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Environmentally Responsible Behaviour in the Workplace: An Internal Social Marketing Approach

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Abstract

The role of social marketing in encouraging environmentally responsible consumer behaviour is recognised. However, organisations account for a greater negative environmental impact. This study aims to identify how social marketers and organisations can reduce that impact by harnessing a valuable resource, that of employees' environmentally responsible organisational citizenship behaviours (EROCBs). Findings from focus group interviews with employees of five large UK organisations show that individual personal factors such as environmental concern, values, beliefs, norms and habits formed from domestic behaviour are fundamental to EROCBs. An important role for internal social marketing (ISM) is highlighted in identifying environmentally concerned employees, or 'internal customers,' creating incentives and removing barriers to pro-environmental behaviour. The need to increase employees' self - efficacy with respect to EROCBs is emphasised.

Summary statement of contribution

This paper is the first to explore the potential role of ISM in achieving social change through influencing employees' EROCBs. The nature of these behaviours together with key drivers and constraints are identified. A social cognitive theoretical framework for analysing pro-environmental behaviour within the organisational context is proposed providing the basis for the development and implementation of ISM programmes. Further potential for ISM in other social marketing contexts is indicated for future research.

Key words: Focus groups, environment, employee behaviour, internal social marketing, organisational citizenship behaviour.

Introduction

There is growing awareness of the potential to utilise marketing concepts and techniques for the achievement of social goals. In particular the role of social marketing in achieving environmentally responsible behavioural (ERB) change has been emphasised (McKenzie - Mohr, 2000; Peattie & Peattie, 2009). Organisations, not individuals however, are the main cause of many environmental problems (Nilsson, von Borgstede, & Biel, 2004; Senge, Smith, Kruschwitz, Laur, & Schley, 2008; Stern, 2000). Yet employees represent a 'captive audience' who can be more easily targeted and potentially more susceptible to normative influence than when in a domestic environment (Carrico & Riemer, 2011). Internal marketing (IM) (Berry, Hensel, & Burke, 1976; Wieseke, Ahearne, Lam & van Dick, 2009) involves the adoption of marketing concepts and techniques to influence the attitudes and behaviour of employees or 'internal customers'. This paper examines the potential role of internal social marketing (ISM) in increasing ERB within organisations. ISM involves the application of internal marketing for the achievement of social, rather than commercial objectives and is an approach which has so far been neglected in the marketing literature (Smith, 2011). ISM can potentially achieve ERB change within organisations by securing employee commitment to the organisation's environmental values and objectives and providing a working environment where employees voluntarily engage in environmentally responsible organisational citizenship behaviours (OCBs) i.e. behaviour that is beneficial for an organisation but falls outside formal role requirements (Organ, Podsakoff, & MacKenzie, 2006; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine & Bachrach, 2000). Such behaviours are likely to derive from the environmental concerns of employees and be related to domestic behaviour.

The aims of this research are first, to explore the nature and determinants of OCBs relating to environmentally responsible workplace behaviour (ERWB) and second, to assess the potential role of ISM in encouraging such behaviour. Findings from focus group interviews with employees of five large U.K. organisations are analysed within a social cognitive theoretical framework (Bandura, 1986) describing the relationships between environmentally responsible domestic behaviours, OCBs, individual and organisational factors.

The paper is structured as follows. The literature review, first, outlines the nature of ERWB and OCBs suggesting a four factor classification for the former (see figure 1). Second, individual (personal), individual (employee) and organisational behavioural determinants are discussed and summarised in figure 2. Third, the potential role of ISM in influencing ERWB is explored. The research methodology is then outlined followed by a discussion of the findings. Next, conclusions, together with both theoretical and managerial implications, are presented. Finally, study limitations and suggestions for further research are highlighted.

Environmentally responsible workplace behaviours

Organisations are responding to the need to reduce their environmental impact by implementing policies and targets, employing specialist staff, investing in new technologies and working methods and encouraging employees to change their behaviour through the provision of facilities and training. Environmentally responsible workplace behaviours (ERWBs) may therefore result from organisational policy and formal job roles. A further source is from employees voluntarily engaging in organisational citizenship behaviours (OCBs) i.e. behaviour that is beneficial for an

organisation but falls outside formal role requirements (Podsakoff et al., 2000). However, while there is a substantial amount of research focussing on the behaviour of individuals and households, there is little evidence as to how household and workplace behaviour are related or how organisations can harness employees' environmental concerns as a resource to achieve environmental objectives. Additionally, the determinants of individual behaviour within organisations are likely to be different from those of household behaviours (Stern, 2000).

OCBs have been examined within the marketing literature, primarily with respect to service quality delivery (Bettencourt & Brown, 2003; Netemeyer & Maxham, 2007; Yi & Gong, 2008). Direct links have been established between OCBs and the achievement of organisational objectives such as customer satisfaction, retention and profitability. Within the above context OCBs typically relate to 'helping behaviours' where employees voluntarily help others with, or prevent the occurrence of, work related problems. However, as organisations pursue their environmental goals and responsibilities they need to encourage environmental entrepreneurship (Keogh & Polonsky, 1998) and worker participation (Rothenberg, 2003). Consequently, 'individual initiative' a form of OCB which involves 'voluntary acts of creativity and innovation,' 'volunteering to take on extra responsibilities' and 'encouraging others in the organisation to do the same,' seems particularly relevant to a discussion of ERWB. A summary of the seven types of OCB identified by Podsakoff et al., (2000) is shown in appendix 1.

Stern (2000) classifies environmentally significant behaviours as: 'environmental activism'; 'non-activist behaviours in the public sphere', for example acceptance and

support of pro-environmental public policies; 'private - sphere environmentalism' i.e. the purchase, use and disposal of personal and household products that have environmental impact and 'other environmentally significant behaviours' which include individuals influencing the actions of organisations to which they belong. Kilbourne & Picket (2008) distinguish between direct and indirect behaviours. The former includes purchase decisions and waste reduction and the latter includes petition signing and joining environmental organisations. Figure 1 adapts this approach to the workplace and classifies employee initiated ERWBs as direct, involving the individual's own behaviour and indirect, in influencing the behaviours of others.

An individual's environmental concern has been described as a major determinant of behaviour (Dunlap & Jones, 2002) including workplace behaviour (Keogh & Polonsky, 1998). Environmental concern has been defined as:

'the degree to which people are aware of environmental problems and support efforts to solve them and/or indicate a willingness to contribute personally to their solution' (Dunlap & Jones, 2002, p. 485).

