

**Der Einfluss arbeitsbezogener Lebensbereiche auf
verantwortungsbewussten Konsum**

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Prüfungsausschuss:

Vorsitzender: Prof. Dr. Martin Spieß

Erstgutachterin: Prof. Dr. Eva Bamberg

Zweitgutachter: Prof. Dr. Gerhard Reese

Erste Disputationsgutachterin: Dr. Sylvie Vincent-Höper

Zweiter Disputationsgutachter: Prof. Dr. Jan Dettmers

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Eine Dissertation ist nie die Leistung einer oder eines einzelnen. Eine solche Sichtweise würde diejenigen verkennen, die mit Rat zur Seite standen oder den Rücken in Zeiten des Zweifels gestärkt haben. In diesem Sinne möchte ich hier die Unterstützung einiger wichtiger Personen würdigen.

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Publikationen

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Zusammenfassung

Ziel dieser Dissertation ist es, Zusammenhänge zwischen Arbeitskontexten und verantwortungsbewussten Kaufentscheidungen zu untersuchen und vermittelnde Faktoren hierfür zu identifizieren. Es soll der Frage nachgegangen werden, wie Arbeit auf verantwortungsbewusste Kaufentscheidungen Einfluss nimmt. In den drei empirischen Studien, die dieser Arbeit zugrunde liegen, werden unterschiedliche inhaltliche wie auch methodische Zugänge gewählt, um sich dieser Frage umfassend zu nähern: So werden jeweils unterschiedliche Facetten des Lebensbereichs „Arbeit“ (Erwerbsarbeit und Freiwilligenarbeit) betrachtet sowie verschiedene methodische Verfahren (Querschnittstudie, Tagebuchstudie und Längsschnittstudie) eingesetzt, um ein möglichst vielschichtiges Bild über den Einfluss von Arbeitskontexten auf verantwortungsbewusste Kaufentscheidungen zu erlangen.

In allen drei durchgeführten Studien in der vorliegenden Arbeit wurde eine indirekte Beziehung zwischen Arbeit bzw. Arbeitsbedingungen und verantwortungsbewussten Konsumaktivitäten bestätigt. Die Ergebnisse aus Studie 1 geben Hinweise darauf, dass Freiwilligenarbeit ein förderlicher Faktor für das verantwortungsbewusste Konsumverhalten darstellt und dass dieser Zusammenhang durch soziale Normen und kollektive Wirksamkeitsüberzeugung vermittelt wird. Die Ergebnisse aus Studie 2 zeigen, dass die arbeitsbezogene quantitative Überforderung in einer positiven indirekten Beziehung zum verantwortungsbewussten Konsumverhalten, vermittelt durch den Verlust an kognitiv-emotionalen Ressourcen, steht. In Studie 3 wird ein indirekter Zusammenhang zwischen dem soziomoralischen Klima in der Organisation und dem verantwortungsbewussten Konsum aufgezeigt. Die persönliche Überzeugung, durch die eigene Arbeit einen positiven Einfluss auf andere Menschen auszuüben (wahrgenommener sozialer Einfluss), vermittelt diesen Zusammenhang. Zusammenfassend zeigen diese Ergebnisse, dass Arbeitskontexte das verantwortungsbewusste Konsumverhalten indirekt beeinflussen können. Dies gilt sowohl für unbezahlte (Freiwilligenarbeit) als auch bezahlte Arbeit (Erwerbsarbeit).

Die Erkenntnisse dieser Arbeit liefern wichtige Implikationen für weitere Forschungsarbeiten zu individuellem verantwortungsbewussten Konsumverhalten, indem sie einen bislang weitgehend vernachlässigten Kontext beleuchten, in dem verantwortungsbewusstes Konsumverhalten maßgeblich initiiert und gefördert werden kann. Zudem lassen sich aus den Ergebnissen dieser Arbeit politische oder zivilgesellschaftliche Handlungsfelder zur Förderung verantwortungsbewussten Konsumverhaltens ableiten.

Diese Dissertation ist im Rahmen des Forschungsprojekts Gesiop („Gesundheitsmanagement aus interorganisationaler Perspektive“, gefördert vom Bundesministerium für Bildung und Forschung, Förderkennzeichen 02L14A040) entstanden.

1 Einleitung

„If the present growth trends in world population, industrialization, pollution, food production, and resource depletion continue unchanged, the limits to growth on this planet will be reached sometime within the next one hundred years.“

(Meadows et al., 1972, p. 17)

Individuelle Kaufentscheidungen sind ein Schlüsselfaktor für eine nachhaltige Wirtschaft, da sie die Hauptmotivation für Organisationen darstellen, ökologisch und sozial verantwortungsvolle Entscheidungen zu treffen (Carroll & Shabana, 2010; Dyllick & Hockerts, 2002; Schreck, 2011). Im Jahr 2019 gaben die privaten Haushalte in Deutschland insgesamt 1,74 Billionen Euro für Konsumgüter aus (Statistisches Bundesamt, 2020). Diese Summe ergibt sich durch eine Vielzahl an einzelnen Kaufentscheidungen, die Menschen täglich treffen. In jede dieser individuellen Kaufentscheidungen können ökologische und soziale Kriterien einbezogen werden.

Konsumaktivitäten sind tief in einen sozialen Kontext eingebettet und werden somit maßgeblich durch ihn beeinflusst (Georg, 1999). Dies gilt umso mehr für verantwortungsbewusste Konsumaktivitäten, da sich hier das Verhalten stärker am Wohlergehen anderer orientiert und somit im Kern „sozial“ ist (Schlaile et al., 2018). Menschen sind in vielfältige soziale Gefüge eingebettet. So können sie Teil einer Familie, Angehörige einer Gemeinde oder Mitglied in einem Freizeitverein sein. Für einen großen Teil der Menschen trifft dies auch auf die Angehörigkeit zu einer Organisation oder einer Arbeitsgruppe im Rahmen der eigenen Erwerbsarbeit zu. Für den Lebensbereich Familie gibt es bereits einige Untersuchungen dazu, wie soziale Gefüge verantwortungsvolle Kaufentscheidungen von Menschen beeinflussen (Carey, Shaw, & Shiu, 2008; Carrigan & Szmigin, 2006; Frank, 2018; O’Neill & Buckley, 2019). Die empirische Untersuchung von Einflüssen anderer Lebensbereiche steht jedoch noch aus. Insbesondere Einflüsse durch Arbeitskontexte außerhalb der Familie wurden bislang lediglich in konzeptionellen Schriften diskutiert (Carrington & Neville, 2016; Devetter & Rousseau, 2011; Muster, 2012).

Dies ist eine große Forschungslücke, wenn man berücksichtigt, welchen großen Stellenwert die Arbeit im Leben vieler Menschen einnimmt. Bei einem Vollarbeitsverhältnis verbringen Menschen den größten Teil ihrer Wachzeit mit Erwerbsarbeit. Arbeit verschafft Menschen Einflussmöglichkeiten, unterstützt Sinnerfüllung und formt einen Teil ihrer Identität (Jahoda, 1983). In Anbetracht dessen ist es nicht verwunderlich, dass der Einfluss der Arbeit

auf das Erleben und Verhalten außerhalb der Arbeit seit über einem halben Jahrhundert Gegenstand von Forschung ist (z. B. Kabanoff, 1980; Karasek, 2004; Meissner, 1971; Wilensky, 1960). Die wissenschaftliche Diskussion hat sich dabei auf die Auswirkungen der Arbeit auf die Freizeitgestaltung (Bamberg, 1986), die politische Partizipation (Karasek, 2004) und auf Familienkonflikte (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985) konzentriert. Mittlerweile ist weithin anerkannt, dass arbeitsbezogene Kontexte und Erfahrungen die Art und Weise beeinflussen, wie Arbeitende ihre Freizeit und Familienzeit erleben und gestalten (Geurts & Demerouti, 2003). Allerdings blieb die Frage danach, welche Auswirkungen arbeitsbezogener Kontexte und Erfahrungen in Bezug auf verantwortungsbewusste Kaufentscheidungen zu erwarten sind, bislang unberücksichtigt.

Die vorliegende Arbeit befasst sich mit dieser Forschungslücke. Ziel ist es, Zusammenhänge zwischen Arbeitskontexten und verantwortungsbewussten Kaufentscheidungen sowie vermittelnde Faktoren zu untersuchen. Somit soll der Frage nachgegangen werden, wie Arbeit auf verantwortungsbewusste Kaufentscheidungen Einfluss nimmt. In den drei empirischen Studien, die dieser Arbeit zugrunde liegen, werden jeweils unterschiedliche Facetten des Lebensbereichs „Arbeit“ (Erwerbsarbeit und Freiwilligenarbeit) betrachtet sowie verschiedene methodische Verfahren (Querschnittstudie, Tagebuchstudie und Längsschnittstudie) eingesetzt. Durch diesen breiten Ansatz soll ein möglichst vielschichtiges Bild über den Einfluss von Arbeitskontexten auf verantwortungsbewusste Kaufentscheidungen erarbeitet werden. Die Erkenntnisse dieser Arbeit liefern Implikationen für weitere Forschungsarbeiten zu individuellem verantwortungsbewusstem Konsumverhalten, indem sie einen bislang vernachlässigten Kontext aufzeigen, in dem entsprechendes Verhalten maßgeblich initiiert und gefördert werden kann. Zudem lassen sich aus den Ergebnissen dieser Arbeit politische oder zivilgesellschaftliche Handlungsfelder zur Förderung verantwortungsbewussten Konsumverhaltens ableiten.

2 Stand der aktuellen Forschung

Im folgenden Kapitel wird der aktuelle Forschungsstand diskutiert, beginnend mit einer terminologischen Einordnung der zentralen Begriffe. Es werden anschließend Theorien und Modelle zum Einfluss von Arbeitskontexten auf andere Lebenskontexte vorgestellt und der Stand der Forschung zu den Wirkungen von Arbeitskontexten auf verantwortungsbewusste Konsumaktivitäten aufgearbeitet. Das Kapitel schließt mit einem Fazit und der Vorstellung des Untersuchungsmodells dieser Arbeit.

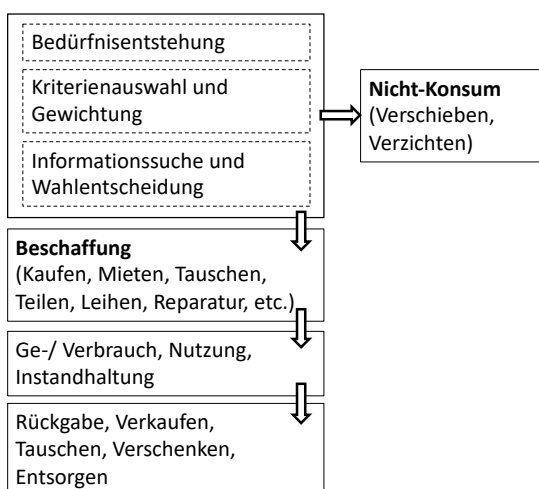
2.1 Terminologische Einordnung und Definition

In diesem Abschnitt wird zunächst das Konzept des verantwortungsbewussten Konsums vorgestellt und definiert. Anschließend erfolgt eine begriffliche Bestimmung und Einordnung für das zweite zentrale Konzept dieser Arbeit: Arbeitskontexte.

2.1.1 Verantwortungsbewusster Konsum

Betrachtet man den gesamten Konsumprozess (siehe Abbildung 1) wird deutlich, dass die Kaufentscheidung eine von mehreren Handlungsalternativen darstellt, die im Verlauf verschiedener Phasen des Konsumprozesses getroffen werden können (Reisch & Scherhorn, 2005).

Abbildung 1: Konsumprozess (in Anlehnung an Speck, 2016)



So lassen sich Kaufentscheidungen in der Phase der Beschaffung von Bedarfsobjekten verorten, welche neben der Entscheidung zum Kauf auch andere Handlungsalternativen, wie den

Tausch, die Miete oder das Teilen umfasst. Der Beschaffungsentscheidung vorgeschaltet ist etwa die persönliche Reflexion über den eigentlichen Bedarf (Reisch & Scherhorn, 2005), sodass eine alternative Konsumententscheidung auch die des Nicht-Konsums (Suffizienz; Spangenberg & Lorek, 2019) beinhaltet. Dieser Pluralität der Handlungsalternativen im Gegenstandsbereich des Konsumverhaltens ist es geschuldet, dass sich Erklärungsmodelle zu verantwortungsbewusstem Handeln im Konsumprozess auf einzelne Verhaltensweisen beschränken, kaum jedoch Konsumverhalten als Ganzes abbilden können (Homburg & Matthies, 2010). In dieser Arbeit liegt der Fokus auf individuellen Kaufentscheidungen, welche unter Einbeziehung von sozialen oder ökologischen Kriterien getroffen werden (v. a. bezogen auf Produkte, weniger Dienstleistungen).

Das akademische Interesse am verantwortungsbewussten Konsum im o. g. Sinne erstreckt sich über verschiedene wissenschaftliche Disziplinen, wie z. B. Politikwissenschaften (z. B. Stolle et al., 2005), Soziologie (z. B. Neilson & Paxton, 2010), Wirtschaftswissenschaften (z. B. Carrigan & Attalla, 2001) oder Psychologie (z. B. Griskevicius et al., 2010). Die Interdisziplinarität dieses Themas hat auch eine Vielzahl an sprachlichen Ausdrücken zur Folge, welche sich jedoch grundlegend auf das gleiche Phänomen beziehen. Drei zentrale Ausdrücke sind in diesem Zusammenhang *politischer Konsum* (Stolle et al., 2005), *nachhaltiger Konsum* (Spaargaren, 2003) und *ethischer Konsum* (Bray et al., 2011). In Tabelle 1 sind typische Definitionen dieser drei Konstrukte aufgelistet.

Tabelle 1: Definition politischer-, nachhaltiger- und ethischer Konsum

politischer Konsum (political consumption)	„[...] consumer choice of producers and products based on political or ethical considerations, or both.“ (Stolle et al., 2005, p. 246)
nachhaltiger Konsum (sustainable consumption)	„[...] involves a satisfaction of basic needs without compromising the earth’s carrying capacity and putting the life of future generations at risk.“ (Sharma & Jha, 2017, p. 78)
ethischer Konsum (ethical consumption)	„[...] the conscious and deliberate decision to make certain consumption choices due to personal moral beliefs and values.“ (Crane & Matten, 2004, p. 290)

Das Konzept des politischen Konsums basiert zu einem großen Teil auf der Annahme, dass politische Aktivitäten seltener im öffentlichen Raum im Sinne eines kollektiven Handelns stattfinden, sondern vermehrt im privaten Raum als individualisiertes politisches Handeln umgesetzt werden (Stolle et al., 2005). Dem Konzept des politischen Konsums liegt somit der Gedanke zugrunde, dass Menschen ihre politischen Überzeugungen durch ihre Konsument-

scheidungen umsetzen. Dieser Grundgedanke impliziert jedoch gleichzeitig, dass politischer Einfluss und Macht in dem Ausmaß steigen, in dem Geld für Konsumentenscheidungen zur Verfügung steht. Diese, im Grunde undemokratische, Marktlogik wird durch die Verwendung des Ausdrucks „politischer Konsum“ reproduziert, weswegen der Begriff kritisiert wurde (Føllesdal, 2003). Auf der anderen Seite kann unter Berücksichtigung alternativer Konsumentenscheidungen (z. B. Nicht-Konsum) auch argumentiert werden, dass politischer Einfluss nicht zwangsläufig an die finanziellen Mittel des Einzelnen gekoppelt ist. Gerade in einer konsumorientierten Gesellschaft kann auch die Entscheidung *gegen* den Kauf bestimmter Produkte oder Marken bedeutsame Auswirkungen haben (Tomlin, 2019).

Im Themenbereich des nachhaltigen Konsums spielen die tatsächlichen Auswirkungen des entsprechenden Konsumverhaltens eine größere Rolle. Viele Definitionen, wie auch die in Tabelle 1 aufgeführte, beinhalten daher die Zielvorstellung, dass nachhaltige Konsumhandlungen die mit Produktion und Konsum assoziierten sozialen und ökologischen Probleme im Vergleich zum konventionellen Konsum reduzieren (Belz & Bilharz, 2007). In der Forschung zu nachhaltigem Konsum wird neben diesem sogenannten effektorientierten Ansatz auch ein absichtsorientierter Ansatz verfolgt, bei dem nachhaltiger Konsum über nachhaltigkeitsbezogene Motive bzw. die Absicht, nachhaltig zu konsumieren, definiert wird (Fischer et al., 2012; Stern, 2000). Die Kombination beider Ansätze liefert Erkenntnisse zu den Fragen 1) wie Menschen zu nachhaltigen Konsumentenscheidungen motiviert werden können und 2) welche Konsumentenscheidungen besonders förderlich sind, um die mit Produktion und Konsum einhergehenden sozialen und ökologischen Probleme zu verringern. Grundsätzlich beinhalten Konzepte nachhaltigen Konsums Effizienz-, Konsistenz- und Suffizienzstrategien (Belz & Bilharz, 2007). Während Effizienz- und Konsistenzstrategien darauf abzielen, die verfügbaren Ressourcen im Produktzyklus von Herstellung, Nutzung und Entsorgung möglichst sparsam zu nutzen bzw. wiederzuverwerten, basiert Suffizienz auf der Reduzierung des Konsums auf ein angemessenes Niveau (Belz & Bilharz, 2007; Huber, 2000). Auch wenn Forschung und Praxis bislang vornehmlich Effizienz- und Konsistenzstrategien in den Mittelpunkt stellen (Grunwald, 2014), kommt dem Ansatz der Suffizienz und der damit verbundenen Reduzierung des Ressourcenverbrauchs eine besondere Bedeutung, zumindest im Bereich der umweltbezogenen Nachhaltigkeit, zu (Paech, 2013; Spangenberg & Lorek, 2019).

Wie auch bei dem Konzept des politischen Konsums wird unter dem Stichwort des ethischen Konsums eine Vielzahl unterschiedlicher Praktiken zusammengefasst. Diese umfassen zum einen den Kauf von Produkten aus ökologischer Landwirtschaft, fairem Handel oder

energieeffizienter Herstellung. Zum anderen werden aber auch der bewusste Verzicht von Produkten bestimmter Unternehmen, die durch unethische Praktiken aufgefallen sind, oder ein genereller, weitgehender Konsumverzicht einbezogen (Litter, 2011). Entsprechend dem definitorischen Schwerpunkt auf moralbezogene Werte und Überzeugungen beinhaltet ethischer Konsum jene konsumbezogenen Entscheidungen, welche auf Grundlage eines moralischen Urteils getroffen werden. Anders als beim politischen und nachhaltigen Konsum spielt die Zielorientierung der Konsumhandlungen beim ethischen Konsum eine eher untergeordnete Rolle: Sowohl beim politischen Konsum als auch beim nachhaltigen Konsum liegt die grundsätzliche Idee zugrunde, Macht und Einfluss auszuüben, um im Ergebnis ein gesellschaftspolitisches Ziel zu erreichen. Konzeptuell liegt der Fokus beim ethischen Konsum eher auf den individuellen ethischen Maßstäben, an denen die eigenen Konsumhandlungen, unter Abwägung eigennütziger Interessen, ausgerichtet werden (Carrigan & Attalla, 2001).

Vor dem Hintergrund des in dieser Arbeit berücksichtigten Teilbereichs des Konsumprozesses, also der Fokussierung auf Kaufentscheidungen, müssen die drei zuvor beschriebenen Begriffe kritisch überprüft werden. An dem Ausdruck „politischer Konsum“ wird kritisiert, dass die Höhe der für Kaufentscheidungen zur Verfügung stehenden finanziellen Mittel an das Ausmaß an politischem Einfluss geknüpft ist (Føllesdal, 2003). Dies widerspricht dem demokratischen Prinzip, nach dem jede Stimme gleich gewichtet wird.

Der Begriff des nachhaltigen Konsums ist unpassend, wenn der Fokus auf Kaufentscheidungen liegt und Suffizienzstrategien ausgeschlossen werden. Der Erwerb von Produkten oder Dienstleistungen ist auch bei ökologischeren oder sozial verträglicheren Alternativen mit einem, dem kapitalistischen Wachstumsprinzip entsprechenden, Ressourcenverbrauch assoziiert, was der Nachhaltigkeit entgegensteht (Wilk, 2014). Die Notwendigkeit, Konsum in westlichen Konsumgesellschaften generell, im Sinne der Suffizienz, zu reduzieren, um Nachhaltigkeit zu fördern, wird mittlerweile vielfach anerkannt (Paech, 2013; Spangenberg & Lorek, 2019).

Für den Ausdruck „ethischer Konsum“ lassen sich ebenfalls begriffliche Inkonsistenzen ausmachen. So gibt es eine kollektiv geteilte Vorstellung von charakteristisch ethischen Attributen (z. B. hilfsbereit, fürsorglich, mitfühlend; Aquino & Reed, 2002). Diese lassen sich einerseits in die persönlichen Kaufentscheidungen einbeziehen, sodass es sich im Ergebnis um mehr oder weniger ethische Kaufentscheidungen handelt. Andererseits kann anhand der oben genannten Attribute auch der Kaufakt als solcher evaluiert werden. Aus der Nachhaltigkeitsperspektive stellt sich dabei die Frage, ob der Kauf bestimmter Produkte nicht per se un-

ethisch ist, da dieser mit Ressourcenverbrauch assoziiert ist, was anderen Menschen unter Umständen zum Nachteil gerät. Zudem kann diskutiert werden, ob die mit dem Kauf einhergehende Eigentumsübertragung nicht grundsätzlich unethisch ist, da durch sie z. B. andere Menschen von Besitz und Nutzung ausgeschlossen werden (für eine ausführliche Diskussion der Ethik von Privateigentum siehe Hale, 2008).

Aus dieser Kritik ergibt sich die Notwendigkeit, einen alternativen Ausdruck für den in dieser Arbeit geltenden Gegenstandsbereich zu verwenden. Allen drei zuvor beschriebenen Konzepten ist gemein, dass es um individuelle Konsumhandlungen geht, bei denen die Interessen anderer einbezogen werden. In diesem Zusammenhang wird in der Literatur auch die individuelle Verantwortung von Verbraucher*innen hervorgehoben, die sich daraus ergibt, dass durch den Erwerb von Produkten die Bedingungen, unter denen sie hergestellt werden, indirekt unterstützt werden (Heidbrink, 2014). Daher wird in dieser Arbeit der Terminus „verantwortungsbewusster Konsum“ verwendet. In Anlehnung an Özkan (2009) wird verantwortungsbewusster Konsum hier in einem engeren Sinne definiert als eine Kaufhandlung, die nicht nur auf dem Wunsch nach persönlicher Nutzenmaximierung basiert, sondern bei der auch die Folgen von Kaufentscheidungen in Bezug auf Umwelt und Gesellschaft berücksichtigt werden. Insofern handelt es sich um eine absichtsvolle, individuelle Entscheidung zum Kauf von Produkten, von denen angenommen wird, dass ihre negative ökologische und soziale Folgenbilanz niedriger ist als bei vergleichbaren Produkten.

2.1.2 Arbeit

Menschen verbringen einen großen Teil ihrer Wachzeit mit Arbeitstätigkeiten. Pro Woche leisten erwachsene Menschen durchschnittlich etwa 49 Stunden bezahlte und unbezahlte Arbeit (Statistisches Bundesamt, 2017). Ausgehend vom Dritt-Personen-Kriterium (Hawrylshyn, 1977) lässt sich unbezahlte Arbeit dabei etwa von Freizeitaktivitäten dadurch abgrenzen, dass hierunter Tätigkeiten fallen, die Dritte gegen Bezahlung prinzipiell auch übernehmen könnten. „Arbeit“ geht also über die im Rahmen der formellen Erwerbsarbeit geleisteten Arbeitstätigkeiten hinaus und umfasst zusätzlich Tätigkeiten in der Haushaltsführung, Pflege und Betreuung sowie ehrenamtliche Tätigkeiten oder Nachbarschaftshilfen (Statistisches Bundesamt, 2017).

Eine Besonderheit stellt dabei die ehrenamtliche Arbeit dar. Sie erfolgt nämlich, wenn auch unbezahlt,¹ ebenso wie die abhängige Erwerbsarbeit in Anbindung an eine Organisation außerhalb des privaten Haushaltes (Bode, 2018; Gershuny, 1979). Bei diesen Organisationen handelt es sich etwa um Vereine, Verbände oder gemeinnützige („Non-Profit“) Unternehmen. Die ehrenamtliche Arbeit unterscheidet sich von der abhängigen Erwerbsarbeit insofern vor allem durch das Kriterium der Bezahlung und der damit verbundenen formalen Anbindung an das Steuer- und Sozialversicherungssystem (Hank et al., 2005). Aufgrund dieses Überschneidungsbereichs werden Arbeitskontexte in der vorliegenden Dissertation daher über den organisationalen Rahmen, in dem Arbeit stattfindet, bestimmt. Dadurch können zwei Anwendungsfelder unterschieden werden: die abhängige Erwerbsarbeit und die ehrenamtliche Arbeit.

