



Examining the Challenges of Responsible Consumption in an Emerging Market

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INTRODUCTION

Sustainability has been suggested as an emerging business megatrend that will profoundly affect firm survival and competitiveness (Lubin & Esty, 2010; Mittelstaedt, Shultz, Kilbourne, & Peterson, 2014). It has been defined as ‘meeting the needs of the present without compromising the ability of the future generations to meet their own needs’ (United Nations World Commission on Environment and Development, 1987, no page number). In essence, it focuses on the balance of people, planet, and profits (triple bottom line) or the ‘Three Es’: environment (ecological), equity (social), and economic (financial) dimensions (Savitz & Weber, 2006).

Companies, governments, non-governmental organizations, and consumers are increasingly interested in sustainability-related issues. Companies, for instance, have initiated, managed, and communicated their sustainable marketing activities through many programs, including corporate social responsibility (CSR) initiatives. The *Financial Times* (2014) reported that Fortune 500 companies spent more than US\$15 billion on CSR initiatives. However, most CSR programs have not met

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their objectives (Dans, 2015). In order for sustainable marketing practices to succeed, they need to be aligned with consumer interests, because consumers are the ultimate determinant of CSR success (Morrison & Bridwell, 2011). Olander and Thøgersen (1995) highlighted that understanding consumer behaviour is a prerequisite for successful sustainability efforts. For example, if a company offers 'green energy' products, there should be enough environmentally conscious consumers to fuel the demand for such products (Vitell, 2015). Unfortunately, to date few studies have examined consumer social responsibility (CnSR) that reflects a broad range of consumer-oriented responsibilities towards society (Caruana & Chatzidakis, 2014; Quazi, Amran, & Nejadi, 2016; Vitell, 2015).

Furthermore, an extensive literature review reveals that there are three main challenges with regard to responsible or sustainable consumption: (1) consumer segments are not only either green or non-green groups (McDonald, Oates, Alevizou, Young, & Hwang, 2012); (2) the attitude-behaviour gap phenomenon, where positive attitudes towards environmental issues do not necessarily translate into actual green purchase behaviour, has been found consistently in many sustainable consumption studies (Carrington, Neville, & Whitwell, 2010; Grimmer & Miles, 2017; Prothero et al., 2011); and (3) consumers tend to perceive certain barriers to green behaviour, which in turn affect their readiness to be green (Arli, Tan, Tjiptono, & Yang, 2018; Johnstone & Tan, 2015). These three challenges prevent many consumers from engaging in responsible consumption (Arli, Tan, Tjiptono, & Yang, 2015; Grimmer & Miles, 2017; McDonald et al., 2012). For instance, highly environmentally oriented consumers may not show consistent green product purchase due to a lack of perceived readiness to be green from the organizations that provide products (Arli et al., 2015). The mismatch between companies' sustainable consumption initiatives and consumer interests as well as targeting the wrong segments may lead to ineffective sustainable consumption programs (McDonagh & Prothero, 2014; Morrison & Bridwell, 2011). While most of the literature on responsible/sustainable consumption tends to focus on the developed country context, research in the emerging market context has been very limited (Arli et al., 2018; Newholm & Shaw, 2007).

Therefore, this chapter aims to examine these three specific challenges (i.e. responsible consumption segmentation, the attitude-behaviour gap phenomenon, and perceived readiness to be green) for the development of responsible consumption in an emerging market context. The scope of

the study is sustainability issues at the micro or individual level (Thatcher & Yeow, 2016), because consumers' responsible consumption tends to be neglected in consumer research (Oberseder, Schlegelmilch, & Murphy, 2013; Quazi et al., 2016).

Indonesia was selected as the main focus as it is the world's fourth largest population with around 256 million people (CIA, 2016) and is the largest economy in Southeast Asia with a GDP of US\$873 billion in 2015 (CIA, 2016) and a gross national income (GNI) of US\$9788 per capita in 2011 (UNDP, 2016). Like many other developing countries, Indonesia has a young population: around 42% of its people are 24 years old or younger. Furthermore, a survey conducted by the Pew Research Center (2010) reported that concerns for environmental issues were diverse across countries. About 61% of Indonesians, for instance, believe that protecting the environment should be given priority, but less than half (47%) perceive global climate change as a very serious problem, and only 32% were willing to pay higher prices to address global climate change. The same survey also showed diverse concerns for environmental issues across countries.

The structure of this chapter is organized as follows. It will briefly discuss the sustainability marketing practices and then present the arguments for the importance of responsible consumption. The three main challenges of responsible consumption (i.e. green segmentation, attitude-behaviour gap, and readiness to be green) will be examined by using two new studies (i.e. a typology of responsible consumption segments and consumer social responsibility) and a review of previous research on perceived readiness to be green as illustrations. Finally, several other challenges of responsible consumption in emerging markets and future research directions are identified.