Consequently, a relationship between domestic and workplace behaviour can be expected. By extending, or adapting, their domestic behaviour to the workplace, for example switching off lights and computers, individuals will reduce environmental impact at the local level. Indirect behaviours which aim to influence others, for example to engage in recycling schemes, may also have a local impact on the team or

Figure 1: Employee Initiated Change: A Classification of Environmentally Responsible Workplace Behaviour

DIRECTION

4 F	Direct	Indirect
Local IMPACT	Adapting/ Extending Domestic Behaviour	Influencing Colleagues: Behavioural Change Within Teams
Wide	Creating New Behaviours	Influencing Management: Behavioural Change Across the Organisation

work group but, depending on the level of influence of the individual, may have a wider impact across the organisation or supply chain. Finally, individuals may create new working practices by initiating new ideas or projects within the organisational context.

Antecedents of OCB can be classified as individual (personal or employee) or organisational. The latter includes task and organisational characteristics and leadership behaviours (Podsakoff et al., 2000). A similar distinction is made by social cognitive theory (SCT) (Bandura, 1986), one of the most commonly used theories in social marketing (Lefebvre, 2000) and described as the best theory for understanding

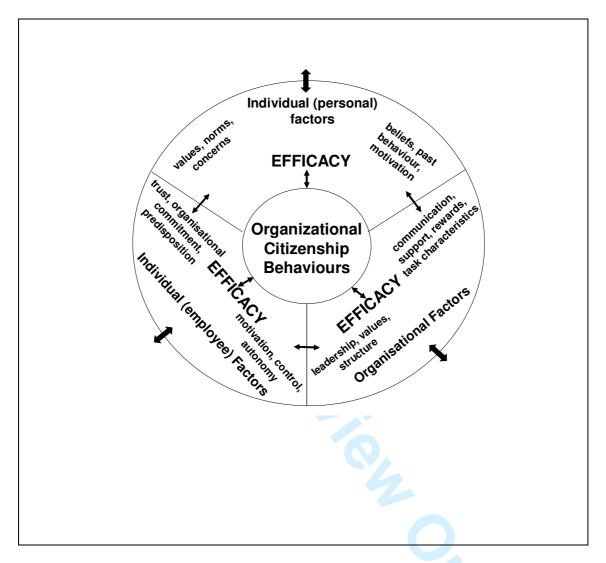
organisational behaviour (Arnold et al., 2005). Consequently, SCT offers a promising framework for embedding social marketing within an organisational context thus providing the conceptual base for an ISM approach. Bandura (1986) describes SCT as based on a model of 'triadic reciprocal determinism' where 'behaviour, cognitive and other personal factors, and environmental influences all operate interactively as determinants of each other' (p. 23). For this study, environmental factors are largely confined to those factors relating to the organisational context which determine the nature of EROCBs. Some of the main elements are shown in figure 2 which recognises that the organisation and its employees comprise an open system. The permeable boundary highlights how wider environmental factors, including legislation, biospheric change and societal norms and values (the dominant social paradigm (Kilbourne and Beckmann, 1998)) will impact on the organisational context.

Individual (personal) factors as determinants of environmentally responsible behaviours

In addition to personal factors such as age and gender, a number of individual cognitive factors have been identified as determinants of ERB in the home (see Bamberg & Moser (2007) for a meta analysis). Additionally, antecedents of individual ERBs are likely to vary (De Young, 2000). Pro-environmental personal norms have been described as the main basis for the individual's general predisposition to pro-environmental action (Stern, 2000) and an important predictor of behavioural intention (Bamberg & Moser, 2007). Thogersen (2006) distinguishes between two types of personal, or internalised, norms 'integrated' (based on conscious

Figure 2: Determinants of Environmentally Responsible Organisational

Citizenship Behaviours (EROCBs)



reflection on and evaluation of behaviour outcome) and 'introjected' (those which are only superficially internalised and which are enforced by anticipated guilt or pride). He also argues that different norms are activated for different ERBs, for example, purchasing energy saving light bulbs; recycling behaviour and transport choice. The role of personal norms is emphasised in the value-belief -norm (VBN) theory of

environmentally significant individual behaviour (Stern, 2000). Here, personal values determine beliefs which in turn determine personal norms and behaviour.

Beliefs play a major role in understanding environmental concern. Dunlap, Van Liere, Mertig & Jones (2000) originally identified three beliefs fundamental to 'the new ecological paradigm' i.e. 'balance of nature', 'limits to growth' and 'antianthropocentrism'. They later added 'human exemptionalism' and 'eco-crisis.' (Dunlap & Jones, 2002). The VBN model, however, argues that pro - environmental beliefs alone will not necessarily lead to pro- environmental behaviours. Other beliefs, i.e. the belief that environmental issues create adverse consequences for valued objects (where values relate to the biosphere, altruism and egoism) and the perceived ability to reduce threat are fundamental to behaviour change (de Groot & Steg, 2010; Stern, 2000). Similarly, with respect to the latter, SCT emphasises the role of self efficacy as a pivotal concept in determining behaviour (i.e. 'beliefs in one's capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to produce given attainments,' Bandura (1997, p.3)). Social marketing, together with environmental psychology, studies often invokes the theory of planned behaviour (TPB) (Ajzen, 1985) as a framework for understanding pro-social behaviours. Here beliefs that certain outcomes derive from particular behaviours will influence attitudes towards the behaviour, behavioural intentions and thus the behaviour itself. It has also been suggested that attitudinal (affective) emotions, as opposed to attitudinal (cognitive) beliefs, may dominate ERBs (Costarelli & Colloca, 2004).

Other authors emphasise the role of motivation in determining ERBs. McKenzie-Mohr (2000) argues that there is strong support for the fact that ERB increases with

the internalisation and integration of motivation to act in an environmentally responsible way. Attitude models such as the TPB are based on a value expectancy framework where motivation has its roots in the various beliefs, attitudes and norms included in the model (Thogersen, 1994). Perugini and Bagozzi (2001) suggest that their motivation – goal – behaviour (MGB) model is more appropriate than the TPB when actions are means to end state goals. Lindenberg and Steg (2007) describe three 'inclusive' goals i.e. goals which govern whole areas of sub-goals, knowledge and attitudes, that seem highly relevant for environmental behaviour. These are the 'hedonic goal (to feel better right now); the gain goal (to guard and improve one's resources) and the normative goal (to act appropriately).