2.2 Theorien und Modelle zum Einfluss von Arbeit auf andere Lebenskontexte

Die Untersuchung der Frage, inwiefern die Arbeit das Erleben und Verhalten der Arbeitenden über räumlich-zeitliche Grenzen hinaus beeinflusst, hat eine lange Tradition.² Frühe Untersuchungen haben etwa Beziehungen zwischen spezifischen Arbeitscharakteristika und sozialen Interaktionen in der Freizeit der Beschäftigten (Bamberg, 1986) oder ihrer Beteiligung in ehrenamtlichen Organisationen untersucht (Karasek, 2004; Meissner, 1971). Vielfach untersucht sind zudem Einflüsse der Arbeit auf das Erleben und Verhalten im Familiensystem (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Grzywacz & Marks, 2000). In den folgenden Abschnitten werden zentrale Theorien und Modelle zum Einfluss von Arbeitskontexten auf andere Lebensbereiche beschrieben und diskutiert.

2.2.1 Klassische Modelle

Die Beziehung zwischen (Erwerbs-)Arbeit und anderen Lebensbereichen wird klassischerweise auf Basis dreier verschiedener Mechanismen beschrieben: Segmentierung, Generalisierung („Spillover“) und Kompensation (Lambert, 1990; Wilensky, 1960). Die Segmentierungshypothese postuliert keine Beziehung zwischen Arbeit und anderen Lebensbereichen

¹ Eine eventuelle Aufwandsentschädigung gilt dabei nicht als Bezahlung (Hank et al., 2005).

² Es sei hier noch erwähnt, dass Wirkungen bidirektional auftreten, Arbeit also nicht nur auf andere Lebensbereiche wirkt, sondern auch durch andere Lebensbereiche beeinflusst wird (siehe Frone et al., 1992). Dies ist allerdings nicht Fokus dieser Dissertation.

und versteht diese somit als getrennte Domänen. In der Kompensationshypothese wird angenommen, dass Menschen negative Erfahrungen bei der Arbeit (z. B. übermäßig restriktive Arbeitsbedingungen) in ihrem Privatleben ausgleichen (z. B. durch besonders selbstbestimmte Freizeitaktivitäten). Die Generalisierungshypothese geht von einem Übertragungseffekt aus, sodass sich Erfahrungen und Verhaltensweisen, die bei der Arbeit erworben wurden, in einem anderen Umfeld als Reflexion der eigenen Fähigkeiten und Erfahrungen manifestieren (Geurts & Demerouti, 2003). Es wird angenommen, dass Menschen durch arbeitsbezogene Aktivitäten Fähigkeiten, Fertigkeiten und Einstellungen entwickeln, die für ihre soziale Teilhabe wichtig sind und ihr Verhalten in anderen Lebensbereichen determinieren (Wilensky, 1960). Karasek (2004) bezeichnet diese Wirkung auch als Arbeitssozialisation und nimmt an, dass die bei der Arbeit entwickelten Verhaltensmuster über die Grenzen der Arbeitssituation hinaus Aktivitäten (z. B. in der Freizeit) beeinflussen. Dies steht im Einklang mit der Theorie der Generalisierung beruflicher Lernerfahrungen („learning-generalization“, Kohn & Schooler, 1982), nach der Lernerfahrungen aus dem Arbeitskontext auf andere, nicht arbeitsbezogene Kontexte verallgemeinert werden. Während die Segmentierungshypothese als wissenschaftlich weniger belegt gilt, lässt sich sowohl für die Generalisierungs- als auch für die Kompensationshypothese empirische Evidenz finden (Geurts & Demerouti, 2003). Allen Hypothesen gemein ist hingegen, dass sie die Beziehung zwischen Arbeit und anderen Lebensbereichen eher *beschreiben*, als dass sie *erklären*, warum und unter welchen Umständen Segmentation, Kompensation und Generalisation auftreten. Eine Weiterentwicklung in diesem Sinne bieten Theorien zum Einfluss der Arbeit auf das Familienleben.

2.2.2 Theorien zum Einfluss von Arbeit auf das Familienleben

Die Frage nach dem Einfluss von Arbeit auf andere Lebensbereiche wurde in der Forschung zur Interdependenz zwischen Arbeit und Familienleben vielfach untersucht. Bedingungen der Arbeit können Aspekte des Privatlebens sowohl erschweren („conflict“) als auch erleichtern („facilitation“) (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). Dabei schließen sich diese beiden Dimensionen nicht aus, sondern können, abhängig von den konkreten Bedingungen des Arbeits- und Privatlebens, auch gleichzeitig erlebt werden (Carlson et al., 2006; Grzywacz & Butler, 2005). Inwiefern Aspekte der Arbeit das individuelle Erleben und Verhalten außerhalb der Arbeit erschweren oder erleichtern, hängt insbesondere davon ab, in welchem Ausmaß Ressourcen verbraucht oder aufgebaut werden, die für das Verhalten in anderen Lebensbereichen benötigt werden (Geurts &

Demerouti, 2003). Ressourcen werden dabei häufig sehr breit definiert als persönliche Werte (z. B. Fähigkeiten, Fertigkeiten, Energie, Einstellungen, Eigenschaften, materielle Objekte, Bedingungen), die hilfreich sind, um Ziele zu erreichen, Probleme zu lösen oder herausfordernde Situationen zu bewältigen (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Halbesleben et al., 2014; Hobfoll, 2002). Insofern können Bedingungen der Arbeitstätigkeit das Erleben und Verhalten im Privatleben beeinträchtigen, wenn die dafür benötigten Ressourcen (z. B. Zeit und Energie) bei der Arbeit „verbraucht“ werden. Andererseits können positive Auswirkungen angenommen werden, wenn entsprechende Ressourcen (z. B. Fähigkeiten und Einstellungen) durch die Arbeitstätigkeit aufgebaut oder gestärkt werden.

In der Forschung zum Einfluss der Arbeit auf das Familienleben hat sich die Unterscheidung zwischen zeit-, beanspruchungs- und verhaltensbasierten Wirkungen etabliert, wobei sowohl positive als auch negative Auswirkungen angenommen werden können (Carlson et al., 2000; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; van Steenbergen et al., 2007). Negative Auswirkungen (Konflikte) entstehen, wenn 1) die für die Arbeit aufgewendete Zeit die Teilnahme am Familienleben erschwert, 2) die durch die Arbeit erlebte Beanspruchung die Teilnahme am Familienleben beeinträchtigt oder 3) die bei der Arbeit erlernten Verhaltensweisen mit den Verhaltenserwartungen in der Familie unvereinbar sind (Carlson et al., 2000; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Positive Auswirkungen werden dagegen angenommen, wenn 1) die Zeit, die für die Arbeit aufgewendet wird, die Zeit in der Familie positiv beeinflusst, weil etwa Prioritäten gesetzt werden oder die Zeit in der Familie effektiver genutzt wird, 2) Menschen durch ihre Arbeit nicht nur beansprucht sind, sondern auch aktiviert werden (z. B. durch positive Emotionen) oder 3) bei der Arbeit Verhaltensweisen oder Fähigkeiten erlernt werden, die auch für den familiären Lebensbereich förderlich sind (van Steenbergen et al., 2007). Der letztgenannte Punkt ähnelt dabei der klassischen Generalisierungshypothese.

2.3 Stand der Forschung zu Wirkungen durch Arbeitskontexte auf verantwortungsbewussten Konsum

In der Forschung zum Einfluss der Arbeit auf das Erleben und Verhalten in anderen Lebensbereichen wurden verantwortungsvolle Konsumaktivitäten bislang weitestgehend vernachlässigt. Nachhaltigkeitsbezogene Forschungsarbeiten haben jedoch die Rolle von Arbeitskontexten bereits im Rahmen kontextueller Spillover-Effekte (Verfuerth et al., 2019) berücksichtigt und liefern konsistente Hinweise dafür, dass umweltfreundliches Verhalten bei der Arbeit umweltfreundliches Verhalten im privaten Raum nach sich zieht (Nilsson et al., 2017). So

wurde etwa bereits mehrfach gezeigt, dass Recyclingprogramme am Arbeitsplatz einen positiven Effekt auf das private Recyclingverhalten zu Hause haben können (Andersson et al., 2012; Berger & Kanetkar, 1995). Auch für energiesparende Verhaltensweisen wurden kontextuelle Spillover-Effekte ausgehend von der Arbeit nachgewiesen (Littleford et al., 2014).

Folglich werden Arbeitskontexte in der umweltpsychologischen Forschung als effektives Setting für Interventionen zur Förderung nachhaltigen Verhaltens der Beschäftigten außerhalb ihrer Arbeit angesehen. In ihrem Konzept „Green Work-Life Balance“ nehmen Muster und Schrader (2011) an, dass Unternehmen die Effektivität ihrer betrieblichen nachhaltigkeitsbezogenen Programme erhöhen können, indem sie auch das Verhalten ihrer Beschäftigten als private Konsument*innen im außerbetrieblichen Bereich berücksichtigen. Muster (2011) hebt dabei den Arbeitsplatz als wichtiges Umfeld für die Sozialisation Erwachsener hervor und schlägt vor, dass Unternehmen Einfluss auf private nachhaltige Verhaltensweisen ihrer Beschäftigten nehmen können (z. B. durch die Beeinflussung von Mobilitäts- oder Essgewohnheiten durch betriebliche Anreizsysteme). So konnte bereits in einer qualitativen Studie gezeigt werden, dass sich betriebliche, finanzielle Anreize zum Kauf und zur Nutzung von Fahrrädern bzw. des öffentlichen Nahverkehrs auch auf deren private Nutzung auswirkten, sodass das eigene Auto privat seltener genutzt wurde (Klade et al., 2013). Andere Studien haben auch negative Auswirkungen der Arbeit auf nachhaltiges Konsum- bzw. Kaufverhalten diskutiert und dabei vor allem die Aspekte Arbeitszeit (Muster, 2012; Sanne, 2002; Schor, 2008), Fahrzeiten und hohe Arbeitsanforderungen (Muster, 2012) hervorgehoben.

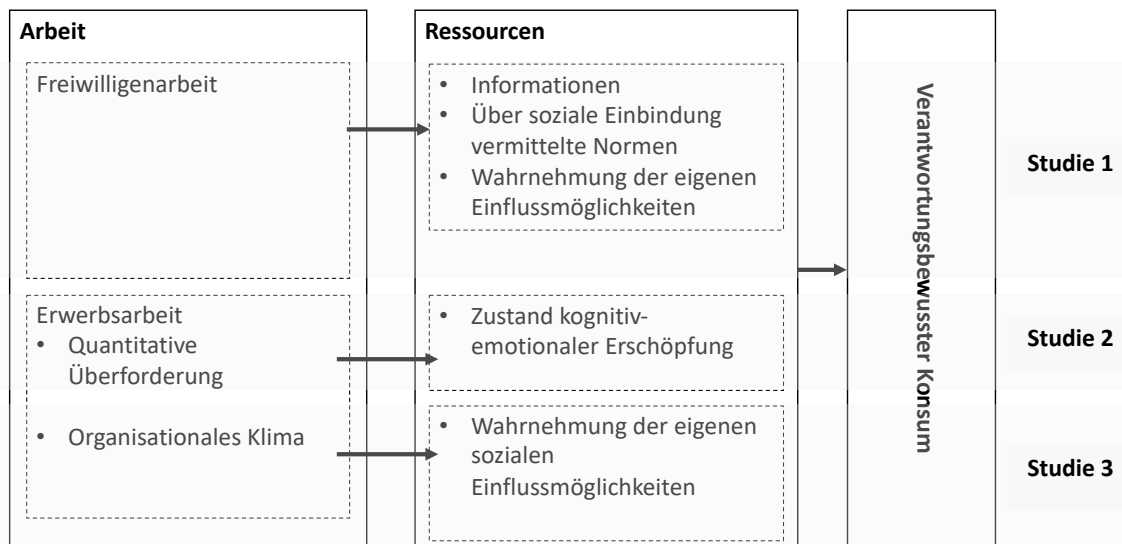
Die psychologischen Prozesse, die diesen kontextuellen Spillover-Effekten zugrunde liegen, sind bislang nicht ausreichend erforscht (Nilsson et al., 2017). Es werden jedoch verschiedene Mechanismen diskutiert, wie zum Beispiel kognitive Dissonanz (Rashid & Mohammad, 2012). Außerdem wird in diesem Zusammenhang die Bedeutung von Lernerfahrungen und der Entwicklung von Routinen bei der Arbeit als wichtiger Voraussetzungen für die Umsetzung nachhaltigen Verhaltens außerhalb der Arbeit hervorgehoben (Frezza et al., 2019; Gadeikienė et al., 2019). Auch identitätsbezogene Konstrukte (z. B. organisationale Identifikation) konnten als wichtige Einflussfaktoren herausgestellt werden (Rashid & Mohammad, 2012).

2.4 Fazit und Untersuchungsmodell

Die in dieser Arbeit zu untersuchende Frage, ob und wie sich Arbeitskontexte auf den verantwortungsbewussten Konsum auswirken können, wurde in umweltpsychologischer For-

schung bereits in Ansätzen adressiert. Entsprechende Studien beziehen sich allerdings vordergründig auf nachhaltigkeitsbezogene Verhaltensweisen in den Konsumphasen der Nutzung (z. B. sparsamer Umgang mit Arbeitsmitteln) und Entsorgung (z. B. Recycling), weniger jedoch auf Kaufhandlungen. Inwieweit die dargestellten Konzepte auch spezifisch für Kaufhandlungen gelten, bedarf daher weiterer Untersuchung. Das in Abbildung 2 dargestellte Untersuchungsmodell fasst die primären Untersuchungsvariablen der drei Studien dieser Dissertation zusammen. Grundsätzlich übernimmt dieses Modell die in vielen Spillover-Theorien zentrale Idee, dass der Einfluss von Arbeit auf Erleben und Verhalten in anderen Lebensbereichen über die Ressourcen der Arbeitstätigen vermittelt wird (Geurts & Demerouti, 2003; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012). In Anlehnung an ten Brummelhuis und Bakker (2012) werden dabei sowohl stabilere persönliche Ressourcen (z. B. Wahrnehmung der eigenen sozialen Einflussmöglichkeiten) als auch volatilere Ressourcen (z. B. Zustand kognitiv-emotionaler Erschöpfung) berücksichtigt. Arbeitskontexte finden sich sowohl in Form von bezahlter (Erwerbsarbeit) als auch unbezahlter Arbeit (Freiwilligenarbeit) wieder, wobei sich die Untersuchungen mit Fokus auf Erwerbsarbeit in besonderem Maße auf die Bedingungen, unter denen Arbeit geleistet wird, beziehen.

Abbildung 2: Untersuchungsmodell und Überblick über die drei Studien dieser Dissertation



3 Zusammenfassung der drei Artikel

3.1 Studie 1: „Volunteers as responsible consumers – An analysis of psychological factors in the interrelation between volunteering and responsible consumption“

Ausgangspunkt für diese Studie bilden mehrheitlich soziologisch geprägte Forschungsergebnisse, die zeigen, dass Menschen, die sich freiwillig in Vereinen oder Verbänden engagieren, im Vergleich zu anderen Personen eher ethische Prinzipien in ihre Kaufentscheidungen einbeziehen. Allerdings wurden mögliche Mediatoren für diesen Zusammenhang bislang noch nicht untersucht, sodass die Frage offenbleibt, wodurch dieser zu erklären ist. Einen naheliegenden und häufig diskutierten Faktor stellen dabei prosoziale Werte dar, welche sowohl das freiwillige Engagement als auch verantwortungsbewusste Konsumaktivitäten leiten.

Darauf aufbauend wurde in dieser Studie ein Modell aufgestellt und getestet, in dem unter Kontrolle prosozialer Werte Kontextfaktoren der Freiwilligenarbeit als Mediatoren getestet wurden. In diesem Modell wird postuliert, dass freiwilliges Engagement positiv mit 1) der Verfügbarkeit von Informationen, 2) über soziale Einbettung vermittelte Normen und 3) der Wahrnehmung der eigenen Einflussmöglichkeiten als Konsument*in zusammenhängt. Weiterhin wird angenommen, dass diese Faktoren mit verantwortungsvollem Konsum zusammenhängen. In der Querschnittstudie mit $N = 1012$ Teilnehmenden wurden mittels eines Strukturgleichungsmodells positive Zusammenhänge zwischen freiwilligem Engagement, sozialen Normen, wahrgenommenen Einflussmöglichkeiten und verantwortungsbewusstem Konsum hypothesenkonform aufgezeigt. Die Verfügbarkeit von Informationen zeigte keine signifikanten Zusammenhänge mit freiwilligem Engagement oder verantwortungsbewusstem Konsum.

Trotz möglicher Einschränkungen durch die Reliabilität der eingesetzten Messinstrumente, das Querschnittsdesign und Verzerrungen durch die Stichprobenziehung lassen sich aus der Studie wichtige praktische Implikationen ableiten. So deuten die Ergebnisse darauf hin, dass Menschen sich im Rahmen ihrer Freiwilligenarbeit in Kontexten bewegen, die sich positiv auf verantwortungsbewusstes Kaufverhalten auswirken. Vereine können daher als fruchtbarer Boden für die Initiierung oder Förderung von verantwortungsvolleren Konsumpraktiken angesehen werden. Politische Interventionen, die darauf abzielen, nachhaltigen Konsum zu fördern, sollten daher Vereine, Verbände und andere Orte berücksichtigen, an denen Men-

schen zusammenkommen, um sich ehrenamtlich zu engagieren. Die Studie bietet zudem für Organisationen, in denen sich Menschen freiwillig engagieren, erste Ansatzpunkte, um den verantwortungsbewussten Konsum ihrer Mitglieder und freiwillig Tätigen zu fördern.

3.2 Studie 2: „Too Fatigued to Consume (Ir)Responsibly? The Importance of Work-Related Fatigue and Personal Values for Responsible Consumption“

In dieser Studie werden Erkenntnisse aus der Forschung zum verantwortungsbewussten Konsum mit der arbeitspsychologischen Handlungsregulationstheorie kombiniert. Es wurde untersucht, ob ein Zustand der kognitiv-emotionalen Erschöpfung nach der Erwerbsarbeit den Zusammenhang zwischen wahrgenommener quantitativer Überforderung bei der Arbeit und verantwortungsbewusstem Konsumverhalten am Abend mediiert. Darüber hinaus wurde die Hypothese aufgestellt, dass die persönliche Wertigkeit, Produktions- bzw. Umweltstandards beim Kauf von Produkten zu berücksichtigen, den Zusammenhang zwischen arbeitsbezogener Erschöpfung und verantwortungsbewusstem Konsum moderiert, sodass sich ein moderiertes Mediationsmodell ergibt. Verantwortungsbewusste Konsumaktivitäten wurden dabei differenziert betrachtet, indem zwischen umweltbewusstem Konsum (umwelt- bzw. tierfreundliche Produkte) und produktionsbewusstem Konsum (Produkte, die unter fairen Produktionsbedingungen hergestellt wurden) unterschieden wurde.

Die Daten wurden durch Online-Umfragen an vier aufeinanderfolgenden Arbeitstagen zu zwei Messzeitpunkten (nachmittags und abends) erhoben. Die Stichprobe bestand aus 74 Personen und 115 Beobachtungen. Um die Hypothesen zu testen, wurden Pfadanalysen unter Kontrolle der Abhängigkeit der Datenpunkte innerhalb der Personen angewendet. Die Ergebnisse bestätigten die vorhergesagte moderierte Mediation für den verantwortungsbewussten Kauf in Bezug auf Umweltfreundlichkeit. Ein Zustand kognitiv-emotionaler Erschöpfung stand in einem positiven Zusammenhang mit umweltbewusstem Konsum; allerdings nur bei Personen, denen Umweltstandards beim Konsum generell wichtig sind. In Bezug auf den produktionsbewussten Konsum zeigten die Ergebnisse dagegen, dass ein Zustand kognitiv-emotionaler Erschöpfung generell in einem positiven Zusammenhang mit produktionsbewusstem Konsum stand – unabhängig von der Ausprägung der persönlichen Wertigkeit von Produktionsstandards. Die Ergebnisse dieser Studie unterstützen die Annahme, dass Arbeitserfahrungen während des Tages verantwortungsbewusstes Konsumverhalten am Abend

beeinflussen. Die unerwartet positiven Effekte auf das Konsumverhalten deuten jedoch darauf hin, dass hier eher Kompensations- als Generalisierungseffekte wirken, sodass verantwortungsbewusstes Konsumverhalten als Option genutzt wird, um arbeitsbezogene Belastungen zu bewältigen.

3.3 Studie 3: „The Spillover of Socio-Moral Climate in Organizations Onto Employees’ Responsible Consumption: The Mediating Role of Perceived Social Impact“

In dieser Studie wird die Wahrnehmung der sozialen Einflussmöglichkeiten als Mediator zwischen dem sozio-moralischen Klima in Organisationen und dem privaten, verantwortungsbewussten Konsum von Erwerbstätigen untersucht. Ausgangspunkt bilden Studien, die gezeigt haben, dass das sozio-moralische Klima positiv mit pro-sozialem Verhalten innerhalb des Arbeitskontextes zusammenhängt. Über mögliche Generalisierungseffekte dieses Konstruktes, über die das sozio-moralische Klima auf pro-soziales oder verantwortungsbewusstes Verhalten von Mitarbeitenden außerhalb des Arbeitskontextes wirkt, ist bislang sehr wenig bekannt. Die Studie zielt darauf ab, diese Lücke zu schließen, indem sie untersucht, wie das organisationale sozio-moralische Klima auf das verantwortungsbewusste Konsumverhalten der Beschäftigten wirkt. Es wird basierend auf dem Relational-Job-Design-Ansatz argumentiert, dass die Wahrnehmung des sozialen Einflusses von Beschäftigten erklären kann, warum das sozio-moralische Klima positiv mit verantwortungsbewusstem Konsum verbunden ist.

Für die Prüfung dieser Annahme wurden Daten von 492 Angestellten, die in verschiedenen Branchen arbeiten, zu zwei Messzeitpunkten mit einem Abstand von 12 Monaten erhoben und ausgewertet. Die Hypothesen wurden mittels Pfadanalyse unter statistischer Kontrolle der zeitlichen Stabilität der Studienvariablen getestet. Die Ergebnisse zeigen, dass das sozio-moralische Klima positiv mit dem wahrgenommenen sozialen Einfluss zusammenhängt und dass der wahrgenommene soziale Einfluss positiv mit verantwortungsbewusstem Konsum über die Zeit hinweg zusammenhängt. Der indirekte Effekt zwischen dem sozio-moralischen Klima und dem verantwortungsvollen Konsum über den wahrgenommenen sozialen Einfluss war ebenfalls signifikant.

Die Ergebnisse stützen die Annahme, dass sich die arbeitsbezogenen Erfahrungen der Beschäftigten auf ihr verantwortungsbewusstes Konsumverhalten im nicht arbeitsbezogenen Bereich auswirken können. In Bezug auf praktische Implikationen legt diese Studie nahe, dass

organisatorische Interventionen zur Förderung des sozio-moralischen Klimas die wahrgenommenen sozialen Einflussmöglichkeiten der Beschäftigten verbessern können, wodurch auch ihr Verhalten außerhalb der Arbeit geprägt wird.

4 Volltexte der Publikationen

4.1 Studie 1: „Volunteers as responsible consumers – An analysis of psychological factors in the interrelation between volunteering and responsible consumption“

4.1.1 Abstract

With the growing prevalence of ecological and social problems in the globalized economic system, consumers increasingly include ecological and social criteria in their purchasing decisions. Previous research has found that people who voluntarily engage in associations are more likely than others to include ethical principles in their purchasing decisions. However, associated factors and thus potential mediators for this relationship have not yet been explored. In this study, we proposed that volunteering is positively related to the availability of information, social norms, and consumer collective efficacy. We further assumed that these factors are related to responsible consumption. In our study ($N = 1012$), we found positive relations among volunteering, social norms, consumer collective efficacy, and responsible consumption. Limitations, directions for further research, and practical implications for politics as well as associations are discussed.

