals: The Interplay of Self-Construal and Goal Type on Consumer Motivation', Journal of Consumer Research, 42 (1), 93-108.
- Yao, Valery Y. (2016), 'Investigating Consumption-Related Emotions Elicited by Selected Dairy Products Using Product Emotion Measurement', International Journal of Marketing Studies, 8 (1), 86.
- Young, S. and Caisey, V., 2010. Mind shift, mode shift: A lifestyle approach to reducing car ownership and use based on behavioural economics and social marketing. Perspectives in public health, 130(3), pp.136-142.
- Young, W., Hwang, K., McDonald, S. and Oates, C.J., 2010. Sustainable consumption: green consumer behaviour when purchasing products. Sustainable development, 18(1), pp.20-31.
- Zaharia, Ioana and Constantin Zaharia (2015), 'The growth of environmentally sustainable consumerism', Economics, Management and Financial Markets, 10 (2), 115.
- Zajonc, R.B., 1965. Social facilitation. Science, 149(3681), pp.269-274.
- Zauberman, G., Ratner, R.K. and Kim, B.K., 2008. Memories as assets: Strategic memory protection in choice over time. Journal of Consumer Research, 35(5), pp.715-728.
- Zeithaml, Valarie A. (1988), 'Consumer Perceptions of Price, Quality, and Value: A Means-End Model and Synthesis of Evidence', Journal of Marketing, 52 (3), 2.
- Zhou, R. and Pham, M.T., 2004. Promotion and prevention across mental accounts: When financial products dictate consumers& investment goals. Journal of Consumer Research, 31(1), pp.125-135.
- Zollo, L., Yoon, S., Rialti, R. and Ciappei, C., 2018. Ethical consumption and con-

sumers' decision making: the role of moral intuition. Management Decision, 56(3), pp.692-710.