SCT (Bandura, 1986) describes a reciprocal relationship between personal characteristics and behaviour. Habits and past behaviour influence the belief component of attitude models for high frequency behaviours such as recycling and are important predictors of future behaviour (Knussen, Yule, MacKenzie & Wells, 2004; Thogersen, 1994). Perugini and Bagozzi (2001) highlight, however, that the relationship between frequency of past behaviour and future behaviour is often observed within a specific and stable context. Additionally, while the individual's environmental values, norms and beliefs are likely to impact on their workplace behaviour, there will be a range of other determinants within the organisational context as discussed in the next section.

Individual (employee) factors as determinants of environmentally responsible behaviours

There is some evidence that domestic behaviours, such as recycling and materials conservation are transferred to the work context (Lee, De Young & Marans, 1995). Conversely, experience of work – based recycling can influence domestic behaviour (Fusco, 1991). Other studies focus on the employees' willingness to suggest and implement pro-environmental ideas (Hostager, Neil, Decker & Lorentz, 1998). Andersson and Bateman (2000) emphasise the power of individual initiative in creating action on environmental issues and define champions as:

'individuals who, through formal organisational roles *and/or personal activism*, attempt to introduce or create change in a product, process or method within an organisation' (p549). (emphasis added)

Important determinants of such innovation at the individual level are motivation and self - efficacy (Hostager et al., 1998). Motivation is determined by a range of intrinsic and extrinsic incentives and disincentives (De Young, 2000; Hostager et al., 1998). Research supports the view that self - efficacy beliefs mediate the effect of skills or other self-beliefs on subsequent performance (Pajares, 1997). Bandura (1997) states that employees who are assured in their efficacy to produce ideas and are proactively oriented will generate and submit ideas to improve work processes. Efficacy beliefs are closely related to perceived control and autonomy (Bell and Menguc, 2002). The level of perceived control can also have important direct effects on role conflict (Hartline, Maxham & McKee 2000). Role conflict (an incongruity within the expectations associated with a role (Singh, 2000)) generally has a negative impact on the propensity to engage in OCBs (Podsakoff et al., 2000). De Ruyter, de Jong &

Wetzels (2009) highlight how organisational actors aim to balance their obligations to multiple stakeholders while upholding moral norms with respect to the environment.

Podsakoff et al., (2000) describe two major underlying antecedents of OCB as dispositional factors, such as positive and negative affectivity, which predispose people to certain orientations and a general affective "morale" factor including organisational commitment and trust in the leader. The role of the leader and other organisational factors which impact on the individual's propensity to engage in proenvironmental OCBs are discussed in the next section.

Organisational factors as determinants of environmentally responsible behaviours

Leadership behaviour plays a major role as a determinant of both OCBs (Schneider, Ehrhart, Mayer & Saltz, 2005; Wieseke et.al., 2009) and employees' willingness to adopt and create ERWB (Egri & Herman, 2000; Keogh & Polonsky, 1998). Egri and Herman (2000) found that environmental leaders (those with the ability to influence individuals and mobilize organisations to realize a vision of long-term ecological sustainability) engaged in high levels of both transformational practices (such as collaboration, empowerment, two-way communication, change orientation, charisma, creating trust, and individualized consideration) and transactional practices (instrumental, contingent reward, and one-way communication). Supportive leader behaviour was found to be positively related to every form of OCB identified by Podsakoff et al., (2000) including 'individual initiative. Leadership behaviour is the key mechanism by which culture is embedded in organisations (Schein, 1992). Organisations' environmental values, typically

articulated in vision and/or mission statements, shape responses to natural environmental issues by influencing which issues are identified, which appear on the organisational agenda, and which are associated with organisational responses (Bansal, 2003). Further, Bansal argues, organisational responses to natural environmental issues are determined by an alignment of organisational values and individual concerns.

Organisational characteristics influencing OCBs include organisational formalisation and flexibility, spatial distance from leader, advisory/staff support, cohesive group and the nature of rewards (Podsakoff et al., 2000). Similar factors, often described as 'organisational support', are frequently described in studies focussing on ERB and innovation. These include supervisory support behaviours and management of goals and responsibilities which have an impact on employee willingness to promote ecoinitiatives. In particular, managerial behaviours that lead to feelings of self – efficacy contribute to higher levels of employee creativity (Ramus & Steger, 2000). Management support, resources, organisational structure, and other contextual factors are also highlighted as influential in promoting environmental intrapreneurship (Hostager et al., 1998). Effective communication, including feedback, and the quality of information play a number of important roles including reducing uncertainty about innovation (Lievens & Moenaert, 2000); building trust relationships (Rothenberg, 2003) and encouraging employee involvement in eco – initiatives (Bansal, 2003; Russo & Harrison, 2005). Rewards and incentives are key factors. Hostager et al., (1998) suggest that individuals should be able to select their own incentives from a smorgasbord of intrinsic and extrinsic motivators, for example through providing a stake in the ownership, development and outcomes of their new idea. One challenge

which has been highlighted, however, is that of how to encourage OCBs that are outside formal roles such that it is difficult to formally specify or reward them (Morrison, 1996; Yi & Gong, 2008).

Finally, task characteristics have been identified as important determinants of OCBs. Task feedback and intrinsically satisfying tasks are positively related while task routinisation is negatively related (Podsakoff et al., 2000). Task structure is an important determinant of the commitment and entrepreneurialism which fosters environmental concern within organisations (Keogh & Polonsky, 1998). A match between an organisation's design and its work tasks can boost environmental performance (Russo & Harrison, 2005). The nature of employees' tasks together with the organisational characteristics and leadership behaviours discussed earlier will determine the potential for changes in processes, procedures and routines and hence employee behaviour. The next section describes how an ISM approach can potentially create an organisational environment for the creation and adoption of environmentally responsible OCBs.