4.1.2 Introduction

Driven by a growing salience of ecological and social problems in the globalized economic system, people are becoming more aware that their consumer behavior plays a decisive role in this context (Carrigan & Attalla, 2001) and increasingly include ecological and social criteria in their purchase decisions (Auger et al., 2010). Responsible consumption is not a new phenomenon (Breen, 2004) but markets for organic and fair trade products have grown tremendously since the beginning of this century (Organic-Trade-Association, 2018a; Statista, 2018).

With the growing market share, research has also been increasingly concerned with responsible consumption. Of particular interest is the investigation of predictors of this behavior to change consumer behavior towards more sustainable decisions. One line of research has shown that people who volunteer in associations are more likely than others to include ethical principles in their purchasing decisions (Espejo & Vázquez, 2017; Neilson, 2010; Neilson &

Paxton, 2010; Stockemer, 2014; Summers, 2016). However, there remains an open question as to which psychological factors play a role in this context. Identifying such factors could help explain why these different forms of behavior, which refer to different contexts (public vs. private) and personal roles (activist vs. consuming), are interconnected. The present investigation aims to shed light on this issue. We propose that certain psychological factors, namely the availability of information, social norms and collective efficacy, are significant consequences of volunteering and antecedents of responsible consumption behavior, whereby we also assume a relationship between volunteering and responsible consumption.

4.1.3 The relationship between volunteering and responsible consumption

Socially responsible consumption has been broadly defined as purchase decisions that take into account social, environmental, political or other concerns besides the price and/or quality of a product (Andorfer & Liebe, 2013; Harrison et al., 2005). These purchase decisions include not only choosing products with ethical attributes (buycotting) but also refusing to purchase certain products, product types or brands that are considered unethical (boycotting; Stolle, Hooghe, & Micheletti, 2005).

There is empirical evidence showing that responsible consumption behavior can be predicted by voluntary engagement in associations. People who volunteer in associations are more likely than non-volunteers to make purchase decisions based on political or ethical considerations. This relationship has been confirmed for US (Baek, 2010; Scruggs et al., 2011), Canadian (Baumann, Engman, & Johnston, 2015), Australian (Brenton, 2013), Spanish (Espejo & Vázquez, 2017), and multi-national samples (Neilson, 2010; Neilson & Paxton, 2010; Stockemer, 2014; Summers, 2016). The associations examined range from religious groups, political parties, and environmental/human rights organizations to sport clubs and business associations, although the strongest effects were found for members of social support or human rights organizations (Espejo & Vázquez, 2017).

In the first studies on this topic, researchers found that participation in various types of associations (e.g., sports clubs; social clubs; trade unions; political parties; organizations for science; organizations for humanitarian aid; organizations for environmental protection or animal rights; religious organizations) increased the likelihood of both buycotting and boycotting (Neilson, 2010; Neilson & Paxton, 2010), although the relationship was found to be stronger for buycotting (Baumann et al., 2015; Neilson, 2010). A more recent study distinguished between two types of associations and found that responsible consumption is more

strongly related to membership in human rights organization than to affiliations with political parties or labor unions (Espejo & Vázquez, 2017).

Research using a multilevel-approach has shown that regional differences in generalized trust (Neilson & Paxton, 2010) and differences in democratic experience across countries (Stockemer, 2014) influence responsible consumption beyond individual characteristics.

4.1.4 Associated factors in the volunteering-consumption relationship

Although it has repeatedly been shown that volunteering is positively correlated with responsible consumption, it remains an open question why this is the case. Theoretical explanations most often emphasize skills and abilities encouraging responsible consumption that are supposed to be acquired through association membership (Neilson & Paxton, 2010). Hence, these explanations refer to socialization effects.

Neilson (2010) believed that volunteering in associations provides people with a diverse network of social relationships, exposing them to a variety of information and opinions related to purchasing decisions. Similarly, Summers (2016) assumed that information exchanged between members within associations could encourage responsible consumption. Additionally, the author assumed that participation in associations exposes people to visible consumption norms, thus increasing normative pressure for responsible consumption. Finally, it has been assumed that volunteering provides people with skills and abilities (e.g., collective efficacy) that promote responsible consumption as a form of collective action (Espejo & Vázquez, 2017). However, to the best of our knowledge, these factors have never been empirically tested.

4.1.4.1 Availability of information

For many consumers, the price and quality of products are the most important purchase criteria (Boulstridge & Carrigan, 2000; Carrigan & Attalla, 2001). In contrast to price or quality, responsible consumption is based on product features that can neither be observed directly in the shop nor experienced by using the product. Therefore, consumers must rely on product labels, advertising claims or other sources of information. In their conceptual model of responsible consumption behavior, Scruggs et al. (2011) defined information about production conditions, besides education and income, as contextual factors facilitating responsible consumption behavior. According to the authors, information-related factors include the following: a) easily available information, b) reliable information, c) factual knowledge, and d) wide

availability/access to respective products. In other words, consumers are more likely to consume responsibly when they find easily understandable ways to evaluate the conditions under which different products have been made, for example, via product labelling (Scruggs et al., 2011). Empirical findings confirm this relationship: Individuals who stated that information about products' manufacturing conditions is hard to find or too time-consuming to read were less likely to consider such information during consumption (Scruggs et al., 2011). In a study on fair-trade buying behavior, the perceived quantity of information about fair trade correlated positively with the self-rated purchase of fair-trade products (De Pelsmacker & Janssens, 2007). Thus, the availability of product information is likely to affect consumer choice.

The amount of available information that an individual can access about social, environmental, or political issues is likely to increase through volunteering in associations. As Neilson and Paxton (2010) stated, participation in associations increases the number of social ties in the personal environment, which facilitates access to information that could be relevant to responsible consumption. Even without active engagement, membership in a political, social, or environmental association is accompanied by enhanced access to issue-related information via member newspapers, newsletters, or the association's intranet. Actively engaged members should receive further information at the meetings of working groups, advisory boards or committees. With these considerations, we propose the following:

H1a: Volunteering is positively related to the availability of issue-specific information.

H1b: The availability of issue-specific information is positively related to responsible consumption.

4.1.4.2 Social norms

Responsible consumption does not take place only in social contexts, for example, when one is surrounded in the supermarket by other consumers, one's own companions, or cashiers. Social influences also occur in the absence of other people, for example, when responsible purchasing decisions are made on the basis of status motives (Griskevicius et al., 2010) or normative pressure (Salazar et al., 2013).

According to the focus theory of normative conduct (Cialdini et al., 1991), social norms largely guide human behavior. In general, social norms consist of expectations and obligations that prevail in social groups and are shared by the group members (Ajzen, 1991; Schwartz, 1977). According to Schwartz (1977), social norms induce compliance with an expected behavior because people seek to avoid the costs of social sanctions. Cialdini et al.

(1991) differentiated descriptive norms (what is done) from injunctive norms (what should be done). Both injunctive and descriptive norms have been found to predict responsible consumption behavior aimed at the protection of natural resources (Barth et al., 2016; Goldstein et al., 2008; Vermeir & Verbeke, 2008). Dalton (2008) found that responsible consumption behaviors are positively related to a social norm that reflects engaged citizenship (e.g., being active in voluntary organizations, being active in politics). Thus, it is very likely that being exposed to a social norm promoting socially responsible behavior is a facilitating condition for responsible consumption.

However, why should consumption-related social norms be prevalent in political, social, environmental or other associations? Prosocial or post-materialist values (concerns for the environment, equality, social justice, human rights, sustainable development, etc.) are a major predictor not only of voluntary engagement in those associations (Gustavo et al., 2005; Shantz et al., 2014; Verba et al., 1995) but also of responsible consumption behaviors (Shaw et al., 2005; Stolle et al., 2005). Therefore, prosocial and post-materialist values should be more prevalent in both contexts. This condition increases the likelihood that other peer volunteers already visibly consume responsibly or approve of such behavior, which in turn should affect the consumption-related social norm of the group. We therefore hypothesize as follows:

H2a: Volunteering is positively related to consumption-related social norms.

H2b: Consumption-related social norms are positively related to responsible consumption.

4.1.4.3 Collective efficacy

The belief that one's own behavior makes an important contribution to the achievement of intended goals is an important prerequisite for many kinds of motivated behavior. With regard to responsible consumption, people are probably unwilling to accept higher product prices if they do not believe that their behavior makes any difference. This belief is particularly important for responsible consumption, as corresponding goals (e.g., fair working conditions for workers, environmental protection) can be achieved only through collective effort. If consumers do not believe that their behavior will have an impact in a collective sense, they will not engage in responsible consumption actions.

We refer to this belief as collective efficacy, which is defined as people's sense that they can solve problems through unified effort; it influences how much effort people put into the pursuit of collective objectives and how much they are willing to endure when collective efforts do not produce quick results (Bandura, 1995). Research has indeed demonstrated that

collective efficacy strongly relates to collective political behavior (van Zomeren et al., 2008) and responsible consumption behavior (Barth et al., 2016; Doran et al., 2015, 2017; Roser-Renouf et al., 2016).

While collective efficacy has been shown to be an important predictor of volunteering (Velasquez & LaRose, 2015), we propose that collective efficacy can also *result from* this type of participation. Among the four sources of efficacy shaping postulated in social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1997), mastery experience is the most powerful. The experience that one's own group (e.g., association) has been successful in achieving a mutually valued objective can increase beliefs in collective efficacy (Goddard & Goddard, 2001). In addition, Gibson (1999) argued that "group-efficacy forms as group members collectively acquire, store, manipulate, and exchange information about each other and about their task, context, process, and prior performance" (p. 138). In a similar vein, Tasa, Taggar, and Seijts (2007) longitudinally showed that collective efficacy is shaped by teamwork experiences (i.e., individual activities contributing to team interactions). Initially, these collective-efficacy experiences are closely tied to the goal of the association's activities. Nevertheless, according to the learning generalization hypothesis (Kohn & Schooler, 1983), association-specific collective efficacy should be successively generalized to other domains, such as responsible consumer behavior. In sum, we propose the following:

H3a: Volunteering is positively related to consumption-related collective efficacy.

H3b: Consumption-related collective efficacy is positively related to responsible consumption.

4.1.5 Method

4.1.5.1 Participants and procedure

We collected our data in Germany via an online pool for market research (respondi). A total of 1,200 participants completed our online questionnaire. We applied the recommended steps for detecting careless responses proposed by Meade and Craig (2012) and excluded participants on the basis of the indicators a) response time (< 2 seconds per item), b) response consistency, and c) bogus items. Our final data set consisted of 1,012 participants, of whom 51.0% were female. The majority (48.6%) of participants were employed; 34.9% were retired, unemployed or on parental leave; and 16.5% were self-employed, students or apprentices. A total of 24.6% held at least a bachelor's degree; 46.6% had a secondary school diploma or

lower. A total of 57.3% of the sample had a monthly net income of up to 1,500 Euro minus rent. The mean age was 47.09 years ($SD = 16.4$ years). Finally, 302 participants (29.8%) voluntarily engaged in typical-political, social or environmental associations (humanitarian aid: 51.6%; environmental protection: 14.2%; animal welfare: 25.6%; political party/labor union: 8.6%). Participants who voluntarily engaged differed significantly from those who did not engage in terms of gender, $\chi^2(1) = 21.37$, $p < .001$ and academic degree, $\chi^2(7) = 15.22$, $p = .033$ but not in regards to age, $t(1010) = 0.13$, $p = .897$ or income, $t(1010) = -0.12$, $p = .907$.

4.1.5.2 Measures

Responsible consumption

We assessed responsible consumption using 5 items developed by Pomeroy and Dolnicar (2009) and applied a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*do not agree at all*) to 7 (*completely agree*): e.g., “I avoid buying products from companies that have engaged in immoral action”. Internal consistency was measured by using Cronbach’s alpha (α), which was rated as good ($\alpha = .87$).

Volunteering

As noted above, volunteering was conceptualized as voluntary associational activities. To measure volunteering, respondents were asked about the extent to which they “voluntarily engage in non-profit associations” on a scale from 1 (*never*) to 7 (*very often*). Those who indicated that they engaged even to some extent were further presented with a list of six fields in which engagement could take place. These options referred to typical-political (labor union/political party), atypical-political (animal welfare, environmental protection, humanitarian aid) or unrelated (hobby clubs) fields. Based on this information, we dummy-coded a binary variable for volunteering, which included participants who voluntarily engaged in typical or atypical political associations (0 = no; 1 = yes).

Information availability

Following Neumann, Dixon, and Nordvall (2014), perceived availability of information about socially responsible production conditions was measured by asking the participants about the extent to which they “believe that the information about products made under good working

conditions is sufficient or insufficient.” Answers were measured on a response scale from 1 (*insufficient*) to 7 (*sufficient*).

To measure the following constructs, we applied 7-point Likert scales ranging from 1 (*do not agree at all*) to 7 (*completely agree*).

Social Norms

We decided to apply the descriptive norms concept to account for social norms because it best predicted pro-environmental behavior (intention) in the comparative study of White, Smith, Terry, Greenslade, and McKimmie (2009) and because it is well suited to operationalizing consumption-related social influences that might occur when people engage in voluntary associations. Thus, we constructed four items based on White et al. (2009) to measure the social norm of engaging in socially responsible consumption behavior: “Most people who are important to me pay attention to ecological or social criteria of products when shopping”; “Most people who are important to me buy products from socially responsible companies”; “My friends buy products from companies that are made under fair working conditions” ($\alpha = .88$).

Collective efficacy

The perceived efficacy of consumers’ responsible consumption behavior was measured with three items that we developed based on Paul, Modi and Patel (2016): “The purchase of goods produced under fair working conditions can make a real difference in the long run”; “Each consumer’s behavior can have an effect on the conditions under which our products are produced”; “It is pointless as a consumer to pay attention to socially responsible working conditions” (recoded) ($\alpha = .70$).

Control variables

Because previous studies have shown that gender, age, academic degree, and income are important individual characteristics in the participation-consumption relationship (Neilson & Paxton, 2010; Summers, 2016), we assessed these variables in addition to employment status as control variables.

Prosocial values, such as concerns for social justice or human rights, are often the main motivation for voluntarily engaging in associations (e.g., Gustavo et al., 2005); such values are also important predictors of responsible consumption behaviors (e.g., Stolle et al., 2005). To control for mere selection effects due to stable prosociality, we assessed prosocial personality using the 4-item empathic concern subscale of the prosocial personality battery

(Penner et al., 1995), e.g., “When I see someone being taken advantage of, I feel kind of protective towards them” ($\alpha = .65$), and respondents rated the items on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*do not agree at all*) to 5 (*completely agree*).

4.1.5.3 Statistical Analyses

We tested hypotheses H1 to H3 with structural equation modeling (SEM) using the lavaan package (Rosseel, 2012) in the statistics software R (R Core Team, 2019). In SEM, measurement error can be explicitly modeled so that unbiased estimates of the relations between latent constructs can be derived. Hypothesis testing can thus be considered more credible and reliable. For parameter estimation, we used the maximum likelihood estimator with robust (Huber-White) standard errors (MLR). We included gender, age, academic degree, employment status, income, and empathic concern as control variables in all analyses. Model fit was assessed using the Yuan-Bentler scaled χ^2/df , the comparative fit index (CFI), the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) and the standardized root mean residual (SRMR). According to Kline (2005), models with a CFI value close to .95, a χ^2/df ratio < 3 , and RMSEA/SRMR $< .05$ indicate an acceptable fit between the model and the data.

To ensure that the measured constructs were equivalent across the two groups (volunteers vs. non-volunteers), we tested for measurement invariance between the two groups by means of confirmatory factor analyses (CFA). As metric invariance is sufficient to show that the measured constructs can be interpreted the same way across both groups (Pekrun et al., 2017), we tested for metric invariance by comparing a model with constrained factor loadings (M1) to a configural invariance model (M0) without constraints (Putnick & Bornstein, 2016) using multiple group analysis in lavaan.

4.1.6 Results

Means, standard deviations and bivariate correlations for all the measures are presented in Table 1. The results showed a positive relation between volunteering and responsible consumption ($r = .21, p < .001$). Empathic concern significantly correlated with gender ($r = .22, p < .001$), volunteering ($r = .16, p < .001$), responsible consumption ($r = .40, p < .001$) and all three psychological factors (information availability, social norms, collective efficacy), although for issue-specific information availability, we unexpectedly found a negative correlation ($r = -.13, p < .001$).

The results of our measurement invariance tests provided evidence for metric invariance across the two groups. After adding constrained factor loadings (M1) to the configural invariance model without constraints (M0), model fit did not significantly decline, as indicated by the scaled χ^2 difference test (scaled $\chi^2(8) = 7.983$, $p = .435$). Additionally, comparison of fit indices of M0 (CFI = .967, RMSEA = .041, AIC = 59,663.93) and M1 (CFI = .967, RMSEA = .040, AIC = 59,655.97) showed no change in CFI and reduced RMSEA and AIC.

Table 1: Descriptive statistics and bivariate correlations of all measures

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. Responsible consumption	4.85	1.32	–										
2. Volunteering	0.42	0.49	.21***	–									
3. Information availability	2.89	1.31	.00	–.04	–								
4. Social norms	4.31	1.39	.45***	.22***	.10**	–							
5. Collective efficacy	5.16	1.27	.53***	.18***	–.03	.39***	–						
6. Gender ^a	1.51	0.50	.08*	.14***	.02	.06*	.08*	–					
7. Age	47.09	16.38	.01	–.00	–.10**	.12***	.05	–.01	–				
8. Academic degree ^b	3.37	1.85	.79*	.06	–.00	.15***	.07*	–.08*	–.12***	–			
9. Employment status ^c	0.58	0.49	.01	–.01	.04	–.05	.01	–.07*	–.36***	.12***	–		
10. Income ^d	2.51	1.14	.08*	.00	.04	.11***	.06	–.11***	.09**	.21***	–.14***	–	
11. Empathic concern	3.95	0.70	.40***	.16***	–.13***	.30***	.36***	.22***	.10**	.05	.10**	–.00	–

Note. *N* = 1,012; *M* = mean; *SD* = standard deviation.

^a 1 = male, 2 = female.

^b 1 = lower secondary school, 2 = secondary school, 3 = vocational baccalaureate, 4 = high school, 5 = Bachelor, 6 = Master, 7 = PhD.

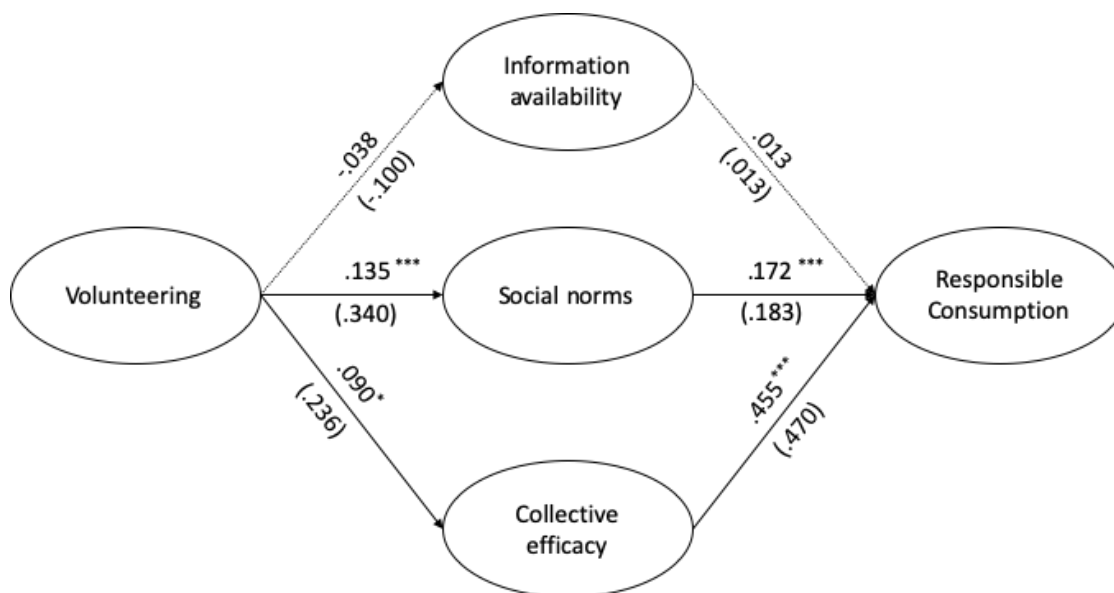
^c 1 = employed or self-employed, 0 = unemployed, retired, on parental leave, student, apprentice.

^d 1 = less than 500 Euro, 2 = 500 to 1,500 Euro, 3 = 1,501 to 2,500 Euro, 4 = 2,501 to 3,500 Euro, 5 = over 3,500 Euro.

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$, two-tailed.

Our hypothesized test model showed an acceptable overall fit to the observed data (Yuan-Bentler scaled $\chi^2 = 342.61$, $df = 108$, $p < .001$, scaling correction factor = 1.108, $\chi^2/df = 3.17$, CFI = .947, RMSEA = .049, SRMR = .039). The results of our analyses are displayed in Table 2 and Figure 1. As expected, volunteering was positively related to consumption-related social norms ($\beta = .14$, $p < .001$) and collective efficacy expectations ($\beta = .09$, $p = .029$) over and above all control variables, including empathic concern. However, no significant relation was found for availability of information ($\beta = -.038$, $p = .313$). Social norms ($\beta = .17$, $p < .001$) and collective efficacy ($\beta = .46$, $p < .001$) but not availability of information ($\beta = .01$, $p = .691$) were significantly related to responsible consumption.

Figure 1: Structural equation model concerning consequences of volunteering and antecedents of responsible consumption



Note: standardized coefficients are given above the arrows; unstandardized coefficients are given in brackets below the arrows.

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$.

Table 2: Model coefficients for predicting information availability, social norms, collective efficacy, and responsible consumption

Predictors	Dependent variables											
	Information availability			Social norms			Collective efficacy			Responsible consumption		
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β
Volunteering	-.100	.099	-.038	.340	.097	.135***	.236	.108	.090*	–	–	–
Information availability	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	.013	.033	.013
Social norms	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	.183	.050	.172***
Collective efficacy	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	.470	.063	.455***
Gender ^a	.140	.100	.054	-.249	.103	-.100*	-.308	.121	-.120*	-.195	.094	-.074*
Age	-.009	.003	-.118**	.005	.003	.063	-.003	.004	-.032	-.006	.003	-.076*
Academic degree ^b	-.012	.027	-.017	.075	.025	.111**	.014	.028	.020	-.013	.024	-.018
Employment status ^c	-.063	.113	-.024	-.018	.105	-.007	.114	.121	.044	.076	.090	.028
Income	.085	.045	.074	.088	.042	.080*	.059	.047	.052	.015	.039	.013
Empathic concern	-.156	.130	-.067	1.090	.176	.488***	1.419	.214	.617***	.733	.177	.308***

Note. *N* = 1,012; *M* = mean; *SD* = standard deviation; *B* = unstandardized regression coefficient; *SE* = standard error; β = standardized regression coefficient.

^a 1 = male, 2 = female.

^b 1 = lower secondary school, 2 = secondary school, 3 = vocational baccalaureate, 4 = high school, 5 = Bachelor, 6 = Master, 7 = PhD.

^c 1 = employed or self-employed, 0 = unemployed, retired, on parental leave, student, apprentice.

^d 1 = less than 500 Euro, 2 = 500 to 1,500 Euro, 3 = 1,501 to 2,500 Euro, 4 = 2,501 to 3,500 Euro, 5 = over 3,500 Euro.

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$, two-tailed.

We conducted additional analyses to test whether the indirect effects of volunteering on responsible consumption via social norms and collective efficacy were statistically significant. The significance of indirect effects was tested using bootstrapping (5,000 samples) with 95% bias-corrected confidence intervals (CIs) in R. All coefficients reported are standardized. The indirect effects were significant both for social norms ($\beta = .023$; 95% CI [.003, .043]) and collective efficacy ($\beta = .04$; 95% CI [.001, .079]).

4.1.7 Discussion

In this article, we investigated the relationship between volunteering and responsible consumption; furthermore, we examined information availability, social norms and collective efficacy as potentially underlying mechanisms. It has been repeatedly confirmed that volunteers are more likely to consume ethically than non-volunteers (Espejo & Vázquez, 2017; Neilson, 2010; Neilson & Paxton, 2010; Stockemer, 2014; Summers, 2016) but so far approaches to further explore this relationship have remained on a theoretical basis (Espejo & Vázquez, 2017; Neilson, 2010; Summers, 2016). Our study is the first to provide empirical insights into psychological factors in the context of the relationship between volunteering and ethical consumption. We therefore extend knowledge about the antecedents of ethical consumption and point out the importance of civic engagement. We found significant positive relations between volunteering and responsible consumption. Thus, we found evidence that people who voluntarily engage in associations are also more likely to express their personal values in their consumption behavior. Hypothesized effects were also found for volunteering in relation to social norms (H2a) and collective efficacy (H3a), but not for availability of information (H1a). Social norms (H2b) and collective efficacy (H3b), but not information availability (H1b), were found to be positively related to responsible consumption.