SUSTAINABLE MARKETING PRACTICES

At the individual consumer level of sustainability issues, it is important to model the system on how the interactions of consumers and companies (marketers) work (see Fig. 12.1). On the one hand, marketers decide to produce and market a set of market offerings (sustainable products and services) as a means to achieve their objectives (i.e. profitability, growth, competitive strength, innovativeness, contribution to owners and society) within their competence and limited capacity. On the other hand, consumers have many specific needs and wants that have to be satisfied within

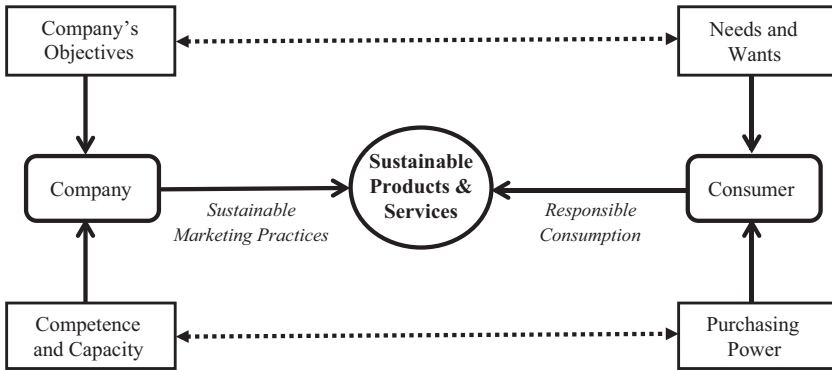


Fig. 12.1 A basic marketing system perspective

their limited purchasing power. Therefore, successful, responsible marketing and consumption practices can be realized when the market offerings serve those needs and wants effectively.

From the marketing perspective, companies are increasingly aware of the importance to adopt a sustainable perspective in their strategies (McDonagh & Prothero, 2014). Peter Drucker was the first expert to integrate sustainability issues into the marketing domain (Connelly, Ketchen, & Slater, 2011). He highlighted the need to create value for customers through socially, environmentally, and ethically responsible actions. A number of marketing practices have been developed to incorporate the triple bottom line (Cronin et al., 2011; Peattie, 2001). Kotler and Armstrong (2014), for instance, used two dimensions (needs of business and needs of customers) to identify four sustainable marketing practices: the marketing concept, the strategic planning concept, the societal marketing concept, and the sustainable marketing concept. Suggested as the ideal practice, the sustainable marketing concept was defined as ‘socially and environmentally responsible actions that meet both the immediate and future needs of customers and the company’ (Kotler & Armstrong, 2014, p. 583).

Furthermore, Peattie (2001) suggested that the development of sustainable marketing practices can be classified into three inter-related stages: ecological marketing, environmental marketing, and sustainable marketing. Ecological marketing focuses on particular environmental problems, including water and air pollution, depletion of oil reserves, and the impact of pesticide usage on the environment. Environmental marketing emphasizes

the adoption of clean technology, understanding and targeting the green consumer segments, and implementation of socio-environmental performance as a competitive advantage, whereas sustainable marketing strives to create sustainable development and the economy.

Empirical studies have indicated that sustainable marketing practices may lead to greater financial gains, higher market share, high levels of employee commitment, increased firm performance, increased capabilities, increased customer satisfaction and loyalty, improved brand image, greater firm value, lower firm-idiosyncratic risk, and cost-saving advantages (Baker & Sinkula, 2005; Cronin et al., 2011; Ganesan, George, Jap, Palmatier, & Weitz, 2009; Lash & Wellington, 2007; Luo & Bhattacharya, 2006; Maignan & Ferrell, 2001; Maignan, Ferrell, & Hult, 1999; Menguc & Ozanne, 2005; Porter & van der Linde, 1995; Pujari, Wright, & Peattie, 2003).

THE NEED FOR CONSUMER RESPONSIBLE CONSUMPTION

Responsible consumption has received significant attention in the literature in recent years (Newholm & Shaw, 2007; Phipps et al., 2013; Valor & Carrero, 2014; Webb, Mohr, & Harris, 2008). However, to date there is no single universally accepted definition of responsible consumption (Valor & Carrero, 2014). Just like many other marketing and consumer behaviour constructs (e.g. social responsibility, consumer satisfaction, and customer loyalty), the term ‘responsible consumption’ has been defined differently for different contexts. Narrow definitions include a variety of concepts: ethical consumption, consumer activism, green consumption, environmental consumption, sustainable consumption, and political consumption (McDonald et al., 2012; Valor & Carrero, 2014). A broader definition was proposed by Barnett, Cloke, Clarke, and Malpass (2005, p. 29) who defined it as ‘any practice of consumption in which explicitly registering commitment or obligation toward distant or absent others is an important dimension of the meaning of the activity to the actors involved’. Similarly, Ulusoy (2016, p. 285) formulated it as ‘the consumption that has less negative impact or more positive impact on the environment, society, the self, and the other-beings’. She argues that the definition covers various types of consumption, such as sustainable consumption, ethical consumption, consumer citizenship, socially responsible consumption, and green consumption. The absence of a common definition of responsible consumption suggests three important aspects: (1) it is a complex phenomenon with multiple dimensions (Peattie & Collins, 2009;

Phipps et al., 2013; Ulusoy, 2016); (2) responsible consumption reflects a growing awareness of the impacts of consumption practices on consumer health, society well-being, and the environment (Giesler & Veresiu, 2014); and (3) responsible consumption remains a ‘work in progress’ (Szmigin, Carrigan, & McEachern, 2009).

Why do we need to focus on responsible consumption? First, empirical studies have suggested that responsible consumption is relevant to all areas of consumption (Peattie & Collins, 2009) and consumption practices have social, ethical, and environmental consequences (Kotler & Armstrong, 2014; Mohr, Webb, & Harris, 2001). For instance, in a comprehensive analysis of the environmental impacts of 255 product types, Tukker et al. (2005) found that about 70–80% of total impacts relate to food and drink consumption, housing, and transportation services. In other words, what we buy, use, and dispose of now may affect both current and future generations (Luchs et al., 2011).