Integrating social and internal marketing to encourage environmentally responsible organisational citizenship behaviour

Social marketing adopts the concepts and techniques of commercial marketing to influence target audiences to adopt or sustain behaviour, for example pro-environmental behaviour, in pursuit of social goals. However, to date, social marketing studies have generally paid little attention to the organisational context of human behaviour and none have addressed the potential role of ISM in achieving social marketing objectives. The concept of IM originally developed in the services

marketing literature as an approach to achieving attitudinal and behavioural change within organisations. A causal 'chain' was established between the services, such as rewards and training, provided to employees, their behaviour and the achievement of organisational objectives such as customer loyalty and profitability (Heskett, Sasser & Schlesinger (1997). IM has been described as a philosophy for managing the organisation's human resources based on a marketing perspective (George, 1990) and has become accepted terminology in all types of organisations (Gummesson, 2002). Although a major focus of IM studies remains on achieving external customer service satisfaction a number of authors have emphasised wider, and complementary, roles. These include the creation and communication of corporate values (Hogg & Carter, 2000); learning and competence building (Chaston, 2000); a role in strategy implementation and diffusion of innovations (Varey & Lewis, 1999), the implementation of any functional strategy (Rafiq & Ahmed, 1993) and a marketing perspective to build internal competencies for external success (Ahmed, Rafiq & Saad, 2003). Varey and Lewis (2000) describe IM as 'a management framework, and not merely a marketing practice' (p. 293).

Within the context of an ISM approach to encouraging ERWB two inter-related roles can be proposed. First, ISM can aim to encourage employees to adopt and implement the organisation's formal environmental policy and objectives. Second, and the main emphasis of this discussion, is that of encouraging employees' voluntary participation in environmentally responsible OCBs. The organisational factors described in the previous section as essential to OCB also form the basis for IM programmes. The role of leadership and the need for senior management support is constantly emphasised as crucial to the success of an IM approach. (Ahmed et al., 2003; George, 1990).

Wieseke et. al., (2009) highlight the indispensible role of leaders in instilling into employees company culture, values, and vision and continuously communicating by deeds. Further, they add that it is the role of leaders, especially middle managers, in building organisational identification (a sense of belonging to an organisation) that lays the foundation for IM. Authors have also emphasized the role of trust in internal relationship building (Bowen & Lawler, 1992); as an important antecedent of employee co-operation and commitment (Chenet, Tynan & Money, 1999) and as a determinant of the propensity to engage in OCBs (Morrison, 1996).

Organisational vision and values play a central role in IM theory (Ahmed & Rafiq 2002; Gummesson 1987; Varey & Lewis, 1999) and practice (Foreman & Money, 1995). Organisational identification is based on positive feelings and a shared vision and values reflecting organisational culture. The previous section highlighted the need for an alignment of the organisation's environmental policy and employees' environmental concerns to encourage worker participation in environmental initiatives. Additionally, organisational identification has been identified as a key factor in encouraging behaviours that fall outside formal role requirements and therefore OCBs (Bell & Menguc, 2002; Wieseke, et al., 2009).

IM programmes highlight the need for effective job design, performance feedback, training and rewards. Task characteristics that increase employee perceived control through enhanced job autonomy increase job satisfaction and positive employee behaviour (Bowen & Lawler, 1992; Hartline et al., 2000; Morrison, 1996; Wieseke et al., 2009). Finally, the roles of communication, information gathering and responding to employee feedback have been highlighted as key elements of an IM approach

(Lings & Greenley, 2005). Communication is essential in clarifying organisational values, goals and policies (Mukherjee & Malhotra, 2006). Two – way communication, between managers and employees, builds trust and is a key determinant of OI and the propensity to engage in OCBs (Wieseke et al., 2009). ISM programmes therefore which aim to encourage EROCBs amongst employees must be developed from a clear understanding of the individual's values, beliefs, norms and motivations for engaging in such behaviour as well as the organisational factors which can provide barriers or drivers to change. The following study aimed to achieve that understanding through discussions with groups of employees from private and public sector organisations in the U.K.

Methodology

The research had two main aims. The first was to explore the prevalence and nature of OCBs related to ERWB. The second aim was to examine the individual and organisational factors that influence employees' involvement in such behaviour. In view of the lack of prior research focussing on these issues, an exploratory, qualitative design was selected as the most appropriate methodology. Exploratory research aims to identify and clarify the nature of problems involving new insights and greater understanding of the issues involved (McGivern, 2009) while creating a general mental picture of the unfamiliar (Neuman, 2006). Steyaert and Bouwen (2004) argue that group contexts, for example focus groups created by the researcher, are the most natural method for exploration and gathering knowledge especially in an organisational context. Focus groups also avoid the reductionism of more structured techniques allowing normally unarticulated normative assumptions to be expressed

(Bloor, Frankland, Thomas & Robson, 2001). They create a forum where participants can provide both previously shared and unshared information (Fern, 2001).

Fourteen groups of employees from five organisations were involved in discussions. A purposive non-probability sampling approach was adopted at both the organisational and group participant level. Since Nilsson et al. (2004) observe sectoral differences in values and norms related to ERB organisations were selected so as to include both private (one service and one manufacturing); public (one local authority and one education) and 'third sector' (one charity), thus representing major sectors of the UK economy. A further sampling criterion was the requirement for a minimum level of organisational carbon emissions of 3000 tonnes per year (assessed by an independent carbon measurement consultant). This complied with the Carbon Reduction Commitment scheme on which the UK's DEFRA was consulting at the time of the research (see Carbon Trust, 2011). Key senior management contacts in a number of large UK organisations were identified, either through previous/existing relationships (unrelated to the current research) with the research team or other colleagues. A total of eighteen organisations were sequentially approached until one participant from each sector was recruited.

Voluntary participation was considered the optimum approach to achieving the research aims in that participants would be more likely to have been involved in EROCBs and/or aware of others who had. Key contacts in the five organisations were asked to recruit participants by circulating a general invitation to discuss environmental issues. However, there was no attempt to preclude the self selection of

those who might have negative opinions (see Appendix 2 for details of the group composition for each organisation).

Group discussions were between 75 and 100 minutes in duration involving between six and ten participants. They were conducted within the work environment and audio recorded. The majority of groups involved both male and female participants (one involved only female and one other only male participants) but varied according to age and status characteristics, reflecting the nature of the organisations. Groups were first asked about their domestic behaviour and personal factors, for example their environmental values and beliefs. They were then asked to describe ERBs initiated by themselves (or others) as employees and the nature of the organisational context, for example their perceptions of the organisation's commitment to environmental issues (see appendix 3 for the interview schedule). Procedures contributing to the reliability and validity of the method and findings (Fern, 2001), were adhered to, for example, all were conducted by the same experienced moderator; with the same schedule of questions. Summaries of issues discussed were consistently 'fed back' to groups for comment.