In terms of responsible consumption, the association with collective effectiveness was considerably stronger than with social norms. The study by Paul et al. (2016) on green purchasing showed a similar pattern. For efficacy expectations, effects on green purchasing were found, while the influence of social norms was not significant. The Vermeir and Verbeke (2008) study on sustainable food consumption also found greater effects for efficacy expectations compared to social norms. However, the differences here were not quite as strong as in our study. This may be due to the fact that we have conceptualized social norms as descriptive norms (what most others do) which differ from the injunctive norms concept (what others approve) as collected by Paul et al. (2016) as well as Vermeir and Verbeke (2008).

In terms of volunteering, we found relatively small effects for both social norms and collective effectiveness. It is likely that this has primarily to do with the fact that social norms and collective effectiveness were related to consumption rather than to volunteering. The low effects reflect the fact that two different areas of life are addressed here, so that excessively high effects could not have been expected.

We unexpectedly found no significant effect for availability of information as a predictor of responsible consumption or as an outcome of volunteering. One possible explanation may lie in the fact that we applied a single-item indicator for information availability, which may have led to increased measurement error and thus to low reliability. Additionally, it seems likely that our measure has not covered the content of the available information as much as it has captured satisfaction with the amount of available information. This distinction is also apparent from the negative correlation with empathic concern. A large knowledge base about working conditions in global supply chains may contribute to the impression that, in fact, there is very little information available regarding this issue (as is apparent in the rather low mean value), which may cause a sense of dissatisfaction.

4.1.7.1 Limitations and Future Research Directions

The aim of our study was to confirm the relationship between volunteering and responsible consumption and to investigate information availability, social norms, and collective efficacy as potentially underlying mechanisms. Although the indirect effects of social norms and collective efficacy were significant, we could not deduce from this finding that social norms and collective efficacy serve as mediators in the volunteering-consumption relationship. As Maxwell and Cole (2007) pointed out, mediation is a pattern that consists of several causal processes that emerge over time. Therefore, because this was a cross-sectional study, we cannot make any statements about the direction of the relationship or causality. Hence, it is still an open question which of the examined variables are antecedents, mediators or outcomes. Several studies have shown that cross-sectional approaches to mediation produce substantially biased estimates of direct and indirect effects (Maxwell et al., 2011; Maxwell & Cole, 2007; O’Laughlin et al., 2018). The significant indirect effects we found in this study therefore do not say anything about whether longitudinal mediation effects are to be expected and, if so, how strong these effects would be. Our results first show that social norms (and collective efficacy) explain a significant amount of variance in responsible consumption beyond the fact that people voluntarily engage in associations. In future longitudinal studies, the direction of

the relationships between these variables should be examined more closely to detect mediation effects.

Further limitations relate to methodological aspects of our study. First of all, this concerns a potential sample bias, which could have been caused by the self-selection of the test persons. As a result, it may be possible that people who were particularly motivated and engaged participated in the study. People who are less motivated and engaged, on the other hand, may have refrained from participating in our study. Thus, it is conceivable that the correlations between volunteering and consumption are slightly higher in our sample than in the general population. Nevertheless, since sample bias affected both volunteers and non-volunteers equally, the correlations are unlikely to have been substantially affected.

Secondly, another limitation concerns the low internal consistency of the empathic concern scale, which might have influenced our results. Low internal consistencies of this scale have also been reported in other studies (Furrow et al., 2004; Hui et al., 2019). It can therefore be assumed that the low reliability is caused by the heterogeneity of the construct. Future studies should therefore rather draw on Penner et al.'s (1995) composite measure of other-oriented empathy, which, in addition to empathic concern, also includes the subscales social responsibility, perspective taking, other-oriented moral reasoning and mutual concerns moral reasoning. For this superordinate scale, internal consistency has been satisfactory (e.g., Finkelstein, Penner, & Brannick, 2005).

Finally, our single-item measure for information availability most probably resulted in information availability being afflicted with a considerable measurement error in our study, which may be the reason why we could not find any significant effects. Thus, we cannot show any evidence for the true relations information availability has with volunteering and responsible consumption. Nevertheless, previous studies provide insights into what future studies can focus on with regard to information. De Pelsmacker and Janssens (2007) investigated the role of perceived quantity of fair-trade information and found a positive effect on fair trade buying behavior, but they also unexpectedly found a negative correlation to concern about fair trade and a positive correlation to skepticism. In a more recent study, the availability of fair-trade information negatively affected positive consumer attitudes toward fair trade (Pérez & de los Salmones, 2018). So, it seems that the amount of information on a particular consumption-related issue is likely to have the opposite effect to what it should. Consumers are often confused about ethical issues in consumption because there is not enough high-quality information – and there is even false information – about ethical products (Nilsson, von Borgstede,

& Biel, 2004). With regard to fair trade, researchers believe that too much information about different labels or certification initiatives annoys consumers, leading them to disengage from fair trade consumption (Jaffee, 2010; Jaffee & Howard, 2016). Thus, the quality of available information could be more important for responsible consumption than the amount of information, as supported by the results of de Pelsmacker and Janssens (2007). Future research should therefore pay greater attention to the role of the quality of information and examine which factors constitute high-quality information for responsible consumption.

Further research opportunities also arise for social norms: We examined the role of social norms by focusing on descriptive norms. An interesting line of research has investigated the interrelationships of descriptive and injunctive norms and their joint effects on behavior, finding that descriptive norms are especially effective if they are aligned with injunctive norms towards the respective behavior (Smith et al., 2012). Examining separate and joint effects of descriptive and injunctive social norms on responsible consumption would be a fruitful avenue for further research.

Another interesting research question that follows from our article refers to group-level mechanisms of the volunteering-consumption relationship. We focused on individual-level mechanisms that are hypothesized to arise from voluntary engagement in workgroups. Future studies should also investigate group-level moderators (e.g., group cohesion) or group-related individual-level moderators (e.g., group identification) in this relationship.

4.1.7.2 Practical Implications

The results of our study indicate that volunteering in associations is related to the way people consume and the criteria they use when purchasing products. By controlling for empathic concern as an important component of prosocial personality, we examined the role of volunteering after adjusting for self-selection effects. The fact that we found significant effects despite controlling for empathic concern strengthens our assumption that socialization effects occur through volunteering, affecting ethical behavior in the individual sphere. Associations can therefore be considered a fertile ground for initiating or further developing more responsible consumption practices. Political interventions aimed at promoting sustainable consumption should consider associations and other places where people come together to volunteer. Information campaigns about environmentally friendly alternatives or social problems in global supply chains, for example, would find suitable recipients there.

The results of our study also provide initial indications as to which processes are important in this context, thus providing insights into how associations can deliberately promote more responsible consumption behaviors: Being involved with people who already consider social criteria when shopping or have a positive attitude towards responsible consumption increases the likelihood of rethinking one's own consumer behavior. Associations could therefore create opportunities or occasions for volunteers to exchange their views on responsible consumption issues. This can be done either subtly, e.g., via locally available flyers, or more directly, e.g., by organizing group discussions or other meetups on the subject. Moreover, volunteers tend to feel that they make a difference as consumers. Further research is needed to clarify whether this sense of efficacy is actually generated through volunteering; nonetheless, associations should ensure that successes achieved together are communicated and celebrated, which may facilitate a sense of participants' effectiveness outside the associations as consumers. Finally, consumption also takes place within associations (e.g., office supplies or food purchases). By offering exclusively fair trade coffee, for example, associations actively create a responsible consumption norm, which can also influence the private consumer behavior of their members.

4.2 Studie 2: „Too Fatigued to Consume (Ir)Responsibly? The Importance of Work-Related Fatigue and Personal Values for Responsible Consumption“

4.2.1 Abstract

Research concerning the intention-behaviour gap in responsible consumption has assigned a crucial role to individuals' situational states and personal values in purchase situations. Concurrently, work psychology research has demonstrated that on-the-job experiences carry over to one's private life. Combining insights from responsible consumption research and action regulation theory from work psychology, we investigated whether a fatigued state after work mediates the relationship between perceived daily workload and responsible consumption behaviour in the evening. Moreover, we hypothesized that personal values interact with work-related fatigue in predicting responsible consumption behaviour. The data were collected through online surveys on four consecutive working days. The final sample consisted of 74 persons and 115 observations. To test our hypotheses, we used path analyses and controlled for the data structure. The results confirmed the predicted moderated mediation of environmentally responsible consumption; among the consumers who expressed high personal values in terms of the environment, a fatigued state was related to more responsible consumption. However, regarding socially responsible consumption focusing on fair production conditions, the results revealed a significant nonmoderated mediation. Our findings support the assumption that work experiences during the day affect responsible consumption behaviour in the evening, and thus, work should be given more consideration in consumer research. Further research is needed to specify the contextual factors leading to the positive relationship between fatigue and socially responsible consumption in terms of production conditions.

4.2.2 Introduction

In recent research on responsible consumption, the gap between consumers' attitudes or intentions and their actual behaviour has gained attention (e.g., Aschemann-Witzel & Niebuhr Aagaard, 2014; Frank, 2018; Grimmer & Miles, 2017; Hassan et al., 2016; Torma et al., 2018; Wiederhold & Martinez, 2018). By integrating psychological concepts, such as inter-role conflicts (Frank, 2018), implementation intentions (Carrington et al., 2010) and prosocial status perception (Zabkar & Hosta, 2013), in research concerning responsible consumption, scholars have advanced the understanding of the reasons and circumstances underlying this discrepan-

cy. Despite the theoretical advancements and a large number of empirical studies on the question of why consumers “do not walk their talk” in general, we still know very little about the daily situational circumstances underlying this gap in consumers’ everyday purchasing. Limited research has closely examine situational barriers to responsible purchasing (Carrington et al., 2014; Grimmer & Miles, 2017), but the impact of momentary psychological conditions (such as fatigue) remains to be examined. Additionally, a limited multidisciplinary approach has led to a neglect of influences from other life domains to responsible consumerism, aside from the family domain (Carey, Shaw, & Shiu, 2008; Carrigan & Szmigin, 2006; Frank, 2018; Heath et al., 2016; O’Neill & Buckley, 2019). This is particularly the case for the work-related life domain, which is surprising, given that the majority of consumers in Western industrialized societies are employed (Suedekum, 2005) and therefore make their individual consumption decisions before, after or even during work.

In this study, we draw upon research from the field of work and organizational psychology to contribute to a deeper understanding of situational contexts that may either hinder or facilitate daily responsible purchase decisions. Specifically, we draw upon action regulation theory (ART; Hacker, 2003) and dual-process theories of human decision-making (Evans, 2008) to argue that consumers’ responsible purchasing in the evening is influenced by the conditions to which they are exposed during work insofar as these conditions are associated with their psychological functioning after work as follows: ART suggests that job stressors, such as workload, use a person’s emotional and cognitive resources, which, in turn, may lead to impaired well-being and psychological functioning in both the long-term and short-term (e.g., emotional exhaustion and fatigue). Strong support for this assumption is derived from empirical research in the field of work and organizational psychology (e.g., Konze, Rivkin, & Schmidt, 2017; Prem et al., 2016). From the perspective of the dual-process theories of human decision-making (Evans, 2008), such psychological states largely determine whether individuals make decisions either rapidly and autonomously (system 1) or after deliberate consideration (system 2; Evans & Stanovich, 2013). By combining these two theoretical approaches, we infer that psychological functioning and well-being likely influence people’s behaviours after work. As far as responsible consumption is concerned, purchase decisions most often require more effort and resources from the consumer (e.g., finding appropriate stores; Carrington, Neville, & Whitwell, 2014) that can no longer be accessed by a person who is in a state of fatigue after a stressful working day. Thus, we propose a spillover effect

from the work-related life domain to the consumption-related life domain via work-related fatigue.

This study seeks to contribute to the literature in two important ways. First, we contribute to research on the intention-behaviour gap in responsible consumption by taking a closer look at situational contexts that may hinder or facilitate daily responsible purchasing decisions. Situational context variables have been proposed as important conditions for translating buying intentions into buying behaviour (Belk, 1975; Carrington et al., 2010). However, to date, empirical research testing the influence of the situational context has primarily focused on external conditions (e.g., physical or social surroundings; Aschemann-Witzel & Niebuhr Aagaard, 2014; Grimmer & Miles, 2017); thus, the role of internal psychological states (e.g., fatigue) has not yet been clarified. By testing the influence of working conditions on responsible consumption via work-related fatigue in a daily diary study, we enrich our understanding of the impact of situational contexts on responsible consumption.

Second, by linking established research on responsible consumption with insights from work and organizational psychology, we contribute to the multidisciplinary advancement of this field of research. The question of how other life domains beyond the consumption sphere affect responsible purchase decisions has been investigated recently in empirical studies on family influence (Frank, 2018; O'Neill & Buckley, 2019; Ritch & Brownlie, 2016), but research on influences of the work domain remains at a conceptual stage (Carrington & Neville, 2016; Devetter & Rousseau, 2011; Muster, 2012). The present study is the first to empirically investigate how working conditions may influence responsible purchase decisions. In terms of practical implications, the results of our study contribute to a more complex view of how organizations and retailers may promote responsible consumption and thus help organizations meet their social responsibilities.

In the following theoretical section, we describe the antecedents and postulated pathways of responsible consumption and highlight the importance of the consideration of contextual factors, such as different life domains. Furthermore, we introduce workload and work-related fatigue as relevant factors within the consumption process. Within the methodological section, we explain the study design, the used measures, and how the statistical analysis was performed. After reporting the results, we present an additional analysis, followed by a discussion of the results according to their theoretical contribution, practical implications, and directions for future research.

4.2.3 Theoretical Background and Hypothesis Development

4.2.3.1 *Responsible Consumption*

Currently, increasing numbers of products are available that claim to support environmental protection or the fair treatment of employees, and consumers are becoming increasingly aware of the significant impact of their purchasing decisions (Govind et al., 2019; Ladhari & Tchegnina, 2017). Although responsible consumerism is not only a phenomenon of modern times (Breen, 2004), markets for organic and fair trade products have increased continuously since the beginning of the 21st century (Organic Trade Association, 2018; Statista, 2018). Following Doane's (2001) definition, we conceive responsible consumption as the personal purchase of a product that is aligned with a particular ethical issue, including human rights, animal welfare, or the environment. As environmental protection and animal welfare are closely linked (e.g., many organic labels refer to both aspects), we consider these two issues a part of the overarching factor environmentally responsible consumption. Considering the issue of human rights, we classify the consideration of the working conditions under which products are manufactured under the term socially responsible consumption. Thus, for the purpose of this study, we distinguish between behaviour oriented towards the natural environment (environmental protection and animal welfare) from behaviour oriented towards human beings (fair production conditions).

A plethora of research has already demonstrated that a positive attitude towards responsible consumption or the intention to consume responsibly is rarely translated into actual behaviour (for reviews, see ElHaffar et al., 2020; Hassan et al., 2016). Although the existence of this gap in responsible consumerism has been widely acknowledged, the underlying mechanisms continue to be poorly understood (Carrington et al., 2010; Grimmer & Miles, 2017). In the last decade, theoretical advancements have been made to overcome this blind spot in consumption research, for example, by integrating inter-role conflicts (Frank, 2018), implicit and explicit attitudes (Govind et al., 2019) or prosocial status perceptions (Zabkar & Hosta, 2013) in the relation between intentions and behaviour. In particular, Carrington et al.'s (2010) framework has received much scholarly attention, according to which the situational context, implementation intentions, and actual behavioural control work together to translate buying intentions into buying behaviour. While the decisive role of implementation intentions or habits has been confirmed in studies applying this framework (Carrington et al., 2014; Grimmer & Miles, 2017), the influence of situational context variables is less clear.

According to Belk (1975), the situational context consists of five components: physical surroundings, social surroundings, temporal context, purchase-related tasks, and antecedent states. Antecedent states relate to momentary moods or states of the individual consumer, such as calmness, agitation, or fatigue, as opposed to persistent individual traits. Grimmer & Miles (2017) included situational context variables in their study on the intention-behaviour gap in pro-environmental consumer behaviour. They refer to two specific facets of the current situation (i.e., the social context and the physical context). However, a closer examination of spillover effects from other life domains on consumption contexts can provide further insights into which psychological conditions influence responsible purchase decisions and when they occur. This situation applies in particular to the work context, since the majority of consumers in Western industrialized societies are employed (Suedekum, 2005) and therefore make their individual consumption decisions in close temporal proximity to their work.

4.2.3.2 Workload and Fatigue

Different theoretical approaches explain the relationship between workload and fatigue. Some studies have investigated the role of motivational aspects in the relationship between workload and well-being (e.g., Trépanier et al., 2015; van Hooff & Geurts, 2015). Although these studies demonstrated that need satisfaction or frustration is a significant factor in the relationship between workload and well-being, there is a remaining effect that cannot be explained by motivational theories. At the core of the most prominent work stress theories in the field of work and organisational psychology lies the notion that performing work activities strains the physical and cognitive resources of an individual (e.g., Hacker, 2003; Hobfoll, 2001; Meijman & Mulder, 1998). This assumption refers to all work activities, although the type and magnitude of the consequences, i.e., physical versus psychological impairments, depend on different work characteristics (e.g., the type of work, working time, work intensity, and the complexity of work tasks). For instance, construction work may cause more and different physical issues than office work, and activities with client contacts may be more emotionally stressful than work without client contacts.

To clarify the psychological effects of work characteristics, action regulation theory (ART; Hacker, 2003) explains how specific working conditions affect employees' health, well-being, and personal resources. According to ART, internal action regulation processes are needed to fulfil work tasks. Depending on the nature of work tasks, these action regulation processes require the use of employees' regulatory resources to varying degrees. Different

characteristics of or conditions at work either hinder (job stressors) or support (job resources) action regulation and, thus, the successful completion of work tasks (Hacker, 2003). Job stressors may cause additional effort in the preparation and implementation of plans (e.g., work interruptions), uncertainties regarding whether the work goal can still be reached (e.g., role conflicts), and quantitative or qualitative overloads (e.g., time pressure and workload).

Based on these assumptions, ART is used mostly to explain the effects of working conditions that are accompanied by high self-control demands (e.g., Diestel & Schmidt, 2009, 2012; Prem et al., 2016). Job stressors with high cognitive effort have been shown to be positively associated with emotional exhaustion (Diestel & Schmidt, 2009; Konze et al., 2017) and negatively associated with a person's ability to regulate their actions effectively (Prem et al., 2016). When investigating working conditions that strain regulatory resources, researchers pay particular attention to workload, time pressure, and demands resulting from emotional work. Based on ART, accomplishing these demands requires a high degree of self-regulation through emotional control, concentration, and the reorganization of work processes, which in turn exhausts a person's capacity to perform (e.g., Diestel & Schmidt, 2009, 2012; Prem et al., 2016).

According to Sonnentag & Frese (2003), workload is defined as a regulation problem that disturbs goal-directed behaviour because there are too many work tasks and/or time constraints are too tight (quantitative workload) or the tasks exceed the employees' professional qualifications (qualitative workload). Hence, more effort is necessary to successfully complete these work tasks. Related to this assumption, Diestel & Schmidt (2009) demonstrated that qualitative workload is associated with emotional exhaustion and anxiety by overcoming resistance. Additionally, quantitative workload is positively related to high impulse control and resisting distractions and directly related to emotional exhaustion. These results support the assumption that workload strains both regulatory and emotional resources.

The effects of quantitative workload have also been shown on a daily basis. Hülshager, Walkowiak, & Thommes (2018) demonstrated a positive relationship between daily quantitative workload and daily fatigue during work. Moreover, Sonnentag & Bayer (2005) showed that day-specific time pressure, as one aspect of quantitative workload, is positively correlated with a person's fatigue after work. In these contexts, a fatigued state is related to feelings of tiredness and exhaustion (Sonnentag, Binnewies, & Mojza, 2008). However, fatigue contains an emotional component in addition to cognitive exhaustion (Barnes & Van Dyne, 2009). In accordance with Barnes's & Van Dyne's (2009) definition of emotional fa-

tigue, we see work-related fatigue as a construct that includes momentary feelings of emotional exhaustion. In terms of this definition, Balducci et al. (2020) showed that there is a positive association between workload and emotional exhaustion on a daily level. Based on these assumptions and empirical findings, which are in line with the straining nature of workload proposed by ART, we assume that workload is positively related to employees' daily work-related fatigue after work.

Hypothesis 1: Daily workload is positively related to daily work-related fatigue.

4.2.3.3 Fatigue, Responsible Consumption and the Special Role of Personal Values

To explain how fatigue affects responsible consumption, we refer to dual-process theories of human decision-making (Evans, 2008). Dual-process approaches assume that people make decisions either rapidly and autonomously (system 1) or after deliberate consideration (system 2; Evans & Stanovich, 2013). In this approach, it is important to consider that ethical behaviour differs in the amount of cognitive effort required (Yam, Chen, & Reynolds, 2014). Purchase decisions based on environmental or social considerations require a high level of cognitive effort, especially if responsible consumption is not habitual (Carrington et al., 2014). This appears to be the case for the majority of consumers, which is also evident from the large gap between intentions and behaviour across many sectors (e.g., Hassan et al., 2016; López-Sánchez & Pulido-Fernández, 2016). Thus, responsible consumption is generally largely based on system 2 processing.

A state of fatigue due to the intense use of regulatory resources at work compromises deliberate action planning in goal-directed behaviour (van der Linden et al., 2003), which is at the core of system 2 processing. When system 2 is inhibited due to the loss of regulatory resources, individuals base their decisions on system 1 (e.g., De Neys, 2006; Porcelli & Delgado, 2009) as effective action regulation is disturbed (Hacker, 2003). Thus, fatigue is associated with system 1 processing, leading to default responses. In the case of responsible purchase decisions, such a default response would mean that consumers generally base their decisions on the price and/or the quality of products (Carrigan & Attalla, 2001; Ritch & Schröder, 2012; Torma et al., 2018). Research on the influence of parenthood on responsible purchasing decisions has already provided initial evidence supporting this relationship: it has been shown that time constraints and role overload for mothers are associated with trade-offs between convenience and sustainability, combined with a shift away from responsible purchasing decisions (Carrigan & Szmigin, 2006; Ritch & Brownlie, 2016). As a result, respon-

sible consumption should be affected by a state of fatigue and therefore by a state of work-related fatigue.

However, fatigue cannot be considered independently of personal values in regard to responsible consumption. Personal values, defined as individual concepts of desirable end states that transcend specific situations (Schwartz & Bilsky, 1987), largely guide human behaviour in general (Schwartz et al., 2012) and individual consumption in particular (Andorfer & Liebe, 2012; J. Lee & Cho, 2019). In particular, self-transcendence values (e.g., protection of the environment, helpfulness, social justice, and responsibility) have been shown to guide socially and environmentally responsible consumption and product usage (Ladhari & Tchegna, 2017; J. Lee & Cho, 2019; Shaw et al., 2005). Schuitema & de Groot (2015) demonstrated that pro-environmental values do not directly influence green consumerism; rather, they serve as indirect predictors. According to the authors, strong pro-environmental values also lead to the maintenance of green consumption behaviour against situational barriers (e.g., higher product prices).