Second, it is argued that without the approval and support of consumers, sustainable marketing programs (including corporate social responsibility or CSR) cannot work effectively (Vitell, 2015). One of the main issues is that existing sustainability strategies do not directly focus on consumers (Sheth, Sethia, & Srinivas, 2011). The second issue is that consumers are responsible for creating positive social impacts by using their power in the marketplace (Dickinson & Carsky, 2005). In other words, consumers have a responsibility towards society as a whole, where they must minimize or eliminate societal harm and act proactively based on moral principles and standards for social benefit as they obtain, use, and dispose of goods and services (Mohr et al., 2001; Muncy & Vitell, 1992; Vitell, 2015). Such responsibility is called CnSR (Devinney, Auger, Eckhardt, & Birtchnell, 2006; Quazi et al., 2016; Vitell, 2015). Another issue is that there must be an alignment between sustainable marketing practices and responsible consumer consumption (see Fig. 12.1). What is important for marketers needs to be perceived similarly by consumers; otherwise the sustainable initiatives from marketers will not be effective.

Third, government policies to encourage responsible consumption behaviour have produced mixed results across different consumer segments in different countries. For example, plastic bag bans and taxes were reported to be effective in cutting the usage of plastic bags by at least 70% in several developed countries, such as the UK, the USA, Wales, Scotland, Northern Ireland, Hong Kong, Italy, and Australia (Barkham, 2016; Chow, 2016; Morley, 2016). Despite inconsistent compliances across the

country, the plastic bag ban policy in China has been considered as considerably effective in reducing plastic bag use (Block, 2016). However, no significant behavioural changes were found since plastic bag bans and taxes started nationwide in 2011 in Malaysia (Bavani & Wong, 2016). Similarly, plastic bag ban remains a dream in Indonesia, the world's second largest plastic waste producer after China (Handayani, 2016). Due to public objections, the 'pay-for-plastic bag' campaign in Indonesia has been stopped (Ribka, 2016). Building awareness of the importance of reducing waste to landfill and reducing pollution is one thing; however, behavioural change is a different issue. It seems that implementing such policies in emerging markets has its own challenges.

Government regulation and control as well as company and industry associations' support are necessary but insufficient, because consumer acceptance and active support are an equally (if not more) important key success factor (Bavani & Wong, 2016; Block, 2016; Ribka, 2016).

Consumption behaviour, sustainable marketing practices, and government policies are interconnected as sustainability is related to what consumers consume, while sustainable marketing practices and government policies need approval or support from consumers to be effective. Therefore, sustainability is the overarching factor that determines the success of sustainability initiatives.

Several theories have been used as the framework to examine the antecedents of responsible consumption. These theories include the theory of planned behaviour (Ajzen, 1991), the norm-activation-theory (Schwartz & Howard, 1981), the value-belief-norm-theory (Stern, 2000; Stern, Dietz, Abel, Guagnano, & Kalof, 1999), and the motivation-opportunity-abilities (MAO) model (Olander & Thøgersen, 1995). The phenomenon has been studied under several different terms, such as ethical consumption, green consumption, environmental consumption, sustainable consumption, and mindful consumption (McDonald et al., 2012; Phipps et al., 2013; Sheth et al., 2011; Valor & Carrero, 2014).

Existing literature provides at least three important insights. First, consumers are not either green or non-green (McDonald et al., 2012). Purchase decisions depend on the context in which they are made (e.g. individual purchase, household purchase, buying for self vs. buying for others) and on specific product category considered. Second, the attitude-behaviour gap phenomenon (i.e. expressed attitudes, behavioural intentions, and behaviour discrepancies; Belk, 1985) has been found consistently in many studies about green/sustainable consumption. Consumers'

positive attitudes about environmental issues do not necessarily translate into actual green purchase behaviour (Carrington et al., 2010; Chatzidakis, Hibbert, Mittusis, & Smith, 2004; Devinney et al., 2006; Eckhardt, Belk, & Devinney, 2010; Pickett-Baker & Ozaki, 2008). A study by Pew Research Center (2010), for instance, reveals that despite most respondents in 22 surveyed countries agreeing that the environment should be protected, only one-third of the consumers were willing to pay higher prices to address global climate change. Third, some of the reasons why consumers decided not to buy greener products include price, economical rationalization, brand, green product availability, perceived performance, cynicism, confusion, trust, situational factors (e.g. economic constraints, lack of choice), and consumers' internal obstacles (e.g. ethical standards, sense of responsibility, etc.) (e.g. Bray, Johns, & Kilburn, 2011; Chan, Wong, & Leung, 2008; Eckhardt et al., 2010; Gleim, Smith, Andrews, & Cronin, 2013; Gupta & Ogden, 2009; McDonald et al., 2012; Pickett-Baker & Ozaki, 2008; Tanner & Kast, 2003). Johnstone and Tan (2015) classified the obstacles to green behaviour into three types: 'it is too hard to be green', 'the green stigma' (a mark of disgrace towards green consumers), and 'green reservations' (consumers' uncertainty that greener consumption practices will make a difference to the environment).

However, it is important to note that most of the existing research focused on the developed country contexts. Newholm and Shaw (2007, p. 259) suggest that responsible consumption might be seen as 'a cultural phenomenon within affluent consumer cultures'. Responsible consumption in an emerging market context remains under-researched. It is expected that different socio-cultural, political, economic, and natural environment factors may contribute to different responsible behaviours between developed and emerging markets.