Interviews were transcribed then coded and analysed using the software package NVivo. An iterative process followed involving further analysis and interpretation by two independent judges. Computer aided qualitative data analysis (CAQDAS) organises and analyses unstructured data. It provides an overview of emerging themes while maintaining close contact with the detail of individual groups. It thus promotes the exploratory function of the research (Bazeley, 2007). The efficiency, accuracy and transparency of the data analysis process is enhanced, while the researcher's

interpretive analysis increases the validity of the findings (Mason, 1996). OCBs were identified and categorised according to whether they involved adapting domestic behaviours; creating new behaviours or influencing colleagues or management (see figure 1) and their nature according to Podsakoff et al., 's (2000) schema (see appendix 1). A final classification related to the type of ERB categorised according to the U.K's. Department for Environment, Food and Rural Affairs' (DEFRA) (2006) priority groups for domestic behaviours i.e. transport, energy usage, water usage, purchasing and waste reduction (e.g. recycling) (see table 1 for a summary of behaviours). A process of inductive, thematic analysis then identified the nature of inter-related factors (individual and organisational) involved in OCBs. Thematic analysis involves finding patterns within the data which can describe, organise and even interpret aspects of the phenomena (Boyatzis, 1998). For example, a number of reciprocal relationships were identified as described by social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1986). Consensus between the two judges for the categorisation of OCBs, identification of individual and organisational factors and of consistent themes indicated a high level of inter rater reliability (Boyatzis, 1998; Rust & Cooil, 1994). These are discussed in the next section.

Findings and discussion

Twenty six examples of employee generated EROCBs were extracted from the transcriptions. Behaviours which directly resulted from the organisation's environmental policy and initiatives (categorised as 'organisational compliance' (Podsakoff et al., 2000)), for example complying with recycling directives, are excluded from the analysis. The following discussion focuses on the often neglected resource of employee-originated initiatives illustrated as the four types of behaviour in

table 1. The personal and organisational factors determining employees' propensity to engage in EROCBs are discussed and illustrated in figure 3.

Adapting/extending domestic behaviour

Seven EROCBs were categorised as adapting behaviours i.e. those that participants voluntarily transferred from the home to the work context. All resulted from 'individual initiative' (Podsakoff et. al, 2000). Participants described their domestic and work selves as a continuum in terms of environmental attitudes and behaviour, reflected in the nature of activities reported (saving power, recycling and re-using material). Seamless transfer between work and home behaviour is illustrated by stories of taking recyclables home because of the lack of workplace facilities, or reusing packaging for food prepared at home to eat at work. Indeed, recycling, the most pervasive of the activities reported, epitomised this kind of integrated, ingrained behaviour, as implied in the following exchange:

'It becomes second habit, doesn't it?'

"... because you do it automatically". (PS1)

The expected relationship between home and work behaviours (Lee, et al., 1995) and the role of habit in pro – environmental behaviour (Knussen et al., 2004) was observed consistently across all groups. Many expressed their commitment to the environment as part of a holistic lifestyle essential to their self concept:

'I just don't see the need for all this stuff, and that's where I see it, so just the simple life. Return to simple' (PR1)

Table 1: Employee – Generated Environmentally Responsible OCBs²

Adapting/Extending Domestic Behaviour (7)

Type of OCB

individual initiative (7)

Type of ERB

Energy usage (4); waste reduction (3)

Description

Taking waste home to recycle
Re-using food packaging
Customising light fittings
Turning down heating in own office
Turning off lights on behalf of others
Turning off electrical appliances on
behalf of others
Correctly re-allocating recycling
materials on behalf of others

Influencing Colleagues (7) Type of OCB

sportsmanship (3); civic virtue (2); helping behaviour (1); individual initiative (1)

Type of ERB

Energy usage (3); waste reduction (3); transport (1)

Description

Cancelling unsolicited 'junk mail' from within the organisation
Challenging colleagues on energy use
Campaigning to enforce printer sharing
Reducing frequency of printed reports
Encouraging colleagues to recycle
Turning off colleagues computers at night
Including environmental issues when
mentoring trainees

Creating New Behaviours (8)

Type of OCB

Individual initiative (7); helping behaviour (1)

Type of ERB

Energy usage (2); waste reduction (4); transport (2)

Description

Developing a car sharing scheme
Sharing mobile phone chargers
Using excess printing as scrap paper
Voluntarily changing a system to reduce
journeys made by empty lorries
Sharing bins to save bin liners
Unofficial recycling scheme
Organising work around domiciling
Toner recycling scheme involving users

Influencing Management (4)

Type of OCB

Civic virtue (3); individual initiative (1).

Type of ERB

Energy usage (2); waste reduction (1); transport (1)

Description

Lobbying for unit-level recycling facilities
Lobbying for home working
Resisting non essential meetings
Negotiating official sanction for a switch-off
initiative

¹ - DEFRA (2006) - transport, energy usage, water usage, purchasing and waste reduction

² – see appendix 1 for Podsakoff et al., 's (2000) classification of OCBs

Environmental concern, (Dunlap and Jones, 2002) was a key theme manifest in all discussions. Concern was grounded in personal norms, values, beliefs providing a general predisposition towards ERB:

'I'm going to do this because I think it's the right thing to do' (PS1)

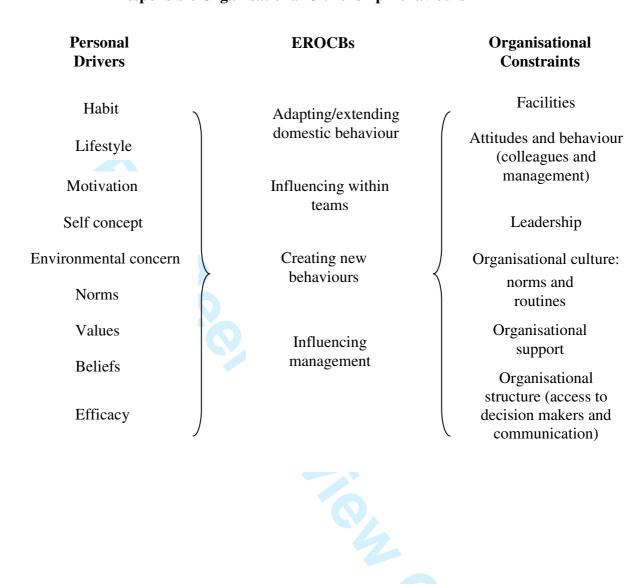
'Obviously there is an issue so why not take that into account in the way that you live and try and live responsibly'?(PS3)

In particular, groups highlighted the need to consider the legacy left to future generations and the finite nature of the earth's resources. Participants gave less credence to the contradictory 'scientific' accounts of global warming available in contemporary news media (exasperation with this was a consistent theme across groups). By contrast, discussions consistently highlighted the level of perceived self and group efficacy required for behavioural change (Bandura, 1997):

"I personally feel that if we, if everybody does their little bit and there's billions of us on this planet, we will surely do something to try and stop it getting worse' (PR2).