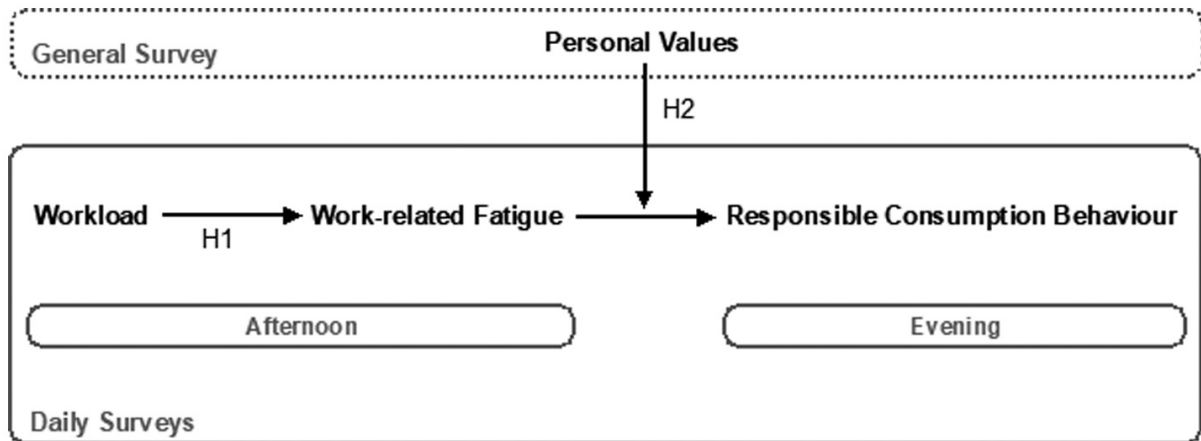
In their investigation of the ethical consumer intention-behaviour gap, Carrington et al. (2014) derive a model for the translation of intentions into behaviour that includes the prioritization of ethical core values: if these values are prioritized at the highest (i.e., primary) level, then it is more likely that ethical consumption has already been established as a habit and is therefore exercised without much effort. Thus, ethical consumption is only effortful if the corresponding core values do not have the highest priority (i.e., they are secondary). In this way, personal values determine the amount of effort required for responsible consumption behaviours. Considering the dual-process approach (Evans & Stanovich, 2013), personal values determine whether social, environmental or related considerations are included within a default decision (system 1). Therefore, a person with high social or environmental values who is exhausted after work should nevertheless make decisions based on these considerations in consumption situations, as this is the default. In contrast, if social or environmental values are given secondary priority, the state of fatigue will have a negative impact on responsible consumption because responsible purchase decisions are not default in this case and need more cognitive effort (system 2), which cannot be provided.

In the present study, we investigate work-related fatigue as an intraindividual state and situational barrier by assuming that it hinders responsible consumer behaviour. Taking the abovementioned theories and empirical evidence into consideration, we propose that the fatigue-consumption relationship depends on the strength of consumption-related values, which

exert a moderating influence. In particular, we assume that fatigue is not an obstacle to responsible consumption if the corresponding personal values are high.

Hypothesis 2: The relationship between workload and daily responsible consumption is mediated by an interaction between work-related fatigue and personal values.

Figure 2: Research model



4.2.4 Methodology

4.2.4.1 Sample and Procedure

Data were collected through a daily diary study. Using a convenience sampling approach, we distributed a flyer to several German organizations and private networks; the flyer explained the purpose of the project, the study design, and the voluntary and anonymous nature of participation. In this way, potential participants received the link to a screening questionnaire in which sociodemographic aspects and the inclusion criteria of the study were queried. Participants had to meet the following inclusion criteria: they had to have a weekly working time of at least 18 hours, they had to work in a dependent employment relationship, and they were not to work at night during the survey period. Moreover, participants had to complete the questionnaires on their own electronic devices (e.g., smartphones and tablet computers).

The survey period covered four consecutive working days, followed by one extra day on which the final general survey was completed. Participants were asked to complete two surveys daily: one in the afternoon and one in the evening. After completing the general survey, participants received a voucher of 15 Euro as an expense allowance. Via the screening questionnaire, participants were able to choose the week in which the surveys took place and the times (within a given timeframe) they would receive reminder emails for the afternoon

and evening surveys. We ensured that there were at least three hours between the two daily surveys.

In sum, 184 persons completed the screening questionnaire. Of these, 17 persons did not meet the inclusion criteria. Due to cancelations during data collection or too much missing data, such as missing participation in the general survey or evening surveys, 33 persons had to be removed from the dataset. According to our hypotheses, it was necessary that participants purchased something after work, especially in the evening. Therefore, we filtered the dataset of 134 persons according to whether the participants worked on that day and whether they consumed in the evening, ensuring that consumption occurred in the evening of a working day. Based on these criteria, we obtained a final sample of 74 participants with 115 observations without missing data to test our hypotheses. For a detailed distribution of the participants and observations, see Table 3.

Table 3: Participant distribution over the measurement days

Working days with consumption in the evening	At 1 day	At 2 days	At 3 days	At 4 days	Total
Number of participants	45	18	10	1	74
Number of observations	45	36	30	4	115

In the final sample, 65% of the participants were female, and the mean age of all participants was 39 years (SD 12.5). The majority of the participants (73%) said that no underage children lived in their household. The participants worked a mean of 36 hours per week (SD 6.3), and 45% of the participants had worked longer than five years at their organization. Nearly one-quarter of the participants (22%) worked in a leadership position. The industries in which the participants worked were very diverse (e.g., the construction sector, health and social services, public administration, law, telecommunications and IT); comparatively, many persons worked in the field of education (22%).

4.2.4.2 Measures

The means and standard deviations of the study variables, as well as the internal consistencies for multi-item scales, are presented in Table 4. All used measures captured the participants' perceptions of the study variables.

Responsible Consumption Behaviour

In this study, we focused on environmentally responsible consumption (ERC) and socially responsible consumption (SRC) as two important issues subsumed under the term “responsible consumption”. Because these aspects can be applied to a large majority of products, they are well suited for our diary study. As environmental protection and animal welfare are closely linked (e.g., many organic labels refer to both aspects) and therefore cannot easily be queried separately, we have combined these two aspects into one category. Moreover, in this study, SRC refers to the consideration of working conditions under which products were manufactured.

Every day, the participants had to state whether they had made a purchase in the evening. Next, the participants were asked which products they had purchased. Four categories of products could be indicated: food/beverages, clothing/shoes/accessories, cosmetics/care, products/housewares, and others. For each purchased product, the participants had to rate two items—“I have chosen products that are environmentally/animal friendly” and “I have chosen products that were produced under fair conditions”—on a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). The ratings for different products were averaged so that the means for ERC and the means for SRC could be analysed.

Workload

Workload was measured daily in the afternoon by two items focusing on quantitative workload (Janssen, 2001). We selected the most day-sensitive items of this scale. The two items—“Today, I had too much work to do for my job” and “I had to work under time pressure today”—were rated on a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*).

Work-related Fatigue

Following the considerations of Barnes & Van Dyne (2009), we decided to focus on the emotional component of fatigue, and we measured work-related fatigue daily in the afternoon using selected items from the emotional exhaustion scale by Büssing & Glaser (1998). Therefore, we selected the most day-sensitive items of this scale. Moreover, these items were adapted to the day level through an introduction (sample item: “How are you feeling right now?” “I feel used up by my work”). The three items were rated on a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*).

Personal Values

In the general survey, one item was used to ask participants about their values in terms of consumption—“How important are the following aspects for your purchasing decisions?”—and two aspects were mentioned: environmental friendliness and conditions under which products were manufactured. The item was developed based on the scale of Neumann, Dixon, & Nordvall (2014). The 7-point Likert-type response scale ranged from 1 (*not important at all*) to 7 (*very important*).

Controls

We controlled for the effects of gender, age, having children, and income on consumption behaviour, as these factors were already shown to be related to responsible consumption (e.g., Bateman & Valentine, 2010; Carey et al., 2008; Naderi & Van Steenburg, 2018; Starr, 2009). Moreover, daily measurements may have an intervention effect. Answering a question repeatedly may make participants aware of the topics being investigated, which can result in both biased consumption and biased answering behaviour the next day (cf. Gonzalez-Morales & O’Shea, 2017). Thus, we also controlled for the survey day. To control for income, we chose the more indirect measure of subjective perceived financial situation (Buerke, 2016) because participants might find it more acceptable to provide information on this aspect than information on their real income. This item—“How would you describe your current financial situation?”—was rated on a 5-point Likert-scale ranging from 1 (*It is not sufficient in any way*) to 5 (*I do not have to limit myself in any way*).

4.2.4.3 Statistical Analysis

The hypotheses were tested using Mplus (Muthén & Muthén, 2007). We used path analyses with the construct means as a single indicator of the variables because of the sample size. The analyses were based on a covariance matrix and maximum likelihood estimation with robust standard errors (MLR estimator). Additionally, because our data contain several measurement points for the same person in some cases, we used “type=complex” to control for the nested structure of the data. We conducted separate models for the different aspects of responsible consumption because the sample size is not adequate to test the different mediation processes in one model. All scales with Likert-type response formats were centred before calculating the models. In the case of significant interaction effects, we illustrated the interaction effects in a figure. In the case of significant mediation paths, the estimate of the indirect effect was com-

puted and ensured by the Monte Carlo approach with 100,000 samples using the R package Rmediation (Tofighi & MacKinnon, 2016).

4.2.5 Results

Table 4 presents the intercorrelations among the study variables. The association between workload and fatigue is significant and in the expected direction. Additionally, workload and fatigue showed no significant associations with responsible consumption. In terms of responsible consumption, ERC and SRC were highly positively associated with one another, similar to the types of personal values. Moreover, all day-level variables showed a substantial intra-class correlation (ICC1). The model for the ERC provided a good fit (Kline, 2005) to the data ($\chi^2(3) = 5.026, p = .17, CFI = .97, RMSEA = .077, SRMR = .023$). By contrast, the model of a moderated mediation predicting SRC failed to reach an acceptable fit, especially because the model was conducted as a path analysis ($\chi^2(3) = 5.352, p = .15, CFI = .94, RMSEA = .083, SRMR = .027$).

Table 4: Descriptive statistics, intercorrelations, reliability scores, and variances at the person level among the study variables

Variable	M (SD)	ICC1	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1 Survey day	–	–	–									
2 Gender	–	–	.14	–								
3 Age	39.28 (12.53)	–	.02	–.07	–							
4 Number of children in the household	0.43 (0.78)	–	–.12	–.13	.09	–						
5 Subjective financial situation	3.19 (0.92)	–	–.05	.32***	.26**	–.30**	–					
6 Personal values: Environment	5.01 (1.52)	–	–.03	–.16	.16	.03	–.02	–				
7 Personal values: Production conditions	4.78 (1.48)	–	–.03	–.23*	.05	.05	–.06	.73***	–			
8 Workload ^a	3.34 (1.21)	.30	–.05	–.16	–.01	–.10	–.16	–.10	–.11	.82		
9 Fatigue ^a	2.70 (1.19)	.45	.04	–.33***	.04	.20*	–.28**	–.10	–.07	.41***	.92	
10 ERC ^a	2.73 (1.31)	.50	–.03	–.37***	–.07	.01	–.17	.42***	.38***	.07	.18	–
11 SRC ^a	2.67 (1.16)	.47	.07	–.19*	–.16	–.04	–.16	.33***	.23*	.01	.17	.76***

Note. ERC = Environmentally responsible consumption; SRC = Socially responsible consumption. Reliability scores (Cronbach's α) are on the diagonals. Gender: 0 = female; 1 = male. ^a This variable was measured daily. $N = 115$.

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$.

In the case of ERC, workload was positively and significantly associated with fatigue, suggesting that the higher the participants rated their daily workload, the higher they rated their daily fatigue. This result supported Hypothesis 1. In terms of controls, gender was negatively related to fatigue, and the number of children was positively related. Thus, women experience more fatigue than men, and participants with more children show higher work-related fatigue than participants with fewer or no children. The interaction between fatigue and personal values in terms of the environment was significant (Table 5). We tested the conditional indirect effects between workload and ERC via fatigue under low, mean, and high personal values in terms of environment. Moreover, the conditional indirect effects were ensured with the Monte Carlo approach, which demonstrated a significant moderated mediation only in the condition of high personal values (see Table 6). The interaction effect under the control of workload is illustrated in Figure 3. The pattern of the interaction effect shows that fatigued people consume responsibly only if they have high personal values in terms of the environment, indicating an intensifying effect and supporting Hypothesis 2.

By contrast, the model predicting SRC did not show an acceptable fit to the data. However, the results for predicting fatigue were the same as those in the ERC model, but for the prediction of SRC, no significant interaction was demonstrated between fatigue and personal values in terms of production conditions (Table 5).

Table 5: Estimates and standard errors from moderated mediation analyses

	ERC		SRC	
	Estimate	SE	Estimate	SE
Predicting Fatigue				
Survey day	.12	0.07	.12	0.07
Gender	-.25 **	0.09	-.25 **	0.09
Age	.01	.09	.01	.09
Number of children in the household	.22 **	0.07	.22 **	0.07
Workload	.40 ***	0.07	.40 ***	0.07
Predicting responsible consumption				
Survey day	-.01	0.06	.06	0.08
Gender	-.32 ***	0.08	-.13	0.09
Age	-.13	0.10	-.17	0.12
Number of children in the household	-.03	0.09	-.10	0.09
Subjective financial situation	-.01	0.10	-.04	0.11
Personal values: Environment	.37 ***	0.10	–	–
Personal values: Production conditions	–	–	0.22 *	0.09
Workload	.00	0.10	-0.08	0.10
Fatigue	.08	0.09	0.15	0.09
Fatigue x Personal values: Environment	.25 **	0.08	–	–
Fatigue x Personal values: Production conditions	–	–	0.13	0.07

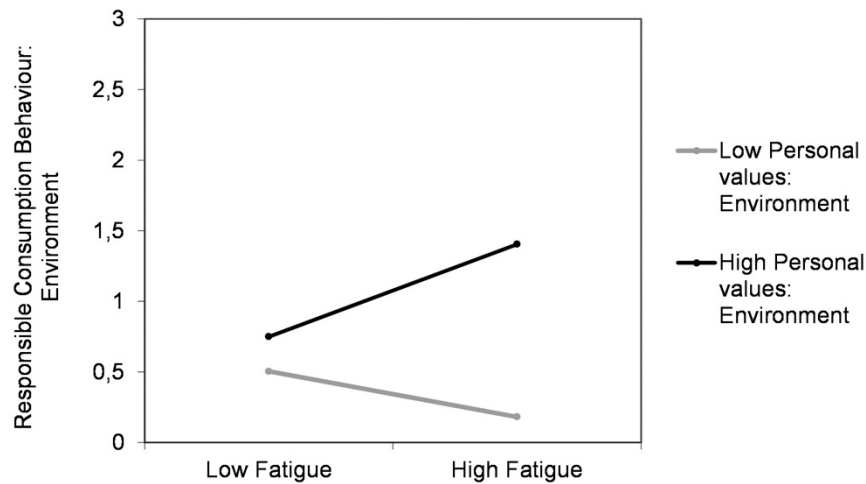
Note. Estimates are standardized. ERC = Environmentally responsible consumption; SRC = Socially responsible consumption. Gender: 0 = female; 1 = male. $N = 115$.

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$.

Table 6: Monte Carlo results for the indirect effects in terms of ERC

	Estimate	SE	97.5% CI	
			Lower	Upper
Workload - Fatigue*Personal values low - ERC	-0.06	0.05	-0.166	0.027
Workload - Fatigue*Personal values mean - ERC	0.03	0.04	-0.037	0.109
Workload - Fatigue*Personal values high - ERC	0.13	0.05	0.035	0.245

Note. ERC = Environmentally responsible consumption. Number of samples = 100,000.

Figure 3: Interaction effect between fatigue and personal values in terms of the environment

4.2.6 Additional Analysis

Because the model fit of the moderated mediation model predicting SRC was not reasonable, we decided to take a step back and tested the mediation effect without moderation by personal values. Personal values in terms of production conditions were still included as control variables within the nonmoderated mediation model. The nonmoderated mediation predicting SRC achieved a perfect fit to the data ($\chi^2(2) = 1.868$, $p = .39$, CFI = 1.00, RMSEA = .000, SRMR = .016). The results for the nonmoderated mediation predicting SRC are reported in Table 7. Workload showed a positive and significant relationship with fatigue. Counterintuitively, fatigue was shown to be positively related to SRC, and the indirect effect between workload and SRC via fatigue was significant (Estimate = 0.07 ($SE = 0.04$), 97.5% CI [0.005, 0.156]).

Table 7: Estimates and standard errors from nonmoderated mediation analysis in terms of SRC

	Estimate	SE
Predicting Fatigue		
Survey day	.12	0.07
Gender	-.25 **	0.09
Age	.01	0.09
Number of children in the household	.22 **	0.07
Workload	.40 ***	0.07
Predicting SRC		
Survey day	.07	0.08
Gender	-.11	0.10
Age	-.17	0.12
Number of children in the household	-.11	0.10
Subjective financial situation	-.05	0.11
Personal values: Environment	–	–
Personal values: Production conditions	.22 *	0.09
Workload	-.07	0.10
Fatigue	.19 *	0.09

Note. Estimates are standardized. SRC = Socially responsible consumption. Gender: 0 = female; 1 = male. $N = 115$.

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$.

4.2.7 Discussion

This study aimed to investigate the roles of work-related fatigue and personal values in the relationship between workload and responsible consumption. We demonstrated that workload was significantly positively related to fatigue. Moreover, the proposed moderated indirect effect was significant for ERC under the condition that people show high personal values. We were not able to examine personal values as a moderator in the relationship between fatigue and SRC due to the poor fit of the moderated mediation model. However, we found a significant nonmoderated mediation of workload on SRC via fatigue.

4.2.7.1 Theoretical Contributions and Implications

By demonstrating a link between work domain and consumption behaviour, our study provides a significant extension to the conceptual model of Carrington (2010). We present empirical evidence supporting the assumption that situational context affects the actual exercise of

responsible purchase behaviour, as proposed in the conceptual framework of Carrington et al. (2010). Specifically, the present research examined one particular antecedent state, namely, fatigue resulting from work demands. In the empirical consumption research, the family domain and its effects have been quite well studied (e.g., Frank, 2018; O'Neill & Buckley, 2019), but the work domain has been rather neglected thus far. Thus, the consideration of research from the field of work and organizational psychology makes an important contribution to interdisciplinary research on consumer ethics.

The results of our study partly confirm Carrington et al.'s (2014) model insofar as the role of values in the consumption process is concerned: high pro-environmental values facilitate responsible consumption despite situational barriers (such as fatigue). A possible reason for this phenomenon could lie in the habitualization of behaviour that develops when the corresponding values are high (Carrington et al., 2014). This reasoning is also consistent with the basic presumption of dual-process theories (Evans & Stanovich, 2013). The results of the current study suggest that fatigue intensifies system 1 processing, leading consumers to rely on ethical heuristics and default options for their consumption choices, but only for consumers high in pro-environmental values. If consumers show high pro-environmental values, their moral principles have formed the default option for consumption decisions. While Ritch & Schröder (2012) concluded that the use of heuristics would lead to a reduced consideration of ethical criteria, the results of our study suggest that this may only be the case for consumers with low to medium levels of corresponding personal values.

Unexpectedly, our results demonstrated a positive direct relationship between fatigue and SRC. Motivational approaches may provide an explanation for this unexpected result. First, research concerning compensatory consumption has shown that people tend to self-gift as a response to threats to the self, such as stress (Koles, Wells, & Tadjewski, 2018). With respect to the purchase of fair trade products, Ladhari & Tchegnina (2017) have argued that the consumption of fair trade products is accompanied by feelings of satisfaction and pride, which could be regarded as a motivational factor for buying them. Second, research has also shown that consumers' health motives play a major role in environmentally responsible purchasing (Paul & Rana, 2012; Rana & Paul, 2020). The results of our study may indicate that the desire to promote their own health may also be essential for consumers' socially responsible purchasing, which becomes particularly evident when health is threatened by stress. Thus, socially responsible consumption may be regarded as a mean by which fatigued employees compensate for their stress at work as follows: a high level of fatigue indicates that regulatory and

emotional resources have been drained. As people strive to preserve personal resources, especially when resources are lost (Hobfoll, 2001), fatigued people replenish their drained emotional resources after work through responsible consumption.

Although ERC and SRC were highly positively correlated with one another, the results of path analyses showed that these aspects are affected by personal values and work-related fatigue in different ways. In particular, only personal values in terms of the environment could be demonstrated as a moderator, while this moderating effect could not be demonstrated with personal values in terms of production conditions. Perhaps the availability of information in the purchase situation could explain this difference. For organic or ecological products, much information is provided via labels and certificates. By contrast, for the manufacturing conditions of products, there are noticeably fewer labels available to consumers. Because of this missing information, it is more difficult to build decision heuristics for the purchase of products manufactured under good working conditions. Thus, in a particular situation, fatigued individuals are neither able to make a quick and supportive decision for good production conditions nor able to weigh information to make a decision. In that way, personal values in terms of production conditions seem to be rather unrelated to the relationship between fatigue and SRC. Nevertheless, as indicated by the positive relationship between fatigue and SRC, other relevant contextual factors for this type of responsible consumption might need to be identified. Future research should investigate responsible consumption in terms of production conditions more thoroughly to gain more information on the integration of specific purchase habits into individuals' lifestyles.

4.2.7.2 Implications for Practice

The existence of the intention-behaviour gap in responsible consumption is a problem for business managers dealing with the marketing of ethical products. The socially responsible and environmentally compatible manufacturing of products often entails additional costs, which are compensated for by higher prices. Therefore, it is of great importance for manufacturers and distributors to demonstrate the advantages of these products so that consumers purchase them despite these high prices. Our study provided evidence that an interaction between pro-environmental consumption values and situational states caused by work predicts individual responsible consumption behaviour. In this sense, the gap between intentions and behaviour can be explained at least partially by work-related experiences. For that reason and to

overcome the intention-behaviour gap in responsible consumption, it seems useful to consider the impact that the work domain has on consumers with regard to the promotion of goods.

Furthermore, we assume that post-consumption emotions may explain the positive relationship between work-related fatigue and responsible consumption. People strive to replenish emotional resources that have been depleted throughout the working day. By anticipating positive postconsumption emotions, such as satisfaction and pride, consumers are motivated to consume responsibly. Thus, retailers may enhance responsible consumption by emphasizing the positive feelings associated with the purchase of environmentally friendly products or products made under good working conditions. Our study design indicates that this might be particularly relevant for purchases made after work.

This study has demonstrated that consumers' experiences at work are related to their responsible decision making after work. Therefore, the role of organizations in promoting responsible consumption may be more complex than previously believed. Based on the self-gifting approach and the demonstrated link between work and consumption via fatigue, offering responsible products at workplaces (e.g., in canteens or snack vending machines) might facilitate both employees' recovery during breaks and the habitualization of responsible consumption behaviours. In this respect, organizations can also make a contribution to promoting their employees' responsible purchasing decisions and thus fulfil their social responsibility.

Moreover, to build resistance to situational consumption barriers, the habitualization of responsible consumption should be fostered in the long term. With support by governments, both information on the ecological and social footprint of products and strategies for gaining such information might be taught in school. Additionally, this information can be conveyed to all age groups in society via short video clips available on TV or on the Internet. Especially for the consideration of employees' working conditions within the manufacturing process of products, useful information seems to be needed to enable responsible consumption behaviour and establish it as a standard practice.

4.2.7.3 Limitations and Future Research Directions

Our study's methodical strength is its diary design. Most quantitative studies in consumer ethics are cross-sectional, and thus, causal interpretations are inherently not possible. Using two time-shifted measurement points per day enabled more precise conclusions regarding effective directions. Nevertheless, workload and fatigue were measured at the same time, which restricts information about the causality of the first mediation path. This limitation can

be overcome in future research by using an event-sampling approach instead of a time-sampling approach. Another advantage of event sampling is the reduction of memory effects by capturing consumption behaviour in the situation. Although some previous studies have qualitatively investigated consumption behaviour in the situation (Carrington et al., 2014), quantitative empirical findings remain rare. However, by investigating responsible consumption behaviours exhibited solely in the evening and measuring such behaviour in the evening (approximately 3 hours later), our current study design is very close to event sampling.

In terms of measurement, one shortcoming of our study is participants' subjective assessment of whether the criteria of environmental friendliness and good production conditions are met. One method of addressing this issue in further studies might be that participants take pictures of their purchased products, and the researchers subsequently assess the extent to which the products meet these criteria. Although this method would provide a more objective assessment, the effort of taking pictures of all purchased products, as well as the detailed disclosure of one's purchases, would very likely reduce the willingness to participate and would cause a selection bias among the remaining participants. Nevertheless, by assessing the criteria with regard to specific products that participants purchased a few hours earlier, our assessment of consumption behaviour should be more realistic than self-ratings of attitudes or intentions.

Future research should specifically distinguish between in-store and online shopping situations when investigating the mediation processes of work on consumption behaviour, as there are systematic differences between in-store and online shopping situations (e.g., absence of other people, more possibilities to collect product information, more time to make purchase decisions). In particular, the interplay between fatigue and online shopping seems to be an interesting research question for future studies. Depending on consumers' IT affinity, online shopping might be either an additional effort or a relief for fatigued persons, and thus, online shopping opportunities should affect responsible consumption behaviour. Given the current sars-cov-2 pandemic, this research question may be particularly interesting since both work and consumption have recently been carried out primarily online.