McCarty and Shrum (2001) suggested that the development of responsible consumer behaviour is difficult to predict. However, the three insights discussed earlier (i.e. green segmentation, the attitude-behaviour gap, and readiness to be green) are worth investigating to better understand the responsible consumption phenomenon in an emerging country context. These insights or challenges are addressed by investigating three inter-related topics: consumer social responsibility (CnSR), typology of responsible consumption segments, and perceived readiness to be green.

First, a study on CnSR was conducted to investigate consumer perceptions of social responsibility dimensions. It shows that consumers assess different responsibility domains with varying degrees of importance. What

is important for marketers/companies may not be perceived in a similar way. Therefore, if a CSR program is not aligned with consumer interests, the support from consumers will be low. This may explain why the impact of many programs, including CSR, on consumer purchasing decisions has been minimal (Mohr et al., 2001; Oberseder, Schlegelmilch, & Gruber, 2011). The second study focuses on the attitude-behaviour gap. This widely acknowledged gap found in many studies may be due to the fact that consumers are not ready to consume responsibly (Arlı et al., 2015, 2018) and/or because of ineffective segmentation and targeting of consumers. Most of the extant literature focuses on grouping consumers into either green or non-green consumers (McDonald et al., 2012) or using traditional segmentation variables, predominantly demographic characteristics, such as age, education, ethnicity, and socio-economic status (e.g. Bhate & Lawler, 1997; Laroche, Bergeron, & Barbaro-Forleo, 2001; Roberts, 1996; Sener & Hazer, 2008; Zelezny, Chua, & Aldrich, 2000). The second study proposes and examines a different typology of responsible consumption segments using two dimensions: attitude towards responsible consumption and responsible consumption behaviour. This typology directly addresses the issue of attitude and behaviour discrepancies. The third study examines the role of perceived readiness to be green as one of the predictors of green product purchase intention. Only when consumers think that they are ready to be green, then their positive attitudes towards green product purchases may translate into intentions to purchase a green product.

STUDY I: CONSUMER SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY (CnSR)

This study aims to examine how consumers assess the importance of seven social responsibility domains: community, employee, shareholder, environmental, societal, customer, and supplier (Oberseder, Schlegelmilch, Murphy, & Gruber, 2014). Each domain encompasses different issues with regard to various stakeholder groups. Vitell (2015, p. 767) argued that while businesses try to 'proactively offer social benefits or public service, and voluntarily minimize practices that harm society', such initiatives will not be successful without approval and support from consumers. In other words, corporate social responsibility needs to be accompanied by consumer social responsibility (CnSR) (Devinney et al. 2006; Quazi et al., 2016; Vitell 2015). In this context, CnSR can be defined as 'the conscious and deliberate choice to make certain consumption choices based on

personal and moral beliefs' (Devinney et al., 2006, p. 32). An understanding of CnSR may provide insights into specific social responsibility domains or sustainability issues perceived to be important by consumers. When consumers perceive a domain as important, it is more likely that they will have a more positive attitude towards relevant initiatives/practices dealing with the domain. Such positive attitude may translate into a more consistent behaviour. Moreover, a better understanding of CnSR may help companies and governments design and implement more effective sustainability programs.

Using a convenience sampling approach, 550 self-administered questionnaires were distributed to undergraduate students at a large private university in Semarang, Central Java, Indonesia. Semarang is the fifth most populous city in Indonesia (\pm 1.8 million people) and the fifth largest Indonesian city (Wikipedia, 2016). Incomplete questionnaires were excluded, resulting in 461 usable questionnaires (a response rate of 83.8%). The majority of the respondents were female (64%), Muslims (95.9%), aged between 19 and 20 years old (63.8%).

The CnSR measure was adopted from Oberseder et al. (2014). The questionnaire items were translated from English to Bahasa Indonesia and then back-translated to ensure consistency. Respondents were asked to rate the importance of each item using a 5-point Likert (1 = Not at all important; 5 = Extremely important). The reliabilities of the seven dimensions of social responsibility were as follows: community (3 items; α = 0.66), employee (6 items; α = 0.76), shareholder (3 items; α = 0.71), environmental (5 items; α = 0.80), societal (6 items; α = 0.79), customer (5 items; α = 0.79), and supplier (5 items; α = 0.83). Table 12.1 presents the scale items used in Study 1.

An ANOVA analysis was conducted to examine the mean differences between consumer perceptions of each social responsibility domain (see Table 12.2). Higher mean scores suggest higher importance of the domains, while lower mean scores indicate the opposite. The results show that consumers did not put equal importance on each social responsibility domain. The top three most important domains were community (M = 4.38), customer (M = 4.38), and employee (M = 4.28), while societal (M = 3.82) was perceived as the least important domain. The top three domains were related directly to consumer needs and wants, where they can assess the actual benefits for themselves in the short term. In contrast, shareholder, environmental, supplier, and societal domains represent indirect benefits for the consumers and may take a longer time to be effective.