Many also engaged in domestic behaviours aimed at persuading family and friends to reduce energy consumption or recycle waste. This too was extended into the organisational context as discussed below.

Figure 3: Personal Drivers and Organisational Constraints to Environmentally Responsible Organisational Citizenship Behaviours



Influencing within teams

A further seven EROCBs aimed to influence the behaviour of colleagues. Some attempts to influence resulted in ridicule and other unpleasant responses and are categorised as 'sportsmanship' (Podsakoff et al., 2000). Others represented 'civic virtue,' by sharing ideas, combating groupthink and challenging established norms

and routines, for example, by reducing the frequency of reports and the number of printers available. It was often emphasised that such changes could go unnoticed whereas consultation could create resistance. Motivational factors typically included participants' environmental concerns and a desire for less waste. A reciprocal reinforcing relationship between work and domestic behaviour as a result of influencing others was also suggested:

'I think the more you encourage it in the workplace it'll probably rub off on them, so when they get home they start picking up those sorts of practices' (PR2)

A sense of such activities contributing to the influencer's self – concept was also in evidence:

'well I was renowned for turning peoples' monitors off at night and leaving little messages saying the pixies had been' (PS1).

However, many were frustrated by the attitudes and behaviour of colleagues who resisted change and emphasised the lack of financial incentive which often influence domestic behaviour. Participants blamed senior managers who ought to lead on this important issue for a number of reasons including the need for resource allocation and the enforcement of sanctions for non-compliance:

'The small people...are actually pulling their weight. It's the bigger fish that really need to lead the way' (PR1)

'That needs a directive from higher up to say, if you're not going to be at your desk you've got to turn this and that off' (PR2)

Although task structures could often accommodate change participants often felt that they were battling against an organisational culture where waste and misuse of resources were acceptable behaviours. Norms and routines, for example with respect to travelling long distances to meetings, were rarely questioned, or alternatives, such as video conferencing, considered.

'We have a culture of attending meetings...of printing out lots and lots of paper' (PS1).

Creating new behaviours

Creating new behaviours involved, with one exception, 'individual initiative.' (Podsakoff et al., 2000). Whereas 'adapting' involves work initiatives extended from a domestic context, 'creating' involves new workplace initiatives with no direct domestic equivalent. For example, members of a College IT team initiated a toner cartridge recycling scheme which required users to return cartridges in person. A replacement was then issued and installed by the user. In addition to environmental benefits, users always received the correct replacement, the IT team could concentrate on 'more important work' and, ultimately, the scheme led to a rationalisation of equipment purchasing with additional environmental and cost benefits.

Although individual in origin the majority of 'creating' behaviours were developed and implemented through teams. They typically required that others in the organisation should participate in order to be effective. Individuals saw opportunities and were intrinsically motivated. Groups continued to highlight their personal values, beliefs and norms and expressed their emotions as a basis for behaviour:

'It just annoys me because it is so wasteful' (PS1)

'I feel sad that we live in a throw-away society' (PR2)

Participants highlighted the lack of autonomy and control in the workplace as opposed to the domestic context. This impacted to some extent on all four types of EROCB illustrated in table 1 but the implementation of 'creating behaviours' often had to be sanctioned by management. A reduction in the level of perceived self - efficacy often resulted as illustrated in the final section.

Influencing Management

Four illustrations of EROCBs involved employees in 'influencing management' by lobbying for change in policy towards 'greener' working practices at the organisational level. Two of these, establishing a 'work from home' scheme and gaining support for a 'switch-off' initiative, had been successful. However two others, involving reducing meeting attendance and increasing recycling facilities, had not gained support. 'Influencing management' behaviours are driven by similar personal factors as other forms of EROCB reflecting the personal norms, beliefs and environmental concern of employees. Participants' accounts, however, emphasised the crucial role of organisational characteristics, and leadership in particular, in

creating a climate where such influence seemed feasible. Many had ideas for environmentally focussed change, for example reducing printing, recycling, saving energy and changing transport modes, but lacked the time or motivation to do so.

Usually because of anticipated barriers. Participants again emphasised the lack of control over the work environment:

'I think also, like at home you have control of that environment, so if you have a problem with something you can take the correct action. However in a work environment, like you say, this admin person, they might have a problem printing 1000 pages but they might not have any power to change. They could say to their manager, this is stupid, why are we doing that? And they'll just get told, we need it, do it' (PR2).

Employees typically saw senior management as unreceptive to their ideas and concerned with short-term financial or operational priorities rather than the environment:

'It's a 19th century mill owner culture...we'd even have companies come to say if you put in different efficiency engine systems.... But then the budget holder says, what's the return on investment.. and you say five or six years. They say, not a chance'. (PR2)

Any official support for environmentally-responsible working practices tended to be seen as opportunistic, image-related and slow rather than central to the organisation's mission. This often conflicted with employees' environmental concern:

'They might be planning five years in advance whereas we want to do something quickly' (PS2)

Many were unaware of their organisation's environmental policy, values or objectives. Even where information concerning environmental policy and targets was effectively disseminated, for example through the organisational intranet and dedicated news letters; there was often scepticism as to the motives involved. Many felt this was 'lip service' rather than a genuine concern and willingness to commit resources.