Moreover, various contextual factors arise from the current study's results and should be investigated in future studies. For example, we investigated only work-related fatigue, but it is an open question whether fatigue resulting from nonwork demands may also cause the same effects on responsible consumption. Additionally, future studies should investigate further mediators (e.g., acceptance of longer shopping distances and self-gifting) and moderators

(e.g., the interference of consumption values for different products, the availability of product information, and consumption habits) within the relationship between fatigue and responsible consumption. Generally, more research is needed on responsible consumption in terms of production conditions. As our results showed, empirical findings in the field of the environment cannot be directly transferred to other fields. In terms of working conditions, future studies should investigate whether different types of working conditions may interact and buffer or enhance their effects on fatigue.

In this paper, we applied a cognitive approach by combining action-regulation theory and dual-process theories of human decision-making to predict how work influences employees' consumption decisions after work. However, a motivational approach involving self-determination theory (Ryan & Deci, 2000) may provide an alternative mechanism that links working conditions and consumption. As described in the theory section, need satisfaction and frustration play a role in the relationship between work and well-being (Trépanier et al., 2015; van Hooff & Geurts, 2015). Moreover, self-determination theory has been shown to be a relevant approach in consumption research (e.g., Gilal et al., 2019; Gilal et al., 2020a, 2020b). Future studies should investigate the role of psychological need satisfaction in spillover effects from work to consumption.

Finally, the sars-cov-2 pandemic has significant implications for responsible consumer behaviour during the pandemic and potentially post-pandemic in the long run. At the beginning of the pandemic, consumer behaviour was driven to a large extent by self-interest, which led to panic buying and stockpiling (Wang et al., 2020). However, the pandemic also led to a stronger emphasis on individual responsibility for the common good (Mukarram, 2020) and taught consumers that we are all globally interconnected (He & Harris, 2020). Therefore, consumers' awareness of the positive or negative impact of their product choice may be strengthened due to the pandemic in the long run, leading to a more widespread practice of responsible consumption. Future studies should address this issue in more detail.

4.2.7.4 Conclusions

In this study, we investigated spillover effects from the work domain to responsible consumption decisions. Our results demonstrated an indirect link between work experiences and responsible consumption via fatigue after work. Furthermore, we showed the important role of personal consumption values for overcoming situational barriers. In particular, the results for socially responsible consumption suggest that other relevant contextual factors within the

relationship between fatigue and consumption should be considered in future studies. The practical implications of this study highlight the promotion of responsible products at workplaces and access to information on the conditions of product manufacturing.

4.3 Studie 3: „The Spillover of Socio-Moral Climate in Organizations Onto Employees’ Socially Responsible Purchase Intention: The Mediating Role of Perceived Social Impact“

4.3.1 Abstract

Due to the pressing environmental and social issues facing the global economic system, the role of organizations in promoting socially responsible behavior among employees warrants attention in research and practice. It has been suggested that the concept of socio-moral climate (SMC) might be particularly useful for understanding how participative organizational structures and processes shape employees’ prosocial behaviors. While SMC has been shown to be positively related to employees’ prosocial behaviors within the work context, little is known about the potential spillover effects of SMC (i.e., associations between SMC and employees’ prosocial behaviors outside the work context). The present study aims to address this gap by investigating how and why SMC is related to employees’ socially responsible purchase intention. Drawing on the relational job design framework, we argue that employees’ perceptions of their social impact may explain why SMC is positively related to responsible purchase intentions. We collected data from 492 employees working in various industries at two measurement points with a time lag of 12 months. Hypotheses were tested using path analysis, in which we controlled for the temporal stability of the study variables. The results showed that SMC was positively related to perceived social impact and socially responsible purchase intention and that perceived social impact was positively related to socially responsible purchase intention. In addition, we found a significant indirect relationship between SMC and socially responsible purchase intention through perceived social impact. The findings provide initial support for the spillover of employees’ work-related experiences onto their responsible purchase intentions within the nonwork domain. This study contributes to the literature by extending the traditional focus of SMC research on the development of moral reasoning skills to suggest that perceived social impact is an important mechanism underlying the relationship between SMC and prosocial behaviors. In terms of practical implications, this study suggests that organizational interventions designed to increase SMC may enhance employees’ perceptions of their social impact.

4.3.2 Introduction

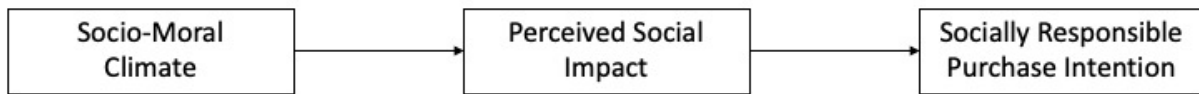
In light of the environmental and social issues in the global economic system, an important question concerning both researchers and practitioners is how organizations can promote socially responsible behavior among their employees. An increasing body of research has addressed this issue by examining the effects of ethical organizational climate (A. Newman et al., 2017) and socially responsible organizational initiatives (Aust et al., 2020; van Dick et al., 2020) on prosocial behavior and decision making within organizations. Recently, it has been suggested that the concept of socio-moral climate (SMC; Weber et al., 2009) might be particularly useful for understanding how organizational structures and processes shape employee prosocial behavior (e.g., Pircher Verdorfer & Weber, 2016; Steinheider et al., 2020). Integrating principles of communication, cooperation, and conflict resolution, SMC is closely linked to employees' participation in discursive-democratic decision-making in organizations and their prosocial behaviors, such as organizational citizenship behavior, workplace solidarity, and democratic engagement (Pircher Verdorfer et al., 2013; Weber et al., 2009).

While several studies indicate that SMC is related to prosocial behavior within organizations, little is known about how SMC affects employees' prosocial behavior outside the work context. This is a major gap, considering that understanding the spillover of SMC on employees' prosocial behavior beyond organizational boundaries may broaden our view of how organizations can meet their social responsibilities. Responsible purchasing, which refers to consumers' purchase intentions to minimize harmful effects and maximize positive impacts on society in the long term (Mohr et al., 2001), is an important form of prosociality in the nonwork domain. In fact, all employees are consumers, making more or less responsible purchase decisions in their private lives. A spillover of SMC onto employees' socially responsible purchase intentions would highlight the societal and macroeconomic significance of a participative organizational climate that stimulates employees' prosocial behavior.

This study aims to move beyond understanding the effects of SMC within the organizational context and investigate the relationship between SMC and employees' socially responsible purchase intention. We combine Grant's (2007) relational job design framework and learning-generalization theory (Kohn & Schooler, 1973) to gain an in-depth understanding of the process by which SMC is related to employees' socially responsible purchasing. The relational job design framework links job design and prosocial employee behavior, focusing on the psychological experience of perceived social impact (Grant, 2007). As a reflection of the extent to which employees are aware that their work impacts other people's lives

(Bolino & Grant, 2016; Grant, 2007), perceived social impact is an important driver of prosocial employee behavior (Grant, 2008a, 2008b). By linking employees' experiences in the work context to their broader attitudes and beliefs underlying their behavior in other contexts, the concept of perceived social impact is particularly useful for investigating the potential spillover of SMC on employees' socially responsible purchase intention. We suggest that work environments characterized by SMC contribute to the perception of social impact among employees, which in turn affects the extent to which they intend to make responsible purchase decisions. Figure 4 shows the conceptual model.

This study contributes to the literature in three significant ways. First, by integrating research on SMC with the responsible purchasing literature, we advance the understanding of how organizational climate is related to employees' behavioral intentions in other life domains. Extant research examining the effects of SMC on prosocial employee behavior has focused on the organizational context (e.g., Pircher Verdorfer et al., 2015; Schnell et al., 2013; Weber et al., 2009). By examining prosocial behavioral intentions outside the organizational context, we contribute to the understanding of the spillover effects of SMC. Second, by investigating the mediating role of perceived social impact, we add a different perspective to the theoretical conceptualization of SMC and advance the understanding of why SMC is related to employees' prosocial behavior. Traditionally, the rationale for expecting SMC to promote employees' prosocial behavior is that the work environment facilitates the development of moral reasoning skills (Weber et al., 2009). However, empirical research did not support such an underlying process (Pircher Verdorfer & Weber, 2016). By investigating employees' perceived social impact, we integrate an alternative mechanism that may explain the link between SMC and prosocial behavior. Finally, previous findings on the relationship between SMC and prosocial behavior derive almost exclusively from cross-sectional studies (Pircher Verdorfer et al., 2013, 2015; Weber et al., 2009), making it difficult to draw firm conclusions about the effects of SMC on employees' prosocial behavior. Conducting a two-wave study, we contribute to the understanding of how SMC is related to employee prosocial behavior over time.

Figure 4: Conceptual Model

4.3.3 Theoretical Background

4.3.3.1 Socio-Moral Climate and Employee Participation

SMC (Weber et al., 2009) refers to “employees’ perceptions of organizational practices and procedures, including principles of communication, teamwork, and participative decision making assumed to shape the development of ethical attitudes and value orientations of the members of an organization” (Pircher Verdorfer et al., 2015, pp. 233–234). According to Pircher Verdorfer et al. (2013, 2015), SMC comprises five components: (1) open confrontation with conflicts of interests, values, and norms, (2) reliable appreciation, including mutual care, respect and support, (3) cooperation and communication as equals, including opportunities to challenge established norms, (4) trust-based assignment of responsibility for the well-being of others inside and outside the organization, and (5) organizational concern for individuals, including the extent to which the organization adopts the perspective of individual employees.

The concept of SMC is rooted in research on democratic participation in organizations. Weber et al. (2008) postulated that employees’ substantial involvement in organizational decision-making nurtures perceptions of a socio-moral climate in organizations that facilitates prosocial behavioral orientations. From a theoretical perspective, the notion of moral socialization in organizations induced by democratic participation is based on the just community approach of moral education (Power et al., 1989; Power & Higgins-D’Alessandro, 2008). Inspired by educational structures and principles in Israeli kibbutzim, the just community approach is based on practices of deliberative democracy, including consensus-seeking through sustained dialogue and participation of all (Power & Higgins-D’Alessandro, 2008). Through its structures of deliberation and accountability, the just community approach is thought to support a sense of responsibility, solidarity, and civic engagement among community members (Power & Higgins-D’Alessandro, 2008). This goal is to be achieved by fostering a moral atmosphere in the community (Power et al., 1989). Drawing primarily on Lempert’s (1988, 1993) work, Weber et al. (2008) adapted this concept for the organizational con-

text, emphasizing its structural dimension of organizational democracy. Specifically, it is proposed that SMC evolves within democratic organizational structures (Pircher Verdorfer & Weber, 2016), forming a socializing context for employees' social and moral actions (Weber et al., 2009).

4.3.3.2 Socio-moral Climate and Perceived Social Impact

Research has commonly investigated SMC as an antecedent of employees' positive affective-motivational states towards their organization, including their sense of psychological ownership (Steinheider & Pircher Verdorfer, 2017), work engagement (Steinheider et al., 2020), and organizational commitment (Pircher Verdorfer et al., 2013; Weber et al., 2009). In this study, we draw on the relational job design framework (Grant, 2007) to argue that SMC increases employees' perceptions of social impact. The job design framework is useful in understanding why work contexts affect employees' prosocial motivation and behavior.

At the heart of the relational job design framework is the idea that perceived social impact is the psychological mechanism linking job design and employee prosocial behavior. Perceived social impact refers to the recognition that one's efforts at work make a positive difference in the lives of others (Bolino & Grant, 2016; Grant, 2007). This focus on employees' work-related experiences and the fundamentally social nature of the concept distinguishes perceived social impact from related concepts such as self-efficacy. Whereas perceived social impact refers to the experience that one's actions at work have succeeded in benefiting others, self-efficacy concerns the belief in one's capability to achieve desired outcomes and does not speak to the idea that one's work is benefiting others. Conceptually, the relational job design framework suggests that employees who perceive that their actions have a positive impact on others are more likely to seek to benefit others (Grant, 2007). As the definition of SMC includes employees' perceptions of cooperation, mutual care, and responsibility for the well-being of others, we suggest that SMC strengthens the perception of social impact because organizations characterized by SMC offer their employees various opportunities to have a positive impact on others. Specifically, work environments characterized by SMC involve frequent prosocial interactions in the workplace (Pircher Verdorfer et al., 2013; Weber et al., 2009), which may enable employees to see how their actions benefit others.

SMC is inherently participative in that it involves employees having opportunities to contribute and influence. Though varying in the degree of actual influence in decision-making (Dachler & Wilpert, 1978), employee participation describes a process that focuses on em-

employees' needs and gives them a voice (Earley & Lind, 1987). A participative climate allows employees to experience that they have the power to influence their environment (Spreitzer, 1996). A recent meta-analysis indicates that a participative work climate promotes prosocial behavior within organizations (Weber et al., 2020). Moreover, Lee et al. (2019) investigated the effects of participative human resource practices and found a positive association between information-sharing in organizations and perceived social impact. These findings suggest that opportunities for prosocial influence might be more salient for employees experiencing higher levels of SMC, thus promoting their perception of social impact. Drawing on the relational job design framework and the empirical findings mentioned above, we hypothesize the following:

Hypothesis 1: SMC is positively related to employees' perceived social impact.

4.3.3.3 Perceived Social Impact and Socially Responsible Purchase Intention

According to the relational job design framework (Grant, 2007), perceived social impact is necessary for prosocial behavior to occur. Prosocial behaviors refer to various actions that are intended to protect or promote the well-being and welfare of other individuals or groups (Bolino & Grant, 2016; Jung et al., 2020; Ma et al., 2017), such as neighbors, coworkers, or the superordinate group of humankind (Costa Pinto et al., 2020; Reese & Kohlmann, 2015). When employees feel that their actions at work have a positive impact on others, they are more likely to engage in behavior that positively impacts the lives of others (Grant, 2007). Empirical support for this notion comes from studies with employees in the airline industry (Ho & Wu, 2019) and the military service (Castanheira et al., 2016). Employees who perceive that they can positively influence others through their work feel closer and emotionally attached to others (Grant, 2008a), promoting prosocial behavior towards them (Korchmaros & Kenny, 2001). Experimental research provides evidence for such an effect for different prosocial work behaviors. For example, enhancing perceived social impact was found to increase employees' efforts to collect money for those in need among employees of a fundraising organization (Grant et al., 2007) and helpfulness of lifeguards towards guests (Grant, 2008b).

When employees repeatedly perceive that they can positively influence the lives of others at work, they should become increasingly convinced that their actions generally have a positive impact. This notion is in line with learning-generalization theory (Kohn & Schooler, 1973), suggesting that experiences in the organizational sphere translate into non-occupational realities. Extant research has found evidence for such a learning-generalization

effect, indicating that people learn from experiences in their jobs and generalize what they have learned to non-work realities (Spenner, 1988). Abundant empirical support for this proposition also stems from research on work-family spillover, which has revealed that experiences at work or in the family domain (e.g., support, conflict, satisfaction) have a considerable impact on behavior, psychological functioning and well-being in the respective other domain (Beigi et al., 2019; Ford et al., 2007). In support of this view, research on bottom-up processes indicates that domain-specific evaluations may generalize over time to global evaluations. For example, it has been shown that task-specific and occupational self-efficacy beliefs predict subsequent changes in general self-efficacy beliefs (Grether et al., 2018; Miyoshi, 2012). Utilizing this bottom-up perspective, we argue that the work-related perception of social impact generalizes over time to a more global perception of social impact in areas of life other than work.

The perception of social impact implies the awareness that one's actions indeed have consequences for the lives of others (Grant, 2007). Awareness of consequences is central to the definition of moral decision making (Schwartz, 1968) and has been highlighted as a key component in influential models of ethical behavior (Rest, 1984; Schwartz, 1977). Being aware of the overall consequences of their actions for the lives of others is necessary for people to feel responsible for engaging in prosocial actions. In the specific case of socially responsible purchasing, awareness of one's own impact on others is particularly important. Individuals who intend to engage in responsible purchasing aim to mitigate the harm and exploitation of humans, animals, and the environment through their purchase decisions (Burke et al., 2014). Given that these goals can only be achieved if many people purchase responsibly, consumers commonly overlook or deny their own contribution and influence (Schlaile et al., 2018). Conversely, a strong sense of consumer effectiveness has been shown to facilitate responsible consumerism (e.g., Cojuharenco et al., 2016). Based on these considerations, we suggest that the perception of social impact is related to prosociality in the form of socially responsible purchase intention. Specifically, we hypothesize the following:

Hypothesis 2: Employees' perceived social impact is positively related to their socially responsible purchase intention.

4.3.3.4 Socio-Moral Climate and Socially Responsible Purchase Intention

According to Karasek's (2004) idea of job socialization, workplaces are social environments in which adult learning processes occur, and the effects of these learning processes are not

limited to the work domain but extend to other areas of life. This is consistent with the conceptualization of spillover as an intraindividual contagion process which occurs across different roles (Bolger et al., 1989; Carlson et al., 2019). For example, employees with opportunities for social interaction at work may develop conversational skills, which are also helpful for conciliation between friends or family members. Work environments characterized by SMC likely contribute to the perception of social impact among employees, which may stimulate socially responsible purchasing in their private sphere. Previous studies that investigated spillover effects of SMC provide support for the potential of SMC to initiate socialization and suggest that SMC is related to employee prosocial behavior. In a cross-sectional study, SMC was shown to be related to community-related prosocial attitudes, indicating that the experience of socio-moral practices at work may generalize to other contexts (Weber et al., 2009). Another cross-sectional study found that SMC was positively related to employees' ethics-related attitudes and behavioral orientations beyond their pre-occupational childhood socialization experiences (Pircher Verdorfer et al., 2013). We extend this line of research by suggesting that SMC affects employees' prosocial behavioral intentions outside the work context. In particular, we hypothesize that SMC has an indirect effect on employees' socially responsible purchase intention through changes in their perceptions of social impact.

Hypothesis 3: SMC is positively and indirectly related to employees' socially responsible purchase intention via perceived social impact.

4.3.4 Materials and Methods

4.3.4.1 Sample and Procedure

We tested the hypotheses using a two-wave study design with a time lag of 12 months. This time lag is widely considered to be an appropriate period to capture socialization (Bauer et al., 1998; Woodrow & Guest, 2020). Participants were recruited via a German online panel platform. The use of an online panel allowed us to collect a large and heterogenous sample. Online panel data is comparable to data collected via conventional methods in terms of reliability and validity (Buhrmester et al., 2011; Walter et al., 2019). The participants had to answer all items to complete the survey. To ensure data quality, we followed recommendations for detecting careless responders (Meade & Craig, 2012) and excluded participants based on their response time (< 2 seconds per item), response consistency (even-odd consistency), and bogus items. Of the 605 employees who participated at T1, 113 participants were excluded

due to careless responding. Of the remaining 492 employees at T1, 191 employees completed the questionnaire at T2, yielding a response rate of 39%.

At T1, 48% of the respondents were female. Participants' mean age was 41.8 years ($SD = 10.8$). A total of 27% held a bachelor's degree or better and 46% had a secondary school diploma or less. A total of 51% of the participants had a monthly net income of up to 1,500 Euros minus rent. The mean weekly working hours were 38.4 ($SD = 10.0$), and 26% of the participants held supervisory positions. Approximately half of the sample (49%) had worked in their organization for at least five years, and approximately two-thirds (65%) worked in the private (vs. public) sector. At T2, the mean age was 45.5 years ($SD = 10.6$). A total of 51% employees had an income of up to 1,500 Euro minus rent. The mean weekly working hours were 37.5 ($SD = 10.3$), and 22% of the participants held supervisory positions.

4.3.4.2 Attrition Analysis

To explore whether there was differential attrition, we conducted a series of t-tests and chi-square tests using sociodemographic variables and the study variables. We compared the employees who participated at T1 and T2 with those who participated at T1 only and found no differences between the samples in terms of socially responsible purchase intention ($t(391.11) = -1.59, p = .11$), perceived social impact ($t(408.45) = -0.71, p = .47$), SMC ($t(389.68) = 0.04, p = .97$), working hours ($t(392.07) = -1.49, p = .14$), supervisory position ($\chi^2(1) = 0.29, p = .59$), sector ($\chi^2(2) = 0.61, p = .73$), education level ($\chi^2(7) = 12.05, p = .10$), tenure ($\chi^2(2) = 2.52, p = .28$), income ($\chi^2(4) = 2.01, p = .73$), and gender ($\chi^2(1) = 0.04, p = .84$). However, those who participated at T1 and T2 were slightly older ($M = 44.71, SD = 10.36$) than the dropouts ($M = 39.94, SD = 10.68$), $t(413.51) = 4.91, p < .01$.

4.3.4.3 Measures

The German versions of the scales are provided in the Appendix.

Socio-moral Climate

SMC was assessed with the validated 21-item version of the socio-moral climate scale (Pircher Verdorfer et al., 2015) developed by Weber et al. (2009). The scale measures the five components of SMC: (1) open confrontation with conflicts (e.g., "In our organization, we deal openly with conflicts and disagreements"), (2) appreciation and respect (e.g., "Our employees are treated with respect regardless of their qualifications or position"), (3) open communica-

tion and participative cooperation (e.g., “In our organization, everyone has a voice on important organizational matters”), (4) allocation of responsibility (e.g., “In our organization, everyone is challenged according to his/her skillset”), and (5) organizational concern (e.g., “Although difficult, our organization attempts to meet the needs of all its members”). The items were rated on a 5-point scale with response options ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). Cronbach’s alpha was .95.

Perceived Social Impact

We assessed perceived social impact with three items developed by Grant (2008b). A sample item is “I feel that I can have a positive impact on others through my work.” The response scale ranged from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*). Cronbach’s alphas were .92 at both T1 and T2.

Socially Responsible Purchase Intention

Socially responsible purchase intention was measured using an adapted version of the six-item Consciousness for Fair Consumption Scale developed and validated by Balderjahn et al. (2013). In the original version, the Consciousness for Fair Consumption Scale is computed by multiplying the scores of the two subscales believe (e.g., “I only buy a product if I believe that in its production the workers’ rights were adhered to.”) and importance (e.g., “How important is it for you personally that in companies the workers’ rights were adhered to.”). We used a different introduction to reflect the actual buying situation that consumers find themselves in by incorporating a tradeoff between social and utilitarian product attributes (e.g., “I would spend more money on products if I had information that in product manufacturing the workers’ rights were adhered to.”). This approach reduces the potential bias due to social desirability. The response scale ranged from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*). Cronbach’s alphas were .96 at T1 and .98 at T2.

Control Variables

We decided to include gender as a control variable in the analyses because women have been found to be more willing to consume responsibly than men (e.g., Costa Pinto et al., 2014). Additionally, gender is associated with perceptions of and behavior in prosocial contexts (Croson & Gneezy, 2009).

4.3.4.4 Data Analysis

Data were analyzed using path modeling as implemented in the lavaan package (Rosseel, 2012) using the statistics software R (R Core Team, 2019). Model fit was evaluated using the Yuan-Bentler scaled chi-square (χ^2) statistics (Yuan & Bentler, 2000), the comparative fit index (CFI), the Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI), the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), and the standardized root mean residual (SRMR). CFI and TLI values close to .90, RMSEA values less than .06, and SRMR values less than .08 indicate an acceptable fit of the model with the data (Hu & Bentler, 1999). Maximum likelihood estimation with robust standard errors (MLR) is used.

In testing Hypothesis 1, we estimated the effect of SMC at T1 on perceived social impact at T2 while controlling for perceived social impact at T1. To evaluate Hypothesis 2, we tested the effect of perceived social impact at T1 on socially responsible purchase intention at T2, controlling for the effect of socially responsible purchase intention at T1. We followed Little's (2013) recommendations for testing indirect effects using two measurement points. Path *a* of the indirect effect represents the effect of SMC at T1 on perceived social impact at T2 (controlling for its temporal stability), and path *b* represents the effect of perceived social impact at T1 on socially responsible purchase intention at T2 (controlling for its temporal stability). To test for mediation, we estimated unstandardized indirect effects (*ab*) and 95% bias-corrected confidence intervals derived from 1000 bootstrap samples (BCa CI; Davison & Hinkley, 1997).

With more than 10% of the data missing at the construct level, it is advisable to apply multiple imputation techniques (D. A. Newman, 2014). Missing data were imputed at the item level for all variables included in the model. We performed multivariate imputation by chained equations using the mice package in R (Van Buuren & Groothuis-Oudshoorn, 2011). In addition to the study variables, we included age, supervisory position, and weekly working hours as auxiliary variables in the imputation model. We used Bayesian linear regression to impute missing data in the continuous variables and logistic regression for the binary variables. The number of imputed datasets was set to $m = 100$.

4.3.5 Results

Table 8 shows the means, standard deviations, and intercorrelations of the study variables. Socio-moral climate was positively related to perceived social impact and socially responsible purchase intention at T1 and T2. In addition, we found positive correlations between per-

ceived social impact and socially responsible purchase intention at T1 and T2. As expected, the correlations among the same variables over time were relatively high, indicating high temporal stabilities. As for the control variable gender, there was a significant positive correlation only for socially responsible purchase intention at T1.