Table 12.1 Consumer social responsibility measures

<i>Variable</i>	<i>Item</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>Alpha</i>
Community domain	Create jobs for people in the region	4.14	0.731	0.665
	Source products and raw materials locally	4.62	0.564	
	Respect regional values, customs, and culture	4.40	0.679	
Employee domain	Respect human rights of employees	4.40	0.598	0.762
	Set working conditions which are safe and not hazardous to health	4.62	0.572	
	Set decent working conditions	4.02	0.744	
	Treat employees equally	4.46	0.568	
	Offer adequate remuneration	4.44	0.636	
	Develop, support, and train employees	3.80	0.817	
	Ensure economic success of the company by doing successful business	4.16	0.674	
Shareholder domain	Invest capital of shareholders correctly	4.28	0.685	
	Communicate openly and honestly with shareholders	4.25	0.681	
	Reduce energy consumption	3.88	0.840	0.809
Environmental domain	Reduce emissions like CO ₂	4.11	0.842	
	Prevent waste	4.35	0.680	
	Recycle	4.32	0.723	
Societal domain	Dispose of waste correctly	3.95	0.855	0.791
	Employ people with disabilities	3.67	0.889	
	Employ long-term unemployed	3.78	0.813	
	Make donations to social facilities	3.95	0.728	
	Support employees who are involved in social projects during working hours	3.64	0.795	
	Invest in the education of young people	3.94	0.678	
	Contribute to solving societal problems	3.95	0.715	
Customer domain	Implement fair sales practices	4.40	0.644	0.797
	Label products clearly and in a comprehensible way	4.35	0.638	
	Meet quality standards	4.55	0.579	
	Set fair prices for products	4.36	0.612	
Supplier domain	Offer the possibility to file complaints	4.25	0.632	0.834
	Provide fair terms and conditions for suppliers	4.07	0.639	
	Communicate openly and honestly with suppliers	4.16	0.687	
	Negotiate fairly with suppliers	4.12	0.669	
	Select suppliers thoroughly with regard to respecting decent employment conditions	4.13	0.689	
	Control working conditions at suppliers	3.76	0.783	

Notes: The scale was adopted from Oberseder et al. (2014); 1 = Not at all important; 5 = Extremely important

SD standard deviation

Table 12.2 Mean differences between social responsibility domains

<i>No.</i>	<i>Social responsibility domain</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>
1	Community	4.387	0.512
2	Customer	4.383	0.462
3	Employee	4.289	0.448
4	Shareholder	4.229	0.542
5	Environment	4.122	0.596
6	Supplier	4.048	0.539
7	Societal	3.821	0.540
Overall		4.183	0.554

Notes: $F = 69.923$ ($p = 0.000$)

Based on Tukey HSD, no significant differences were found between 1 and 2, 1 and 3, 2 and 3, 2 and 4, 3 and 4, and 5 and 6

Interestingly, the environmental domain ($M = 4.12$) did not receive a top priority among university students who have a higher education level than average Indonesian consumers. Previous empirical studies suggest that education level has a positive relationship with environmental attitudes (Roberts, 1996; Zimmer, Stafford, & Stafford, 1994) and environmental consciousness (Manieri, Barnett, Valdero, Unipan, & Oskamp, 1997). Therefore, it is both interesting and worth investigating for future studies to explore how the general public in Indonesia and other emerging markets perceive the importance of the environmental domain as part of social responsibility dimensions.

The finding of Study 1 is slightly different from Oberseder et al.'s (2014) research in Austria that found the customer, the employee, and the environment as the most important domains. It may suggest that the importance of environmental concerns in developed and developing countries is different.

Regarding the CSR and CnSR relationship, the results of Study 1 suggest that consumers evaluate different domains of responsibility with varying importance levels (Oberseder et al., 2014). It is different from the managerial perspective as suggested by most CSR literatures that managers tend to perceive social responsibility domains as integrated elements of their CSR programs (Oberseder et al., 2014). As a consequence, CEOs and CSR managers need to focus on the top priority domains to gain consumer approval and support. This, in turn, will lead to a more alignment between sustainable marketing initiatives and responsible consumption behaviour.

STUDY 2: RESPONSIBLE CONSUMPTION SEGMENTS

While it is well established that attitude is a positive determinant of behaviour or behavioural intention (Ajzen, 1991, 2005; Bredahl, 2001), many studies on socially responsible or green consumption have found that those who claimed to have a positive attitude towards environmental or social issues do not ‘walk their talk’ (Carrington et al., 2010; Fraj & Martinez, 2007; Moisaner, 2007; Szmigin et al., 2009). Although consumers describe themselves as ‘caring’ individuals, when it comes to purchase decisions, they simply ignore social/environmental issues and repeat their usual product preferences and purchases (Devinney et al., 2006; Eckhardt et al., 2010). This discrepancy is known as the attitude-behaviour gap or green gap.

Study 2 aimed to propose an alternative typology of responsible consumption segments and provide empirical evidence for it using the purchase of environmentally friendly household products as the product context. While most of responsible consumption segmentation uses demographic variables as key dimensions, the proposed typology employs two dimensions of the attitude-behaviour gap: attitudes towards responsible consumption and responsible consumption behaviour. Drawing on Dick and Basu’s (1994) customer loyalty framework, responsible consumption is viewed as the strength of relationship between an individual’s attitude towards responsible consumption and responsible consumption behaviour (see Fig. 12.2). Attitudes towards responsible consumption refer to the degree to which an individual consumer has a favourable or unfavourable evaluation of responsible consumption (Ajzen, 1991). Responsible consumption behaviour refers to the purchase intention or the actual purchase of environmentally friendly or green products.

As depicted in Fig. 12.2, there are four responsible consumption segments. The ideal one is the ‘truly responsible segment’, where both attitudes towards responsible consumption and actual responsible behaviour are favourable or high. This segment represents consumers who ‘walk their talk’. The opposite of this segment is the ‘irresponsible segment’ that has a combination of unfavourable attitudes and low actual responsible behaviour. This segment includes skeptics or non-believers who simply do not support the sustainability or responsible consumption ideas (McDonagh & Prothero, 2014).