Access to decision makers and anticipated management responses to employee ideas, however, varied between the groups, according to the level of seniority of participants and the organisational structure. One participant described a Catch 22-like situation whereby her employer had a well-established environmental policy at corporate level (playing a leading role in a local consortium) but a policy vacuum at the departmental level which impacted on her. Her attempts to prevent large amounts of unsolicited promotional material had been unsuccessful and there were no channels in place whereby she could garner management support for her efforts. In the absence of either recycling facilities or access to decision makers, the individual concerned is subject to a weekly reminder of organisational indifference. However, where local managers had the autonomy to express their own environmental concern at the local level there was a degree of management support for employees:

'Do you know what I think it comes down to? The actual person that's running the centre.... I think he personally was pushing towards energy saving. And I don't think that was being pushed on by the chief exec or anything' (PS3)

Finally, many participants highlighted a sense of role conflict between that of an environmentally responsible citizen and that of an organisational employee.

Consequently, there was little organisational identification in the key area of environmental policy, potentially jeopardizing their continued willingness to engage in EROCBs. In addition, previous organisational responses had served to reduce efficacy with respect to ERB initiatives. Some individuals and teams now lacked the motivation or predisposition to become actively involved:

'Even X he's mad about the environment but he's nearly given up' (PR1)

Conclusions and implications

Organisations and social marketers are failing to harness a valuable resource in the pursuit of their environmental objectives. Discussions highlighted a high level of environmental concern amongst employees of five large UK organisations. Motivated by intrinsic factors, derived from their personal values, beliefs and integrated norms, individuals are transferring their environmentally responsible domestic behaviours to the workplace. Typically participants failed to distinguish between the two contexts and highlighted the role of habit and previous behaviour as behavioural determinants. Consequently, the vast majority of behaviours focussed on those identified as most prevalent in the domestic context involving recycling and reducing energy consumption (DEFRA, 2006). Employees generally had the flexibility and autonomy

to adapt their domestic behaviour to the workplace although lack of facilities could be an issue. Many tried to influence others at the local level to adopt ERB despite the potential for resistance and ridicule. There were also instances where individuals or teams had created new ways of working which potentially had a far wider impact on the organisation and had lobbied management to introduce and support change.

In view of the considerable stakeholder pressures to reduce environmental impact, including those from external customers, such employees provide a valuable resource to organisations. However, the main themes reflected many factors identified as detrimental to OCB (Organ et al., 2006; Podsakoff et al., 2000). These included a general lack of organisational support including lack of environmental leadership or access to decision makers; organisational cultures and norms where waste is considered to be acceptable; lack of priority of environmental issues and failure to communicate the organisation's policy and objectives. Employees perceive that they are doing what they can but this is not reflected by either organisational policy or leadership from senior management. In particular, they highlight the need for cultural change as a top down priority to influence the behaviour of colleagues and the allocation of resources. Where there was awareness of environmental policy there was also distrust of both the underlying motives and the likelihood of management action. As organisational actors, therefore, aiming to balance their obligations to multiple stakeholders (de Ruyter et al., 2009), participants often experienced tension or conflict between their role as an employee and that of a citizen in a wider society.

Employees often lacked the autonomy and control over their tasks and working environment which would be necessary to make more creative changes.

Consequently, as predicted by both social cognitive and OCB theory, factors in the organisational environment resulted in role conflict, lower levels of efficacy and reduced predisposition and motivation for future involvement in eco – initiatives.

Bandura (1986) highlights how self-efficacy beliefs may not perform their influential, predictive or mediational role in prejudicially structured systems which include lack of incentives, inadequate resources and social constraints. However, he also highlights how role conflict can have a positive effect as people search for, and find, successful ways to cope. There were examples where individuals or teams had engaged in OCB, creating and implementing new working practices and thus achieving behavioural change at both the local and occasionally wider organisational level.

The findings suggest an important role for IM, and thus ISM, in achieving ERB change. IM has the potential to (a) create organisational identification (Wieseke et al., 2009) based on a closer alignment between individuals' environmental concerns and the organisation's values, for example through improved communication and information sharing and (b) enhance employee self efficacy with respect to pro—environmental OCBs, for example, through increasing employee perceived control through job autonomy, supported by training and performance feedback. Effective internal customer segmentation, based on individual personal factors such as environmental concern, beliefs and motivation will identify those with a high level of willingness and ability to act with respect to both direct and indirect OCBs. For example, the effectiveness of peer education schemes in reducing energy consumption in organisations has also been highlighted (Carrico & Riemer, 2011). Barriers can then be removed and incentives/drivers created based on an in—depth understanding of the individual and organisational factors determining internal customer behaviour.

In particular, Keogh & Polonsky (1998) describe how the creation of eco-initiatives requires support from all levels of management who encourage employees to feel empowered by the opportunities they see (as opposed to constrained by the restrictions they see).

Theoretical implications

The vast majority of social marketing studies and theoretical development focus on the individual consumer or household. This study has provided a social cognitive theoretical framework for analysing ERB within the organisational context.

Reciprocal relationships between behaviour, individual and organisational factors have been identified and the role of efficacy has been highlighted. The nature and determinants of OCBs have previously been examined in marketing literature as a means to achieving the organisation's service quality objectives. This study provides an alternative perspective by adapting the OCB framework to the context of the organisation's environmental policy and objectives. By classifying behaviours in this way, social marketing theory can draw on the extensive body of knowledge which examines OCB in other contexts including the antecedents of the various behavioural types. Similarly, the role of ISM in achieving pro - social behavioural change has not previously been examined. The focus group discussions have identified a substantial role for the concepts and techniques of internal marketing within this context.

Managerial Implications

Organisations are under increasing pressure to reduce their environmental impact.

People want to work for organisations which implement a sustainability and corporate social responsibility agenda (Bhattacharya, Sen & Korschum, 2008; Senge et al.,

2008). Yet many are failing to harness the considerable resource available to them in their employees' willingness and ability to become involved in environmental initiatives. Additionally, organisations are failing to communicate their environmental values and policies to employees. By adopting an ISM approach (as described above) and focusing on important determinants such as positive leadership behaviours and organisational support, managers can gain a number of benefits. These can include not only the achievement of environmental targets but also improved reputation, employee motivation and cost reduction.

Limitations and further research

Limitations of the study primarily relate to the nature of qualitative research and the focus group method in particular. While generating deeper insight into phenomena, the findings are restricted to small numbers of employees within five large organisations. Consequently, the nature and prevalence of OCBs and determinants cannot be generalised across populations. Additionally, the research aimed, through the voluntary nature of the recruitment process, to elicit the experiences and opinions of those employees who were more positively pre-disposed towards pro – environmental behaviours and therefore the potential targets of ISM programmes. Future research would aim to assess the barriers to EROCBs as perceived by a more diverse sample of employees.