Table 8: Descriptive Statistics, Reliabilities, and Bivariate Correlations of the Study Variables

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	
1 Socio-moral climate T1	3.29	0.83	.95					
2 Perceived social impact T1	5.05	1.47	.40***	.92				
3 Perceived social impact T2	5.13	1.41	.35***	.59***	.92			
4 Socially responsible purchase intention T1	5.15	1.53	.09*	.18***	.27**	.96		
5 Socially responsible purchase intention T2	4.95	1.54	.16*	.26**	.34***	.66***	.98	
6 Gender ^a	0.48	0.05	-.04	-.01	-.12	.11*	.07	-

Note. Pearson correlation coefficients: T1/T1: $N = 492$; T1/T2 and T2/T2: $N = 191$.

M = mean; *SD* = standard deviation; Cronbach's alphas are given along the diagonal.

^a 0 = male, 1 = female.

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$, two-tailed.

Following the recommendations of Becker et al. (2016), we conducted the analyses with and without gender as a control variable. The analyses revealed that the path coefficients were essentially the same for the models with and without control variables³, indicating that gender did not account for the findings. Therefore, we report only the findings of the model without gender. The fit indices indicated a good fit of the hypothesized model with the data: $\chi^2(1) = 10.08$, $p < .01$; TLI = 0.86; CFI = 0.99; SRMR = 0.04; RMSEA = 0.14, 90% CI [0.07, 0.22]. Table 9 shows the results of the path model. The significant path *a* ($b = .29$, $SE = 0.07$, 95% CI [0.15, 0.42]) indicates that SMC at T1 was positively related to perceived social im-

³ Fit indices of the model including gender were $\chi^2(1) = 9.35$, $p < .01$; TLI = 0.81; CFI = 0.99; SRMR = 0.03; RMSEA = 0.13, 90% CI [0.06, 0.21]. Standardized path coefficients controlling for temporal stability effects of the respective variables: path *a* ($b = .29$, $SE = 0.07$, 95% CI [0.16, 0.42]), path *b* ($b = .09$, $SE = 0.04$, 95% CI [0.01, 0.17]), direct effect path *c'* ($b = .22$, $SE = 0.07$, 95% CI [0.09, 0.37]), indirect effect *ab* ($b = .03$, $SE = 0.01$, 95% CI [0.00, 0.05]), total effect *c* ($b = .25$, $SE = 0.07$, 95% CI [0.12, 0.39]).

pact at T2, and the significant path b ($b = .09$, $SE = 0.04$, 95% CI [0.01, 0.17]) shows that perceived social impact at T1 was positively related to socially responsible purchase intention at T2. Thus, the results supported Hypotheses 1 and 2. The significant direct effect c' ($b = .22$, $SE = 0.07$, 95% CI [0.08, 0.36]) indicates a positive relationship between SMC (T1) and socially responsible purchase intention (T2). Hypothesis 3 predicted that SMC is indirectly associated with socially responsible purchase intention via perceived social impact. The results showed that the indirect effect of SMC on socially responsible purchase intention via perceived social impact (ab) was significant ($b = .03$, $SE = 0.01$, 95% CI [0.01, 0.05]). Thus, Hypothesis 3 was also supported. Finally, the total effect (c) was significant and positive ($b = .25$, $SE = 0.07$, 95% CI [0.11, 0.39]).

Table 9: Results of Path Analyses of the Hypothesized Model

	Perceived social impact (T2)					Socially responsible purchase intention (T2)				
	Est	SE	z	95% CI	β	Est	SE	z	95% CI	β
SMC (T1)	0.29***	0.07	4.26	[0.15, 0.42]	.17	0.22**	0.07	3.09	[0.08, 0.36]	.12
PSI (T1)	0.51***	0.04	13.67	[0.44, 0.59]	.53	0.09*	0.04	2.12	[0.01, 0.17]	.08
SRPI (T1)						0.63***	0.04	17.91	[0.56, 0.70]	.60

Note. Pooled estimates of 100 imputed datasets. Sample size after imputation: $N = 492$.

SMC = Socio-moral climate, PSI = Perceived social impact, SRPI = Socially responsible purchase intention, β = Standardized regression coefficient.

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

4.3.6 Discussion

This study aimed to investigate the spillover effects of SMC on employees' prosocial behavior outside the work domain in the form of socially responsible purchase intention via perceived social impact. Linking the relational job design framework (Grant, 2007) and learning-generalization theory (Kohn & Schooler, 1973) with research on SMC, we have sought to contribute to a deeper understanding of the processes by which SMC is related to employees' responsible purchasing. Analyses of two-wave data revealed that SMC was positively related to perceived social impact and that perceived social impact was positively related to socially responsible purchase intention over a period of one year. In addition, the indirect effect of SMC via perceived social impact on socially responsible purchase intention was significant.

4.3.6.1 Theoretical Implications

This study advances research on SMC by providing evidence for a positive relationship between SMC and perceived social impact over the course of one year. Longitudinal investigations of SMC are scarce. To the best of our knowledge, only one study has examined the effects of SMC using more than one measurement point and found that SMC was positively related to employees' exercise of individual character strengths at work over a period of six months (Höge et al., 2020). We found that SMC was positively related to perceived social impact over one year. This result advances the understanding of how SMC affects employees' prosocial behavior over time. In its original conceptualization, SMC is assumed to stimulate moral socialization at work by promoting social and moral skills and competencies (Weber et al., 2009). However, empirical research did not find evidence for this idea (Pircher Verdorfer & Weber, 2016). Our results indicate that perceived social impact may be an alternative mechanism linking SMC and prosocial employee behavior.

Consistent with Grant's (2007) relational job design framework, empirical research has found that perceived social impact predicts prosocial work motivation (Castanheira et al., 2016; Ho & Wu, 2019) and prosocial behavior at work (Grant, 2008b; Grant et al., 2007). Building on the learning-generalization hypothesis (Kohn & Schooler, 1973) and its empirical evidence, we proposed that the perception of social impact may affect prosocial behavioral intentions beyond the work domain due to the generalization of perceived social impact. The findings provide initial support for this idea. By linking the work-related construct of perceived social impact with a prosocial intention outcome outside work, we complement the relational job design framework (2007) and its empirical support (Castanheira et al., 2016; Grant, 2008b; Grant et al., 2007; Ho & Wu, 2019).

Drawing on Karasek's (2004) work on job socialization, we provided arguments for a spillover effect of SMC at work on prosocial behavior outside the work context and found initial evidence for such an effect. This study complements prior research indicating that the characteristics of work have long-term effects on personal attitudes (Weston et al., 2021), family life (S. Lee et al., 2019), and leisure behavior (Staines, 1980). With respect to prosocial behavioral orientations, the results of our study support and extend previous findings on spillover effects of SMC (Pircher Verdorfer et al., 2013; Weber et al., 2009) by providing evidence for perceived social impact as an underlying mechanism. Considering that SMC is an indicator of the presence of participative organizational structures and practices (Pircher Verdorfer et al., 2013; Weber et al., 2009), the results of the study are consistent with recent

meta-analytic findings on organizational democracy, suggesting that employees are being socialized through participative organizational structures and practices to the extent that their prosocial behavioral orientations further develop (Weber et al., 2020).

4.3.6.2 Practical Implications

This study provides organizations with guidance on how to increase the perception of social impact among their employees. Considering that employees who are aware of their social impact in the workplace are more likely to make efforts to help customers (Grant et al., 2007; Grant, 2008b) and to contribute to service quality and organizational success (Anderson & Zeithaml, 1984), the findings may be particularly relevant for organizations in the service sector. To develop high levels of SMC, organizations may implement interventions designed to increase cooperation, egalitarian communication, mutual care, and respect in the organization. In this respect, leadership interventions may be particularly effective because leaders play an important role in establishing and developing the organizational climate, including prosocial norms and values (Grojean et al., 2004).

The organizational democracy literature (Weber et al., 2020) and the just community approach as the foundation of the SMC concept suggest that it is important to not only rethink the role and behavior of leaders but also the hierarchical structures and principles of command and control in organizations. Concerns about the decline of participation in social organizations (Putnam, 2000) as well as the critique of privatism in modern Western societies (Power et al., 1989) point to the importance of a greater consideration of the just community approach in companies and democratic organization of work. Democratically organized companies that enable employee participation may lead to employees taking responsibility for others and becoming involved in societal issues.

Moreover, the findings of this study indicate that employees who feel that their work positively affects others' lives have higher intentions to make responsible purchase decisions. Governments and nongovernmental organizations that aim to support responsible purchasing should include labor contexts in their campaigns, reminding employees that they are able to make a difference in the lives of others. Such an intervention is relatively easy to implement for employees in social professions (e.g., nurses, childcare workers) because their work offers many opportunities to affect others positively. In contrast, employees in other professions may have fewer opportunities to recognize their positive impact on the lives of others (e.g.,

warehouse workers). These employees may benefit most from interventions aimed at increasing perceived social impact.

4.3.6.3 Limitations and Future Directions

As with other studies, this study is not without limitations. In this study, all variables were assessed using self-reports, which raises concerns about potential bias due to common method variance (Podsakoff et al., 2012). By using two waves of data collection, we followed Podsakoff et al.'s (2012) suggestion to mitigate common method bias by introducing a temporal separation between the predictor and outcome variables. Therefore, it seems relatively unlikely that the results are biased due to common method variance. Self-reports also carry the risk of social desirability bias, which raises the possibility that employees overreported their socially responsible purchase intentions. However, we assured the participants of their anonymity, which lowers concerns with social desirability. In addition, research suggests that forcing respondents to weigh tradeoffs between social and utilitarian product attributes may prevent overreporting of socially responsible purchasing behavior (Auger et al., 2008). To obtain more realistic reports of socially responsible purchasing intentions, we included this tradeoff in the introduction of the items ("I would spend more money on products if I had information that ...").

Additionally, it should be noted that the effects were relatively small in magnitude. However, small effect sizes are common in autoregressive models and should not be dismissed as trivial because controlling for temporal stability removes a large portion of the variance in the outcome variable (Adachi & Willoughby, 2015). Another explanation for the small effects is that we examined relationships between employees' experiences at work and their behavioral intentions in the nonwork domain. Indeed, small effect sizes are common in spillover research (Maki et al., 2019). However, even small effects may have meaningful practical implications (Prentice & Miller, 1992).

On a related note, the relatively small effect sizes found in this study indicate that moderators may be present. The relational job design framework suggests that affective commitment to beneficiaries moderates the relationship between perceived social impact and the motivation to make a prosocial difference (Grant, 2007). That is, prosocial behavior is influenced not only by the perception of one's impact but also by the extent to which one cares about the other person. Thus, the effect of perceived social impact on socially responsible purchase intention may vary depending on employees' affective commitment to, for ex-

ample, factory workers. Previous research has shown that people who feel more connected to others are more likely to believe that their actions have a substantial impact (Cojuharenco et al., 2016) and that feeling connected and emotionally bound to humanity predicts Fairtrade consumption (Reese & Kohlmann, 2015). Therefore, we recommend that further research on responsible purchasing take a closer look at the temporal dynamics and reciprocal effects of employees' feelings of connectedness and their perceptions of (social) impact.

We argued that the association between perceived social impact and socially responsible purchase intention is due to generalization processes from specific (i.e., work-related) perceived social impact to more global assessments of one's positive impact on others. The finding of a significant relationship between perceived social impact and socially responsible purchase intention does not directly support the notion that generalization is the underlying process, as we did not assess employees' general perceptions of social impact. In fact, the effect of perceived social impact on socially responsible purchase intention may occur through processes other than generalization. For example, Sonnentag and Grant (2012) conducted a daily diary study with rescue workers and found that the experience of helping others at work was positively related to positive affectivity at bedtime. Considering that responsible purchasing has been shown to be strongly influenced by consumers' positive emotional states (Ladhari & Tchetgna, 2017), future studies may explore the role of positive affectivity in the relationship between perceived social impact and responsible purchasing. In addition, future studies should examine the role of moral values and emotions in the relationship between SMC and socially responsible purchasing. For example, previous studies have shown that moral elevation – the feeling of warmth and expansion in response to other people's goodness, kindness, and compassion (Haidt, 2003) – is an important mechanism underlying associations between prosocial contexts and prosocial intentions (Pohling et al., 2019).

More research is needed that investigates the effects of SMC over time. The only other longitudinal study so far has examined effects of SMC on the applicability of signature character strengths at work six months later (Höge et al., 2020). Previous studies on potential spillover effects of SMC on prosocial attitudes and behavioral intentions beyond the work context have used cross-sectional data (Pircher Verdorfer et al., 2013; Weber et al., 2009). Although this study provides initial longitudinal evidence for the spillover of SMC, future research should aim to provide more in-depth insights into the temporal dynamics of SMC and employees' experiences and behavior outside the work context. Because there was no theoretical basis for defining optimal time lags between the measurements of the variables

examined in this study, we followed the job socialization research (Bauer et al., 1998; Woodrow & Guest, 2020) and used two measurement points with a time lag of 12 months. Future studies should use multiple measurement points to examine when the effects of SMC on employee prosociality occur. This knowledge will be particularly useful for researchers investigating the effects of organizational interventions designed to increase SMC.

4.3.7 Conclusion

This study sought to gain an in-depth understanding of the process by which SMC in organizations spills over to employees' prosocial behavioral intentions outside work. We examined the relationships between SMC, perceived social impact, and socially responsible purchase intention over a time period of one year and tested the indirect relationship between SMC and socially responsible purchase intention via perceived social impact. The results showed that SMC was positively related to perceived social impact, which, in turn, was positively related to employees' socially responsible purchase intention. The study results suggest that experiences at work may affect employees' socially responsible purchasing in their private lives. This study advances research on SMC and the relational job design framework by providing evidence for longitudinal relationships of their core constructs in the context of responsible purchasing. The findings provide organizations with guidance on how to increase employees' perceptions of social impact and their responsible purchasing.

4.3.8 Appendix

German items of the socio-moral climate scale (Pircher Verdorfer et al., 2015):

- Wenn es bei uns unterschiedliche Ansichten bei wichtigen Angelegenheiten gibt, wird offen damit umgegangen.
- Bei uns geht man offen mit Konflikten und Interessensgegensätzen um.
- Wenn es zu Spannungen zwischen Unternehmensinteressen und den Interessen der Arbeitenden kommt, sprechen alle Beteiligten offen darüber.
- Wenn hier jemand ungerecht behandelt oder übergangen wird, so wird dies offen angesprochen.
- Man kann bei uns auch Fehler machen, ohne dafür bestraft zu werden.
- Gegenseitiger Respekt wird bei uns groß geschrieben.
- Das Vertrauen untereinander lässt bei uns einiges zu wünschen übrig.
- Die Mitarbeiter*innen werden unabhängig von der Ausbildung und Qualifikation

geachtet.

- Niemand muss hier ein Blatt vor den Mund nehmen; jeder kann sich offen zu Meinungen von Entscheidungsträger*innen äußern, ohne negative Folgen fürchten zu müssen.
- Mitarbeiter*innen werden ermutigt und bestärkt, den eigenen moralischen Standpunkt hinsichtlich des Vorgehens und Vorhabens des Unternehmens zu äußern.
- Auch bei weitreichenden Veränderungen im Unternehmen haben die Mitarbeiter*innen ein Wörtchen mitzureden.
- Wichtige Entscheidungen, die bei uns getroffen werden, beruhen auf der Meinung einiger Weniger.
- Bei uns gibt es kaum „heilige Kühe“. Es ist möglich, Prinzipien infrage zu stellen, falls sie für den gemeinsamen Erfolg oder die gute Zusammenarbeit nicht mehr geeignet sind.
- Bei uns wird jeder – seinen Fähigkeiten entsprechend – auch mit schwierigen Aufgaben betraut.
- Das Vertrauen der Führungspersonen in die Fähigkeit der Mitarbeiter*innen, verantwortlich zu handeln, ist nicht sehr groß.
- Es wird bei uns gefördert, dass man sich für andere einsetzt.
- Wer sich dazu berufen fühlt, dem wird bei uns Verantwortung für andere Kolleg*innen übertragen.
- Den Bedürfnissen aller Mitarbeiter*innen gerecht zu werden, ist eine echte Herausforderung, aber es wird bei uns ernsthaft versucht.
- Wenn jemand bei uns persönliche Probleme hat, kann er mit dem Verständnis der anderen rechnen.
- Auf persönliche Gefühle der Mitarbeiter*innen wird bei uns wenig Rücksicht genommen.
- Bei wichtigen Entscheidungen berücksichtigen die Verantwortlichen normalerweise das Wohl der betroffenen Mitarbeiter*innen.

German translation of the perceived social impact scale (Grant, 2008b):

- Ich bin mir der positiven Auswirkungen, die meine Arbeit auf andere Menschen hat, sehr bewusst.
- Ich bin mir sehr darüber bewusst, auf welche Weise meine Arbeit anderen Menschen zugutekommt.
- Ich habe das Gefühl, dass ich durch meine Arbeit einen positiven Einfluss auf andere haben kann.

Socially responsible purchase intention scale (adapted and translated from Balderjahn et al. (2013):

Ich würde mehr Geld für Produkte ausgeben wenn mir Informationen darüber vorliegen würden, dass bei der Herstellung ...

- die Rechte der Arbeitnehmer*innen eingehalten wurden.
- keine Arbeitnehmer*innen zur Zwangsarbeit verpflichtet wurde.
- keine Kinder beteiligt gewesen sind.
- die Arbeitnehmer*innen nicht diskriminiert wurden.
- die Arbeitsbedingungen den internationalen gesetzlichen Standards entsprachen.
- die Arbeitnehmer*innen gerecht bzw. fair entlohnt wurden.

5 Gesamtdiskussion

Mit dieser Arbeit sollte die Frage beantwortet werden, inwieweit Arbeitskontexte das verantwortungsbewusste Konsumverhalten im Privatleben der Arbeitstätigen beeinflussen können. Um sich der Beantwortung dieser Frage zu nähern, wurden sowohl Bedingungen der Erwerbsarbeit (Studie 2 und 3), als auch Einflussfaktoren der Freiwilligenarbeit (Studie 1) adressiert. Zudem wurden in den drei Studien verschiedene methodische Ansätze verwendet. Diese umfassten neben einer Querschnittuntersuchung (Studie 1) auch eine Tagebuchuntersuchung (Studie 2) sowie eine Längsschnittuntersuchung mit zwei Erhebungswellen (Studie 3). Allen drei Studien liegt der Gedanke zugrunde, dass der Einfluss von Arbeit auf Erleben und Verhalten in anderen Lebensbereichen über Ressourcen der Arbeitstätigen vermittelt wird. Im folgenden Abschnitt werden die Ergebnisse dieser drei Artikel insgesamt diskutiert.

5.1 Inhaltliche Diskussion der Ergebnisse

In diesem Kapitel sollen ausgehend von den Ergebnissen der drei zuvor vorgestellten Untersuchungen dieser Arbeit die Fragen beantwortet werden, ob eine Beziehung zwischen Arbeitskontexten und dem privaten verantwortungsbewussten Konsumverhalten existiert und durch welche Ressourcen eine solche Beziehung zustande kommt.

5.1.1 Die Beziehung zwischen Arbeitskontexten und dem privaten verantwortungsbewussten Konsumverhalten

Die grundsätzliche Frage danach, inwieweit Arbeitskontexte und deren Bedingungen das Erleben und Verhalten in anderen Lebensbereichen beeinflussen können, hat eine lange Tradition (Kabanoff, 1980; Meissner, 1971; Wilensky, 1960). Dabei wurden vor allem zwei Wirkungsweisen unterschieden: Der Kompensationseffekt beschreibt einen Ausgleich zwischen Arbeit und Privatleben, sodass negativen Erfahrungen bei der Arbeit durch bestimmte Aktivitäten im Privatleben entgegengewirkt wird. Der Generalisierungseffekt beschreibt dagegen eine Übertragung von arbeitsbezogenen Erfahrungen und Verhaltensweisen auf das Privatleben (Geurts & Demerouti, 2003). Die Beziehung zwischen Arbeit und dem verantwortungsbewussten Konsumverhalten wurde in dieser Forschungstradition insofern bislang weitgehend vernachlässigt, als die wissenschaftliche Literatur in einem konzeptionellen Entwicklungsstand verbleibt (Muster, 2012) und sich auf Konsumaktivitäten bezieht, die der konkreten

Kaufentscheidung nachgeschaltet sind (Andersson et al., 2012; Frezza et al., 2019; Gadeikienė et al., 2019; Klade et al., 2013; Muster, 2011).

Erste empirische Hinweise für eine Beziehung zwischen Arbeit und verantwortungsbewusstem Konsum geben Forschungsarbeiten, die einen positiven Zusammenhang zwischen Freiwilligenarbeit und ethischem bzw. politischem Kaufverhalten im Sinne eines Generalisierungseffektes aufzeigen (Espejo & Vázquez, 2017; Neilson & Paxton, 2010; Summers, 2016). Ausgehend von diesem Forschungsstand bestand eine in der vorliegenden Arbeit zu beantwortende Frage darin, ob eine Beziehung zwischen Arbeit und verantwortungsbewusstem Konsumverhalten für einen breiteren Anwendungsbereich, nämlich ausgeweitet auf die Erwerbsarbeit, bestätigt werden kann.

In allen drei durchgeführten Studien in der vorliegenden Arbeit wurde eine (indirekte) Beziehung zwischen Arbeit bzw. Arbeitsbedingungen und verantwortungsbewussten Konsumaktivitäten gezeigt. In Studie 1 wurde Arbeit dabei als freiwilliges Engagement in Vereinen oder Verbänden konzeptualisiert. Die Ergebnisse lassen den Schluss zu, dass Freiwilligenarbeit ein förderlicher Faktor für das verantwortungsbewusste Konsumverhalten im Sinne eines Generalisierungseffektes darstellt. Damit bestätigt Studie 1 frühere Forschungsergebnisse, die einen solchen Zusammenhang bereits aufgezeigt haben (Espejo & Vázquez, 2017; Neilson & Paxton, 2010; Summers, 2016).

In Studie 2 wurde Arbeit im Hinblick auf das Ausmaß an quantitativer Überforderung bei der Erwerbsarbeit untersucht, welches Beschäftigte am Ende ihres Arbeitstages einschätzten. Die Operationalisierung des verantwortungsbewussten Konsumverhaltens folgte insoweit ebenfalls einem situativen Ansatz, als soziale bzw. umweltbezogene Kaufkriterien für tatsächliche Kaufakte am Ende des Tages eingeschätzt wurden. Die Ergebnisse dieser Studie zeigen ein differenziertes Bild in Bezug auf die Frage nach dem Zusammenhang zwischen Arbeit und verantwortungsbewusstem Konsum: Für den Kauf von tier- und/oder umweltfreundlichen Produkten scheint eine indirekte Verbindung zur Arbeit nur für Menschen zu bestehen, denen das Thema tier- bzw. umweltfreundlicher Konsum persönlich besonders wichtig ist. Für den Kauf von Produkten, die unter fairen Bedingungen hergestellt wurden, bestand diese Einschränkung in Studie 2 nicht, sodass Arbeit diesbezüglich generell in einer indirekten Beziehung zu stehen scheint. Beide indirekten Effekte dieser Studie sind eher im Sinne eines Kompensationseffektes zu interpretieren, da quantitative Überforderung in einer positiven indirekten Beziehung zum Konsumverhalten stand. Es bleibt dabei zu diskutieren, inwieweit das verantwortungsbewusste Konsumverhalten den Beschäftigten als Bewältigungsstrategie dient,

um arbeitsbezogene Belastungen bei der Arbeit und den damit einhergehenden Ressourcenverlust (Hobfoll, 2001) zu kompensieren. Die Forschungslage zum Einfluss anderer Lebensbereiche auf verantwortungsbewusste Kaufakte ist bislang als defizitär zu beschreiben und beschränkt sich fast ausschließlich auf familiäre Einflüsse (Carey, Shaw, & Shiu, 2008; Carrigan & Szmigin, 2006; Frank, 2018; O'Neill & Buckley, 2019). Der Einflussbereich der Arbeit wurde in dieser Forschungstradition bislang weitestgehend vernachlässigt. Insofern erweitern die Ergebnisse von Studie 2 den Kenntnisstand zu interkontextuellen Effekten auf verantwortungsbewusstes Kaufverhalten um den Einfluss der Erwerbsarbeit.