A favourable attitude accompanied by low responsible behaviour is the ‘latent (potential) responsible segment’, which is a serious concern for mar-

		Attitude towards Responsible Consumption	
		Unfavourable	Favourable
Responsible Consumption Behaviour	Low	Irresponsible Segment	Latent (Potential) Responsible Segment
	High	Spurious Responsible Segment	Truly Responsible Segment

Fig. 12.2 Responsible consumption segments

eters. This segment represents the attitude-behaviour gap identified in many previous empirical studies. These types of consumers claim to care for sustainable-related issues, but it is not well translated into responsible consumption behaviours (Carrington et al., 2010; Devinney et al., 2006; Prothero et al., 2011). Furthermore, an unfavourable attitude combined with high responsible behaviour signifies a ‘spurious responsible segment’. In some cases, it can also represent the ‘enforced responsible segment’, where consumers consume responsibly in compliance with the legal requirements. For instance, some consumers do not shop or refuse to use plastic bags on Saturday to avoid paying for the plastic bag charge on the day.

A survey was carried out to examine the typology outlined in Fig. 12.2. Data were collected in Daerah Istimewa Yogyakarta (DIY), a region that is commonly conceived as ‘miniature Indonesia’, due to its diverse origins and cultures of citizens (Zudianto, 2010). A total of 600 self-administered questionnaires were distributed in two big shopping malls and several residential areas in the region; 523 returned, but only 510 were usable, thereby offering an overall response rate of 85%. The demographic profiles of respondents were as follows: 56.9% of the respondents were female, 53.3% aged 26 years old or older, 48.2% were married, about 37.8% had undergraduate degrees, and 42.4% were Muslims.

Attitudes towards purchasing environmentally friendly products were used as a proxy measure for attitudes towards responsible consumption. Two separate proxies of responsible consumption behaviour were adopted (i.e. the intention to purchase environmentally friendly products and past purchase experience). All measures were adapted from Fishbein and Ajzen

(1975). Attitudes towards purchasing environmentally friendly products were measured using one item, that is, 'In general, my attitude towards purchasing an environmentally-friendly product is...' (1 = Very unfavourable; 5 = Very favourable). Purchase intentions were measured using two items: 'In the next six weeks, how likely are you to purchase environmentally-friendly household products?' (1 = No chance; 5 = Most definitely), and 'I intend to buy environmentally-friendly household products during the next six weeks' (1 = Strongly disagree; 5 = Strongly agree). 'Past purchase experiences' was used as a proxy measure for actual behaviour. It was measured using one item: *In the last six months, have you purchased household products that have been promoted as environmentally friendly?* In the questionnaire, this question was followed up with another question: *If Yes, please tick the products you have purchased, you can tick more than one.* The options were laundry detergent, dishwashing liquids, toilet paper rolls, soaps, and others. Soaps and laundry detergents were mentioned as the most purchased green household products during the last six months.

The measures used in the typology of responsible consumption segments needed a procedure to convert the scales into two categories (cf. Garland & Gendall, 2004). Samples were grouped into favourable and unfavourable attitudes as well as high and low purchase intention using medians as the cut-off points. Any scores equal to or higher than the medians were considered as favourable attitude or high purchase intention. The medians for attitude and purchase intention were 4 and 3, respectively. Moreover, past purchase experience was classified as experienced and inexperienced (never purchased before).

Chi-square (X^2) test was conducted to determine whether there was a significant association between attitude towards purchasing green products and intention to buy green products (see Fig. 12.3). The result indicates that the association was significant ($X^2 = 48.84$, $\rho = 0.000$). Similarly, a significant result was also found for the association between attitude towards purchasing green products and past purchase of green products ($X^2 = 10.39$, $\rho = 0.001$) (see Fig. 12.4). The findings suggest that the four segments were distinct groups, which provide empirical evidence for the proposed typology (Fig. 12.2). Since different segments reflect different combinations of attitude and behaviour, the typology can be used for market targeting and integrated marketing communication purposes. A CSR program or responsible consumption initiative can be most effective if it is directed to the 'truly responsible' segment, while 'potentially responsible' and perhaps 'spurious responsible' segments may be used as secondary targets.

Interestingly, as shown in Figs. 12.3 and 12.4, using purchase intention and past purchase experience as proxy measures for responsible consumption behaviour produced consistent findings of the significance of the four identified segments. For the green household product context in the

		Attitude towards Purchasing Green Products	
		Unfavourable	Favourable
Intention to Buy Green Products	Low	<i>Irresponsible</i> 62 people (12.2%)	<i>Potential Responsible</i> 60 people (11.8%)
	High	<i>Spurious Responsible</i> 73 people (14.3%)	<i>Truly Responsible</i> 315 people (61.8%)

Fig. 12.3 Responsible consumption segments in Indonesia (*Attitude * Intention to Buy Green Products*) (Notes: $X^2 = 48.847$, $\rho = 0.000$)

		Attitude towards Purchasing Green Products	
		Unfavourable	Favourable
Past Purchase of Green Products	No (Never)	<i>Irresponsible</i> 46 people (9%)	<i>Potential Responsible</i> 76 people (14.9%)
	Yes	<i>Spurious Responsible</i> 89 people (17.5%)	<i>Truly Responsible</i> 299 people (58.6%)

Fig. 12.4 Responsible consumption segments in Indonesia (*Attitude * Past Purchase of Green Products*) (Notes: $X^2 = 10.398$, $\rho = 0.001$)

Indonesian market, the majority of the consumers can be considered as falling into the ‘truly responsible’ segment (58.6% and 61.8%). The ‘latent responsible’ (or attitude-behaviour gap) segment was found to be only between 11.8% and 14.9%. One possible explanation is that the product category is something familiar for the respondents. It is commonly available to them and easy to understand. Another explanation may be attributed to the slightly higher number of female samples (56.9%). Previous studies revealed that females tend to have stronger environmental attitudes and behaviour than their male counterparts (Zelezny et al., 2000).