The validity of the focus group approach has also been questioned, for example, the potential for subjective interpretation of findings. However, close adherence to published guidelines, for example for reliability (Rust and Cooil 1994) and validity

assessment (Fern, 2001) encouraged rigour throughout the research process, increasing the credibility of the findings.

One assumption, which has not previously been addressed, is that of whether the behaviours highlighted can truly be considered as OCBs. That is that they are 'beneficial for the organisation'. It could be suggested that since managers generally did not seem to be encouraging or supporting such behaviours that there is a misalignment between employee and management actions and goals. A dyadic approach to examine the apparent gaps between employee and management perceptions and expectations is therefore required. The service quality literature again provides useful models and frameworks to examine such gaps (Chenet et al., 1999; Zeithaml, Berry & Parasuraman, 1988). Further research is also needed to assess the impact of high profile, widely publicised organisational environmental policies on both OCBs and the relationship between internal and external customers. Finally, organisational life influences many of the choices which individual consumers make, for example, with respect to health (such as exercise, eating patterns, work/life balance). The role of ISM in achieving other social marketing objectives should be examined.

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Appendix 1: Types of Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB) (Podsakoff et al., 2000)

Helping behaviour	Helping with or preventing the occurrence of problems.
	Helping includes altruism, peacemaking and
	cheerleading. Prevention includes courtesy.
Sportsmanship	Are not offended when others do not follow their
	suggestions, and do not take the rejection of their ideas
	personally.
Organisational loyalty	Endorsing, supporting, and defending organisational
	objectives.
Organisational	Internalisation and acceptance of organisation's rules
compliance	and procedures.
Individual initiative	Voluntary acts of creativity and innovation, volunteering
	to take on extra responsibilities and 'encouraging others
	in the organisation to do the same.
Civic virtue	A commitment to 'organisational citizenship,' for
	example sharing ideas, combating groupthink,
	identifying problems
Self-development	Improving own knowledge and skills to be a better
_	member of the organisation

Appendix 2: Org	anisation descriptions and focus group composition
Organisation	Participants and roles
PR1 – private sector	Group 1 (n=7)
service organisation	Senior administrator; Administrator; Emergency service team leader; 3 x
	Emergency service operatives; Maintenance engineer
An internal	Group 2 (n=6)
(emergency) services	5 x Emergency service operatives; Emergency service team leader
department of a	
major transport	Group 3 (n=6)
facility	4 x Emergency service operatives; Administrator: Receptionist
DDQ :	
PR2 – private sector	Group 1 (n=6)
manufacturing	Purchasing Manager; Data Maintenance Officer: 2 x Network Support
organisation	Officers; IT Director; Service Manager
	Group 2 (n=6)
A commercial	IT Helpdesk Supervisor; Communications Technician; Project
manufacturer and	Accountant; Credit Control Supervisor; Stores Supervisor; Purchasing
installer of home and	Scheduler
garden improvements	
PS1 – public sector	Group 1 (n=6)
local authority	2 x Planning Officers; Road Safety Officer; Community Partnership
D 111 0	Officer; Housing Policy Officer; Maintenance Engineer
Responsible for	Group 2 (n=6)
services to a area	2 x Professional Specialists; Head of Service; Senior Administrator; 2 x
with a population of	Administrative Assistants
300,000	Group3 (n=6)
	2 x Principal Surveyors; 2 x Senior Surveyors; 2 x Surveyors
PS2 – public sector	Group 1 (n=6)
educational	IT Manager; 5 x IT Officers
institution	Group 2 (n=9)
	3 x Site Heads of Security; College Caretaker; Head of Site Services; Site
A multi-site Further	Services Officer; 2 x Maintenance Officers; Health and Safety Officer
Education College	Group 3 (n=6)
serving a large	IT Director; 2 x IT Helpdesk Officers; 2 x Executive Support Workers;
metropolitan area	Database Officer
PS3 – public sector	Group 1 (n=10)
leisure facility	3 x Duty Managers; 2 x Life Guards; 2 x Maintenance Officers; IT
	Technician; Receptionist; Clerical Officer
A non-profit	Group 2 (n=6)
organisation which	3 x Duty Managers; Trust Secretary; Receptionist; Lifeguard
runs sports and	Group 3 (n=10)
leisure facilities on	Active Health Co-ordinator; 2 x Duty Managers; Recreation Manager;
behalf of local	Recreation Assistant; Centre Manager; Membership Manager; 2 x
authorities	Lifeguards; Receptionist

Appendix 3: Focus group interview schedule

Introductions, ethical statement and 'icebreaker': How did you travel to work this morning?

Section 1 – General opinions about global warming/climate change - beliefs/efficacy and nature of domestic behaviours

- 1: How important to you are environmental issues, for example, global warming? Prompt re impact of carbon emissions
- 2: How do you feel about these issues?
- 3: Do you think that individuals can make a difference?
- 4: What sort of things do you do at home to address these problems? Prompt to include influencing others.

Section 2 – Work related attitudes and behaviours

- 5: Is it easier to be green at work or at home? Why?

 Prompt re relative drivers and constraints in each context
- 6: What sort of things do you do/have you done at work to address environmental issues?
 - Prompt for drivers and constraints for these behaviours
- 7: What about other people (colleagues) what do they do/have they done? Prompt for drivers and constraints for these behaviours
- 8: Can an individual (and/or team) in the workplace really make a difference to the environment?
 - Prompt If not why not? If yes how?
- 9: Who do you feel is responsible for environmental issues in organisations?
- 10. Have you (or other people) had ideas for environmental improvements which have: a) not been successful or b) not taken forward?

 Prompt for drivers and constraints for these behaviours

Section 3 – Organisational policy and initiatives;

- 11: Does your organisation do much to help the environment/in what way?
- 12: Do you feel that the organisation really cares about its impact on the environment?
- 13: Is there an environmental policy and/or organisational environmental initiatives? Prompt for explanations/examples.
- 14: Are management receptive to/do they encourage ideas from employees about environmental issues?
 - Prompt for examples and reasons.

Concluding remarks: Does anyone have anything else they would like to say about the issues discussed today?

Thank you for your participation