In Studie 3 stand mit dem soziomoralischen Organisationsklima ebenfalls ein Kontextfaktor der Erwerbsarbeit im Vordergrund. Es konnte ein indirekter, längsschnittlicher Zusammenhang zwischen dem soziomoralischen Klima und dem im Sinne einer Verhaltensintention operationalisierten verantwortungsbewussten Konsum gezeigt werden. Dieses Ergebnis entspricht insofern einem Generalisierungseffekt, als das Erleben eines prosozialen Klimas bei der Erwerbsarbeit indirekt positiv mit konsumbezogenen Verhaltensweisen im Privatleben zusammenhängt, bei denen die Bedürfnisse anderer berücksichtigt werden. Das Ergebnis bestätigt zudem die ursprüngliche Konzeptualisierung des soziomoralischen Klimas als Kontextfaktor für moralische Sozialisation am Arbeitsplatz (Weber et al., 2009), was Auswirkungen auf prosozial-orientiertes Verhalten außerhalb der Arbeit impliziert (Karasek, 2004). Inwieweit das sozio-moralische Klima auf prosoziales oder verantwortungsbewusstes Verhalten von Mitarbeitenden außerhalb des Arbeitskontextes wirkt, ist bislang sehr wenig bekannt und Forschungsarbeiten stützen sich ausschließlich auf Querschnittuntersuchungen (Pircher Verdorfer et al., 2013, 2015; Weber et al., 2009). Die Ergebnisse von Studie 3 bestätigen das sozio-moralische Klima als einen arbeitsbezogenen Einflussfaktor auf das verantwortungsbewusste Konsumverhalten.

Zusammenfassend zeigt diese Arbeit, dass Arbeitskontexte das verantwortungsbewusste Konsumverhalten indirekt beeinflussen können. Dies gilt sowohl für unbezahlte (Freiwilligenarbeit) als auch bezahlte Arbeit (Erwerbsarbeit). Die Ergebnisse deuten darüber hinaus darauf hin, dass sowohl Generalisierungseffekte als auch Kompensationseffekte in diesem Zusammenhang wirken, was ebenfalls im Einklang mit bisherigen Forschungsarbeiten zu diesem Thema steht (Geurts & Demerouti, 2003).

5.1.2 Wodurch wird die Beziehung zwischen Arbeit und verantwortungsbewusstem Konsum vermittelt?

Das in Kapitel 2 vorgestellte, dieser Arbeit zugrunde liegende Untersuchungsmodell basiert auf der grundsätzlichen theoretischen Annahme, dass der Einfluss von Arbeit auf das Erleben und Verhalten in anderen Lebensbereichen über die persönlichen Ressourcen der Arbeitstätigen vermittelt wird (Geurts & Demerouti, 2003; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012). Werden die für ein verantwortungsbewusstes Konsumverhalten benötigten Ressourcen (z. B. Zeit, Energie) durch die Arbeitstätigkeit verbraucht, sollten dementsprechend negative Effekte zu erwarten sein. Positive Effekte sind dagegen anzunehmen, wenn entsprechende Ressourcen (z. B. Fähigkeiten, Einstellungen) durch die Arbeitstätigkeit aufgebaut oder gestärkt wurden. Die Ergebnisse der drei Untersuchungen stützen das zugrunde liegende Modell insoweit, als die vermittelnde Rolle von persönlichen Ressourcen für den Zusammenhang zwischen Arbeit und verantwortungsbewusstem Konsum bestätigt wurde.

Ausgehend von dem Ergebnis, dass Freiwilligenarbeit ein förderlicher Faktor für das verantwortungsbewusste Konsumverhalten ist, wurden in Studie 1 vermittelnde Faktoren in diesem Zusammenhang untersucht. Signifikante Effekte zeigten sich dabei für deskriptive soziale Normen und kollektive Wirksamkeitsüberzeugungen, nicht jedoch für die Verfügbarkeit von Informationen. Menschen, die Freiwilligenarbeit leisten, nehmen dementsprechend eher wahr, dass sie durch ihr Konsumverhalten Einfluss auf Produktionsbedingungen ausüben können und dass andere Menschen in ihrem Umfeld verantwortungsbewusst konsumieren. Dies kann darauf hindeuten, dass sich soziale Normen und kollektive Wirksamkeitsüberzeugungen im Rahmen der Freiwilligenarbeit (weiter-)entwickeln, Menschen also durch ihr Engagement sozialisiert werden. Dies bedarf allerdings weiterer Forschung, da Studie 1 als Querschnittstudie konzipiert wurde und daher Selektions- und Sozialisierungseffekte nicht analysiert werden können.

In Studie 2 sollte die vermittelnde Rolle von Ressourcenverlust operationalisiert als Zustand kognitiv-emotionaler Erschöpfung in einer Tagebuchstudie untersucht werden. Es zeigte sich ein positiver indirekter Effekt für umweltbezogenes Kaufverhalten bei Menschen, denen dieses Verhalten besonders wichtig ist, sodass ein Verlust an kognitiv-emotionalen Ressourcen einen eher förderlichen Faktor darstellt. Als Erklärungsansatz für dieses Ergebnis lassen sich Forschungsarbeiten zum kompensatorischen Konsum heranziehen. Diese zeigen, dass Menschen sich selbst beschenken als Reaktion auf Bedrohungen für das Selbst, was etwa durch Stress ausgelöst wird (Koles et al., 2018). Ausgehend von Studien, die verantwortungs-

bewusste Konsumaktivitäten mit positiven Emotionen (z. B. Zufriedenheit, Stolz) assoziieren (z. B. Ladhari & Tchetgna, 2017), könnte angenommen werden, dass jene Konsumaktivitäten ausgeübt werden, um Ressourcen für das Selbst zu wahren bzw. wieder aufzufüllen. Dies ist für Menschen besonders dann bedeutsam, wenn sie einen Ressourcenverlust erleben bzw. davon bedroht sind (Hobfoll, 2001). Die Rolle des verantwortungsbewussten Konsums als Bewältigungsstrategie für (drohende) Ressourcenverluste muss allerdings in weiteren Studien genauer untersucht werden.

In Studie 3 wurde die persönliche Überzeugung, durch die eigene Arbeit einen positiven Einfluss auf andere Menschen auszuüben (wahrgenommener sozialer Einfluss), als vermittelnde Ressource untersucht. Die Ergebnisse bestätigen die Annahme, dass der wahrgenommene soziale Einfluss die Wirkung von arbeitsbezogenen Kontexten auf den verantwortungsvollen Konsum vermittelt. Frühere Forschungsarbeiten stützen sich auf die Annahme, dass die (Weiter-)Entwicklung der moralischen Urteilsfähigkeit die vermittelnde Ressource im Zusammenhang zwischen dem sozio-moralischen Klima und prosozialem Verhalten außerhalb der Arbeit darstelle (z. B. Weber et al., 2009). Empirische Belege fehlen jedoch bislang dafür (Pircher Verdorfer & Weber, 2016). Studie 3 liefert dementsprechend Belege für einen alternativen, vermittelnden Faktor.

5.2 Limitationen und zukünftige Forschung

Im Folgenden werden sowohl methodische als auch inhaltliche Limitationen der dieser Arbeit zugrunde liegenden Studien diskutiert. Die methodischen Limitationen beziehen sich auf das Studiendesign, die durchgeführten Analysen, die Datenerhebung und die eingesetzten Analyseinstrumente. Die inhaltlichen Limitationen beziehen sich dabei auf die Konzeptualisierung und Auswahl persönlicher Ressourcen, die die Wirkung von Arbeitskontexten auf den verantwortungsbewussten Konsum vermitteln. Zudem wird ein allgemeiner Ausblick auf zukünftige Forschungsbedarfe gegeben.

5.2.1 Studiendesign und Analysestrategie

Die zugrunde liegende Frage, wie Arbeitskontexte verantwortungsbewusste Kaufhandlungen beeinflussen, wurde in den drei Studien mithilfe unterschiedlicher Studiendesigns untersucht. Die in Studie 1 verwendete Querschnittuntersuchung stellt für diese Fragestellung eine erste Limitation dar, da die Mediationshypothese einen Zeitverlauf impliziert (Maxwell & Cole, 2007), der über eine Querschnitterhebung nicht abgebildet werden kann. Insofern lassen die

Ergebnisse in Studie 1 keine Schlussfolgerung über die Richtung der Beziehungen oder Kausalität zu. Viele Studien haben bereits gezeigt, dass Querschnittuntersuchungen zu Mediationseffekten verzerrte Schätzungen von direkten und indirekten Effekten produzieren (Maxwell et al., 2011; Maxwell & Cole, 2007; O’Laughlin et al., 2018). Daher kann auf Grundlage der indirekten Effekte aus Studie 1 keine Aussage darüber getroffen werden, ob (längsschnittliche) Mediationseffekte tatsächlich existieren und wenn ja, wie stark diese Effekte wären.

In den Studien 2 und 3 wurde diese Limitation aufgegriffen. In beiden Studien wurden Daten zu mehreren Messzeitpunkten erhoben. Die Auswertung der Längsschnittdaten erfolgte in Studie 2 allerdings auf Basis von Mittelwerten über die Wochentage hinweg. Positiv hervorzuheben ist, dass das Kaufverhalten mit einem zeitlichen Abstand zu den übrigen Modellvariablen erfasst wurde, sodass ein gewisser Zeitverlauf für den Mediationseffekt im Sinne von Maxwell & Cole (2007) berücksichtigt wurde. In Studie 3 erfolgte die Datenerhebung an zwei Messzeitpunkten im Abstand von 12 Monaten. Ähnlich wie in Studie 2 konnte die Mediationshypothese somit nicht in einem vollen Längsschnittmodell getestet werden, wofür drei Messzeitpunkte nötig gewesen wären (Little, 2013). Gleichwohl konnte in Studie 3 der zeitliche Verlauf dadurch adressiert werden, dass Effekte von einer Variablen auf die andere unter Kontrolle von Stabilitätseffekten geschätzt wurden. Dadurch wurde den Anforderungen an die Testung von Mediationseffekten zumindest teilweise Rechnung getragen. Zukünftige Studien sollten die vermittelnde Rolle persönlicher Ressourcen im Zusammenhang zwischen Arbeitskontexten und verantwortungsbewusstem Konsum in längsschnittlichen Studiendesigns mit mehr als zwei Messzeitpunkten untersuchen, um zeitliche Verläufe besser abbilden zu können.

5.2.2 Datenerhebung und Analyseinstrumente

Die Daten wurden in der vorliegenden Arbeit mittels Onlinefragebögen erhoben. Zur Erhebung der Studienvariablen wurde dabei größtenteils auf etablierte und validierte Instrumente zurückgegriffen. Teilweise zeigten sich jedoch Einschränkungen in Bezug auf die Reliabilität einzelner Variablen. Dies betrifft etwa die geringe interne Konsistenz der zuvor erwähnten Skala empathische Besorgnis, die in Studie 1 als Kontrollvariable erhoben wurde. In den Studien 1 und 2 wurden zudem vereinzelt Variablen über Einzel-Item-Maße erhoben, wodurch die entsprechenden Variablen mit einem höheren Messfehler behaftet sind. Die Ergebnisse müssen dementsprechend vor dem Hintergrund dieser Einschränkung eingeordnet werden.

Es kann zudem nicht ausgeschlossen werden, dass die Ergebnisse gewissen Verzerrungen unterliegen. Verzerrungen könnten etwa dadurch zustande gekommen sein, dass die Studienteilnehmenden die Studienvariablen selbst einschätzten („Common Method Bias“; Podsakoff et al., 2012) und somit etwa sozial erwünschtes Antwortverhalten die Ausprägung der Variablen beeinflusst haben könnte. Diese Art der Verzerrung betrifft insbesondere die Erhebung des verantwortungsbewussten Kaufverhaltens (Auger & Devinney, 2007; Carrigan & Attalla, 2001; Kuokkanen & Sun, 2020), was in der vielfach aufgezeigten Lücke zwischen der erklärten Verhaltensabsicht und dem tatsächlichen verantwortungsbewussten Kaufverhalten (Carrington et al., 2014, 2016) Ausdruck findet.

In den drei Studien wurden verschiedene Versuche unternommen, um dem Problem des sozial erwünschten Antwortverhaltens zu begegnen. In Studie 1 wurde etwa empathische Besorgnis als eine selbst eingeschätzte prosoziale Persönlichkeitsvariable (Penner et al., 1995) erhoben und als Kontrollvariable in die Analysen eingebunden. Da sozial erwünschtes Antwortverhalten hoch mit der selbst eingeschätzten Prosozialität zusammenhängt (Penner et al., 1995), wurde insofern auf Verzerrungen dieser Art kontrolliert. Durch das Tagebuchdesign in Studie 2 war es möglich, das verantwortungsbewusste Kaufverhalten weniger im Sinne einer Verhaltensabsicht, sondern eher als erinnertes, tatsächliches Verhalten zu erfassen: Die Teilnehmenden gaben am Ende jedes Tages an, ob sie an dem Tag ein oder mehrere Produkte gekauft haben. Anschließend sollten die Teilnehmenden angeben, inwiefern die entsprechenden Produkte umwelt-/tierfreundlich sind bzw. unter fairen Bedingungen hergestellt wurden. Auch wenn diese Art der Operationalisierung zu einem gewissen Grad ebenfalls durch sozial erwünschtes Antwortverhalten beeinflusst sein könnte, ist doch anzunehmen, dass Verzerrungen weniger stark sind, da Verhalten eingeschätzt werden sollte, das zuvor bereits ausgeführt wurde. Ein möglicher „Common Method Bias“ wurde zudem durch eine zeitliche Trennung von Prädiktor und Outcome (Studie 2) bzw. durch Kontrolle von Stabilitätseffekten (Studie 3) abgeschwächt. Für zukünftige Forschungsarbeiten ergibt sich daher insbesondere die Herausforderung, alternative Möglichkeiten der Operationalisierung von verantwortungsbewusstem Konsum zu implementieren, um Verzerrungseffekten aufgrund von Selbsteinschätzungen entgegenzuwirken. Dies könnte etwa mithilfe von Beobachtungen am Point-of-Sale (Frank, 2018) oder Auswertungen von Kassenzetteln (Lichtenstein et al., 2004) umgesetzt werden.

5.2.3 Auswahl und Konzeptualisierung persönlicher Ressourcen

Vor dem Hintergrund, dass der Zusammenhang zwischen Arbeitskontexten und verantwortungsbewusstem Konsum bislang kaum untersucht wurde, konnten sich die Fragestellungen der drei Studien dieser Arbeit nur bedingt an bestehenden Konzepten und Modellen orientieren. Dies eröffnet zum einen die Diskussion zur Auswahl und Konzeptualisierung der vermittelnden persönlichen Ressourcen, wie sie in dieser Arbeit vorgenommen wurden. Zum anderen lässt es die Identifikation einer Reihe von zukünftigen Forschungsthemen zu, auf die am Ende dieses Kapitels Bezug genommen wird.

Was die Auswahl der untersuchten Ressourcen an der Schnittstelle zwischen Arbeit und Konsum angeht, so wurden die postulierten Zusammenhänge in den drei Studien zwar jeweils deduktiv hergeleitet, jedoch konnte die Auswahl der untersuchten persönlichen Ressourcen in dieser Arbeit keiner festen Systematik folgen. Dies lag zum einen daran, dass sich die Auswahl der Ressourcen nur bedingt an einer leitgebenden Begriffsbestimmung von Ressourcen orientieren konnte, da diese durch ihre Breite generell die Gefahr der Beliebigkeit bei der Auswahl zu untersuchender Ressourcen birgt (Hobfoll et al., 2018). Die zielbasierte Ressourcendefinition von Halbesleben et al. (2014), nach der Ressourcen definiert werden als das, was in der Wahrnehmung von Personen der Erreichung eines Ziels dient, kann der Gefahr der Beliebigkeit entgegenwirken. Im Gegenstandsbereich des verantwortungsbewussten Konsums ergibt sich daraus jedoch eine andere Problematik: Die zielbasierte Definition von Ressourcen ist nämlich eng verknüpft mit kognitiven Motivationstheorien, wie Erwartungs- oder Zielsetzungstheorien (für einen Überblick siehe Miner, 2005), da Ressourcen und deren Wert von der Wahrnehmung ihrer Instrumentalität abhängen. Mit Blick auf verantwortungsbewusste Konsumaktivitäten widerspricht diese Konzeptualisierung der aktuellen Auffassung, dass moralisch geprägte Kaufentscheidungen weniger instrumental-rational und bewusst, sondern in hohem Maße intuitiv getroffen werden (Chatzidakis, 2015).

Zum anderen konnte sich die Auswahl der Ressourcen nur bedingt an vorangegangenen Untersuchungen orientieren, da bislang kaum Forschungsarbeiten existieren, in denen die Rolle persönlicher Ressourcen an der Schnittstelle zwischen Arbeitskontexten und verantwortungsbewussten Kaufaktivitäten untersucht wird. Eine Ausnahme stellt dabei die soziologisch geprägte Literatur zum Einfluss des freiwilligen Engagements auf politisches Kaufverhalten dar, auf denen die in Studie 1 getesteten Hypothesen basieren. So wird in dieser Literatur angenommen, dass die freiwillige Beteiligung und ehrenamtliche Mitarbeit in bestimmten Vereinen, Verbänden und ähnlichen Organisationen vielfältige Möglichkeiten bieten, Fähigkeiten

und Einstellungen (z. B. Kooperationserfahrungen, Verhandlungssicherheit, persönliche Wirksamkeitserwartungen) zu entwickeln, die zivilgesellschaftliches Engagement in anderen Kontexten erleichtern. Die wissenschaftliche Diskussion diesbezüglich geht bislang allerdings nicht über vage Annahmen hinaus, sodass eine gezielte Auswahl spezifischer persönlicher Ressourcen auf Grundlage dieser Literatur auch nur bedingt möglich ist.

Für zukünftige Forschung besteht daher die Notwendigkeit, persönliche Ressourcen für diesen Anwendungsbereich genauer zu definieren bzw. Konzepte dazu zu entwickeln, welche persönlichen Ressourcen an der Schnittstelle zwischen Arbeit und verantwortungsbewusstem Konsum wirken. Die Taxonomie von ten Brummelhuis und Bakker (2012) im Anwendungsbereich Arbeit–Familie könnte dafür ein angemessener Ausgangspunkt sein. In diesen, zukünftig zu entwickelnden Konzepten sollte zudem die Rolle arbeitsbezogener Bedingungen und Kontexte genauer ausgearbeitet werden, um schließlich genauere Annahmen darüber aufzustellen, wie Arbeit gestaltet werden sollte, um verantwortungsbewusstes Kaufverhalten zu unterstützen. Dabei sollten sowohl tätigkeitsspezifische Merkmale als auch Kontextfaktoren (z. B. auf organisationaler Ebene) betrachtet werden.

Zukünftige Forschungsarbeiten sollten außerdem die Rolle der sozialen Identität bei der Untersuchung von Spillover-Effekten berücksichtigen. Die gruppenbezogene Identifikation bestimmt zu einem großen Teil darüber, in welchem Ausmaß Normen, Werte und Überzeugungen dieser Gruppe das persönliche Verhalten leiten (Turner et al., 1994). Tatsächlich konnte bereits gezeigt werden, dass die organisationale Identifikation ein wichtiger Faktor bei der Übersetzung von ethischen Normen und Werten der Organisation in persönliches Verhalten darstellt (van Gils et al., 2017). Für normativ-vermittelte Spillover-Effekte, wie zum Beispiel in Studie 1, könnte die organisationale Identifikation daher ein wichtiger Einflussfaktor sein, sodass normative Einflüsse auf den privaten verantwortungsbewussten Konsum größer sind, je höher die Identifikation mit der Organisation ausgeprägt ist. Gleichmaßen könnte auch das Verhalten von Führungskräften in diesem Zusammenhang relevant sein. Führungskräfte spielen eine wichtige Rolle bei der Vermittlung und Aufrechterhaltung (pro-)sozialer Normen und Werte in Organisationen (Grojean et al., 2004) und nehmen somit auch Einfluss auf das Verhalten der Beschäftigten. Frühere Forschungsarbeiten weisen etwa darauf hin, dass dieser Einfluss umso größer ist, je ähnlicher die Führungskraft dem Team ist und je mehr die Führungskraft sich mit dem Team identifiziert (Steffens et al., 2015). Der Einfluss von Führungskräften im Zusammenhang mit Spillover-Effekten auf das private verantwortungsbewusste Konsumverhalten ist in zukünftigen Forschungsarbeiten zu adressieren.

5.3 Fazit und praktische Implikationen

Insgesamt stützen die Ergebnisse dieser Arbeit die Annahme, dass Arbeitskontexte verantwortungsbewusstes Kaufverhalten beeinflussen können. In diesem Zusammenhang scheinen sowohl Generalisierungseffekte als auch Kompensationseffekte zu wirken. Die Frage danach, wodurch der Einfluss der Arbeit auf das Konsumverhalten vermittelt wird, bedarf mehr Forschung. Die Ergebnisse der drei Studien, die dieser Arbeit zugrunde liegen, deuten darauf hin, dass die Wahrnehmung der eigenen Einflussmöglichkeiten, die Wahrnehmung anderer Personen, die das entsprechende Verhalten zeigen, sowie kurzfristig wirkende kognitiv-emotionale Zustände hierbei eine vermittelnde Rolle spielen können. Andere persönliche Ressourcen müssen in diesem Zusammenhang noch untersucht werden.

Die Ergebnisse unterstreichen die gesellschaftliche Bedeutung von Arbeitskontexten. Dies betrifft nicht nur Organisationen, in denen Menschen im Rahmen ihrer Erwerbsarbeit tätig sind, sondern auch Vereine, Verbände oder andere Kontexte, in denen Menschen sich freiwillig engagieren. Dass die freiwillige Mitarbeit in Vereinen, Verbänden und ähnlichen Organisationen vielfältige Möglichkeiten bietet, bestimmte Fähigkeiten und Einstellungen zu entwickeln, die zivilgesellschaftliches Engagement in anderen Kontexten befördern, ist bereits vielfach diskutiert worden. Teilweise werden diese Organisationen gar als „Schulen der Demokratie“ bezeichnet (Dekker, 2014; Tocqueville, 1969). Auch wenn dieser Ausdruck für den Handlungsbereich Konsum etwas zu weit geht, so kann doch auf Grundlage dieser Arbeit festgestellt werden, dass verantwortungsbewusstes Handeln in beiden Kontexten stattfindet und nicht ausgeschlossen werden kann, dass das freiwillige Engagement hierfür einen förderlichen Kontext darstellt. Dementsprechend wäre es ein naheliegendes gesellschaftliches und politisches Bestreben, diese Strukturen zu erhalten und zu unterstützen.

Die Ergebnisse dieser Arbeit legen nahe, dass der Erwerbsarbeit eine ähnliche Rolle zukommen kann. Die Gestaltung ihrer Bedingungen beeinflusst nicht nur das Erleben und Verhalten innerhalb der Organisation, sondern scheint auch darüber hinaus wirksam zu werden. Der vielfach beschworene „lange Arm der Arbeit“ (Meissner, 1971) scheint also auch in verantwortungsbewusste Konsumhandlungen zu reichen. Bei der Förderung dieses Verhaltens haben also auch Organisationen die Möglichkeit, durch die Gestaltung der Strukturen und Prozesse, in denen Erwerbsarbeit stattfindet, ihren Beitrag zu leisten.

6 Literatur

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7 Anhang

7.1 Curriculum Vitae

Lebenslauf entfällt aus datenschutzrechtlichen Gründen.

7.2 Erklärungen



FAKULTÄT
FÜR PSYCHOLOGIE UND
BEWEGUNGSWISSENSCHAFT
Institut für Bewegungswissenschaft
Institut für Psychologie

Erklärung gemäß *(bitte Zutreffendes ankreuzen)*

- § 4 (1c) der Promotionsordnung des Instituts für Bewegungswissenschaft der Universität Hamburg vom 18.08.2010
- § 5 (4d) der Promotionsordnung des Instituts für Psychologie der Universität Hamburg vom 20.08.2003

Hiermit erkläre ich,

_____ (Vorname, Nachname),

dass ich mich an einer anderen Universität oder Fakultät noch keiner Doktorprüfung unterzogen oder mich um Zulassung zu einer Doktorprüfung bemüht habe.

Ort, Datum

Unterschrift

Erklärung gemäß *(bitte Zutreffendes ankreuzen)*

- § 4 (1c) der Promotionsordnung des Instituts für Bewegungswissenschaft der Universität Hamburg vom 18.08.2010
- § 5 (4d) der Promotionsordnung des Instituts für Psychologie der Universität Hamburg vom 20.08.2003

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Ort, Datum

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