Despite these interesting findings, the typology of responsible consumption segments needs further examination with different products and different country contexts. In addition, different proxy measures for responsible consumption behaviour may be explored (e.g. consumption or purchase frequency or actual purchase measured in a longitudinal study (cf. Ajzen, 2002, 2011; Ajzen & Driver, 1992; Hrubes, Ajzen, & Daigle, 2001; Madden, Ellen, & Ajzen, 1992)).

THE ROLE OF PERCEIVED READINESS TO BE GREEN

As explained earlier, the relationship between green attitudes and actual behaviour has been debatable. The literature suggests that several theoretical frameworks have been proposed to explain the attitude-behaviour gap but no definitive explanation has yet been found (Kollmuss & Agyeman, 2002). Johnstone and Tan (2015) suggest that although consumers may have favourable pro-environmental attitudes, their perceptions towards ‘being green’ may influence their perceived readiness and thus their intention to engage in green consumption behaviour. The term ‘being green’ refers to engaging in environmentally friendly activities, including purchasing or using green products (Polonsky, 2011). Arli et al. (2015) suggested that ‘being green’ is yet to be perceived as a social norm in most countries, particularly emerging markets. When green social norms are relatively weak, consumers may experience only minimum or even no dissonance if there is a discrepancy between their attitudes and behaviour. As such, consumers’ attitudes towards the environment might be inadequate to predict their behaviour.

Perceived readiness to be green is defined as ‘a condition in which consumers perceive themselves as “ready” to engage in green consumption behaviour, such as buying green products’ (Arli et al., 2018, p. 10). The scale for perceived readiness to be green was developed by Johnstone,

Yang, and Tan, (2014). It consists of three reversed-coded items: (1) *I do not have sufficient knowledge about environmental issues to make decisions about these types of products*; (2) *I do not have sufficient time to learn about environmentally friendly products*; and (3) *I have too many other responsibilities at the moment to think about environmentally friendly products*. Responses are measured on a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 = ‘Strongly disagree’ to 5 = ‘Strongly agree’.

In their earlier study on Indonesian consumers, Arli et al. (2015) found that consumers’ perceived readiness to be green affects their intention to purchase green products. Whenever consumers perceive themselves as ready to be green, they are more likely to purchase green products.

In their subsequent research with a bigger sample (916 Indonesian students and non-students), Arli et al. (2018) reported that not only perceived readiness to be green positively influences consumers’ intention to purchase green products but also it mediates the relationship between consumer attitudes towards green products and purchase intentions, perceived behavioural control and purchase intention, pro-environmental self-identity (i.e. whether consumers consider themselves to be pro-environment) and purchase intentions, as well as perceived sense of responsibility (i.e. what an individual perceives as their responsibility for environmental deterioration) and purchase intention.

These initial findings suggest that consumers’ perceived readiness to be green plays an important role as one of the determinants of green product purchase intentions. Arli et al. (2015, 2018) argued that in countries where ‘being green’ is not yet considered as a social norm, engaging in responsible consumption behaviour is equivalent to ‘behavioural change’. Therefore, an individual’s readiness to change can serve as a proximal predictor of behavioural change. More importantly, Arli et al. (2018) suggest that favourable attitudes towards purchasing a green product may not translate into green product purchase intentions if consumers do not think that they are *ready* to be green. This may in part help to explain the attitude-behaviour gap in the responsible consumption context.

DISCUSSION

This chapter focuses on three key challenges to responsible consumption as identified from an intensive literature review: (1) consumers cannot be simply segmented into green and non-green consumers; (2) there is a gap between consumers’ attitude towards and their actual responsible consumption behaviour; and (3) perceived readiness to be green may affect

responsible consumption. How do the three studies (Study 1, Study 2, and a review of perceived readiness studies) examine these challenges? First, Study 1 shows that what is considered important by consumers may be different from what many managers or companies perceive. The CSR (corporate social responsibility) literature, for instance, has been predominantly focused on the managerial perspective (Aguinis & Glavas, 2012; Oberseder et al., 2013), where managers were reported to have a holistic view of social responsibility domains with regard to their stakeholders (Devinney et al., 2006; Oberseder et al., 2013, 2014). In contrast, ‘most consumers cannot fully comprehend the overarching concept of CSR’ (Oberseder et al., 2014, p. 111). As a result, consumers tend to approve and support CSR programs that are aligned with their interests (Morrison & Bridwell, 2011; Olander & Thøgersen, 1995). Study 1 also suggests that the importance of social responsibility domains may be different between consumers in developed and developing countries. On the one hand, understanding which specific social responsibility areas were perceived to be important by consumers may help CSR managers create and implement more effective CSR initiatives. On the other hand, since consumers place different importance on different social responsibility domains, it may suggest that their perceived readiness to be green may be contextual (e.g. product/service dependent). For instance, the results of Study 1 indicate that the environmental domains (such as reducing energy consumption and disposing of waste correctly; see Table 12.1) were not perceived as being as important as the community domain (e.g. sourcing products and raw materials locally). In this context, consumers’ perceived readiness to reduce their energy consumption might not be as high as their readiness to buy green products using local content materials. Therefore, Study 1 contributes to the relatively limited CnSR (consumer social responsibility) studies (Quazi et al., 2016; Vitell, 2015).

Second, using attitudes towards responsible consumption and responsible consumption behaviour as key variables, Study 2 proposes a typology of responsible consumption segments. The empirical study found support for the four identified segments (i.e. truly responsible, latent (potential) responsible, spurious responsible, and irresponsible segments). It addresses the attitude-behaviour gap issue by showing that there is only one segment (i.e. truly responsible) representing the consistent group of consumers who ‘walk their talk’ (Carrington et al., 2010). In the context of green household products (e.g. laundry detergent, dishwashing liquids, toilet paper rolls, and soaps) in Indonesia, the truly responsible segment represents between 58.6% and 61.8% of the consumers. The rest belongs to the

other three segments. The findings have three important implications. First, responsible or sustainable consumption programs can be most effective if they are directed towards the right segment, that is, the truly responsible one. It would be interesting to extend this study into another context, for instance, examining why the ‘pay-for-plastic bag’ campaign failed in Indonesia. The reasons may include the wrong segment(s) being targeted or the largest segment for plastic bag users in Indonesia was possibly the irresponsible segment. The second implication is that research on responsible consumer consumption needs to integrate both attitudinal and behavioural measures (including using actual purchase/actions) to get a more comprehensive picture of the complex phenomenon. This can overcome the limitations of the purely attitude-based studies on responsible consumption. Another implication is that the proposed typology of responsible consumption segments may be further examined in different product and country contexts to investigate the attitude-behaviour gap. While most of the previous studies focus on the profiles of green consumers using demographic segmentation, the proposed typology provides a direct examination of the attitude-behaviour gap using the most relevant variables (i.e. attitudes towards responsible consumption and responsible consumption behaviour).

Third, previous studies reveal that perceived readiness to be green has a positive effect on green product purchase intentions and mediates the influence of consumer attitude towards green products and green product purchase intention (Arlı et al., 2015, 2018). The findings suggest that perceived readiness to be green is a potential mediator explaining the attitude-behaviour gap. In other words, favourable attitudes towards responsible consumption may not translate into responsible consumption behaviour if consumers do not think that they are *ready* to be green (i.e. have sufficient knowledge about environmental issues, have sufficient time to learn about environmentally friendly products, and do not have too many other responsibilities at the moment to think about environmentally friendly products).

CONCLUDING REMARKS: CHALLENGES IN CREATING RESPONSIBLE CONSUMPTION IN EMERGING MARKETS

This chapter discusses the need for responsible consumption development in emerging markets. Through three studies, it highlights three major challenges in responsible consumption (i.e. (1) better understanding of consumer social responsibility, especially how consumers perceive different

social responsibility domains; (2) targeting the ‘right’ responsible consumption segments; and (3) helping consumers to be ready to be green).

Furthermore, several other practical challenges in developing reasonable consumption in the context of emerging markets were also identified. The first challenge is how to inform, educate, and encourage consumers to be actively responsible. This needs more time and effort to deal with the ‘potential responsible’ and ‘spurious responsible’ segments.

Second, the responsible consumption issue involves how to ‘normalize’ green/responsible behaviours. It needs a consistent repositioning strategy to encourage the adoption of more responsible consumer practices, such as monitoring electricity consumption, recycling, taking own shopping bags to the shops, using energy-saving light bulbs, buying organic food, and using public transport whenever possible (Rettie, Burchell, & Barnham, 2014; Rettie, Burchell, & Riley, 2012). Not only might a normalization strategy increase an individual’s readiness to be green, it may also attract more people to join the ‘truly responsible’ segment. Changing daily behaviour of individual consumers is the third challenge. This is particularly important when intervention strategies are not enough and identification/segmentation of consumers is not sufficient (McDonald et al., 2012). In other words, it is not easy to change a ‘potential responsible’ consumer, for instance, into a ‘truly responsible’ individual.

The fourth challenge is how to overcome barriers to be responsible consumers (Johnstone & Tan, 2015, p. 321): ‘it is too hard to be green’ (consumers’ perceptions of external factors, such as marketers, government, and people who consumers live with, that make it difficult to adopt responsible consumption practices), ‘green stigma’ (less favourable perceptions towards green consumers and green messages), and ‘green reservations’ (consumers’ ambivalence or uncertainty that greener consumption practices will make a difference to the environment). When these barriers can be overcome, consumers’ “perceived readiness to be green” will increase. Last but not least, it needs an integrated effort of relevant parties, such as marketers, policy makers, consumers, religious leaders, and others, in creating a more responsible consumption. Consumer interests have to be incorporated in social responsibility initiatives or policies, because they play an important role in determining the successful implementation of such initiatives (Morrison & Bridwell, 2011; Olander & Thøgersen, 1995; Vitell, 2015).

Despite the three studies in this chapter providing important insights into the challenges of responsible consumption in Indonesia, there are

some limitations that may provide future research avenues. First, the three studies presented in this chapter involved different samples from different cities. It may be more comprehensive to examine the CnSR, responsible consumption segments, and perceived readiness to be green issues in one integrated study. Second, sustainable/responsible consumption is a complex issue. There are many other specific issues worth researching. For instance, further studies are needed to explore (1) investigating how marketing can help developing responsible consumers, especially in the context of bottom-of-the-pyramid, green, health-conscious, and the financially literate consumers (Giesler & Veresiu, 2014); (2) investigating barriers to responsible consumption behaviour in cross-cultural and multiple product category contexts; and (3) exploring other sustainable-related issues (e.g. voluntary simplicity, unethical behaviour of buying/using/committing to counterfeit products) in the emerging market contexts.

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