

1 **TITLE:** Exercising social control in PAYT (Pay-As-You-Throw) violations: the role
2 of subjective evaluations and social capital

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10

11 **ABSTRACT**

12 In this paper we examine the relative importance of an individual's subjective
13 evaluations and social capital on his/her decision to exercise social control (i.e.
14 confront the offender) on the hypothetical instance of witnessing a PAYT (Pay-As-
15 You-Throw) scheme violation. Our data (N=299) originates from an online
16 questionnaire filled in by residents of Greece in early summer 2016. Through logistic
17 regression modeling, we find that the subjective evaluation of the offence and social
18 capital components have independent and complementary effects on the decision to
19 exercise social control, over and above the demographic characteristics of the
20 respondent.

21 **1. INTRODUCTION**

22 The European Community’s Thematic Strategy on the Prevention and
23 Recycling of Waste aspires to “move the EU decisively onto the path of becoming an
24 economically and environmentally efficient recycling society” (Commission of the
25 European Communities, 2005, p. 6) while, according to the European Commission
26 (2011), by 2020 waste should be treated as a resource. In order to reach these goals,
27 EU member-states had been encouraged to adopt a series of measures and economic
28 instruments (EIs) that promote waste prevention and enhance re-use, recycling and
29 waste recovery (Commission of the European Communities, 2005). Numerous EIs,
30 with different impacts on waste management outcomes, are currently being
31 implemented by member states, including landfill and incineration taxes and fees as
32 well as “Pay-as-you-throw” and “Producer responsibility” schemes (European
33 Commission, 2012). “Pay-as-you-throw” (PAYT) waste management schemes are
34 implemented in various forms and combinations (Dahlén and Lagerkvist, 2010;
35 Skumatz, 2008) and, in their various formats, have been gaining pace across the EU.
36 By 2012, 17 EU member-states had introduced some version of unit-pricing programs
37 into the management of their municipal waste (European Commission, 2012), while a
38 recent paper (Seyring et al., 2016) reports that 10 out of the 28 EU countries’ capitals
39 implement PAYT schemes. PAYT’s increased popularity is related to its perceived
40 ability to address a number of waste management policy challenges and objectives.
41 According to an extensive review of the existing literature, PAYT schemes reported
42 strengths include ‘fair allocation of costs to the users’, ‘reducing waste in bins and
43 bags (15–90%reduction reported)’, ‘ensuring transparency of waste management
44 costs’, ‘increasing sorting of recyclables’, ‘encouraging home composting’ as well as
45 the fact that they ‘are generally well accepted by the householders’ (European

46 Commission, 2003 cited in Dahlén and Lagerkvist, 2010, p. 24). Yet PAYT is not
47 without its drawbacks and/or challenges, including ‘increased costs (both investment
48 and operational ones)’, ‘increased amounts of contaminants in recyclables’,
49 ‘encouraging waste tourism (i.e. waste moved to neighboring communities)’ as well
50 as ‘encouraging illegal waste dumping’ (ibid.).

51 While the exact magnitude of the illegal dumping’s increase following the
52 adoption of a PAYT scheme is still debated in the literature, its occurrence is a fact
53 which necessitates the waste management authorities’ attention. Besides ‘formal
54 ‘measures (i.e. more inspections, closer monitoring, higher fines), (local) authorities
55 may attempt to dissuade people to free-ride (by illegally dumping their waste) on a
56 PAYT scheme through ordinary citizens’ involvement.

57 Accordingly, in this paper we are interested in examining who is likely to
58 exercise ‘social control’ (i.e. confront the offender) while witnessing an individual
59 inappropriately using (“free-riding” on) a PAYT scheme. In particular, we are going
60 to examine and compare the explanatory potential of two different theorizations
61 suggested in the relevant literature: one stressing the relevance of the
62 individual’s subjective appraisal of the ‘inappropriate’ behavior; the other
63 highlighting the importance of the individual’s social characteristics, and in particular
64 of his/her social capital. To the best of our knowledge, no existing research has tried
65 to compare these two explanatory approaches when it comes to exercising social
66 control in the case of illegal dumping- or, for that matter, in the case of any other anti-
67 social/illegal behavior.

68 2. LITERATURE REVIEW

69 2.1. PAYT and illegal dumping

70 The question on whether, and to what extent, adopting a PAYT system for
71 waste management actually increases illegal dumping in an area is not settled in the
72 existing literature. Economic modelling had shown that the introduction of a PAYT
73 charge operates not only as a stimulus for waste reduction (through reuse, recycling,
74 composting etc.) but also as an incentive for illegal dumping (Choe and Fraser, 1999;
75 Fullerton and Kinnaman, 1995). Yet the available empirical evidence is mixed. Based
76 on *secondary* material (such as official statistics, interviews with officials and/or self-
77 reports), a number of studies concluded that the introduction of variable-rate waste-
78 pricing was not followed by a (not always statistically) significant increase of illegal
79 waste disposal (e.g. Kuo and Perrings, 2010; Miranda et al, 1994; Reschovsky and
80 Stone, 1994). Yet, Hong (1999), for Korea, and Heller and Vatn (2017), for a
81 Norwegian municipality, provide reports of substantial increases in illegal dumping –
82 which, in the Norwegian case, was the main reason for the local authorities’ decision
83 to terminate the PAYT system only two years after its introduction (Heller and Vatn,
84 2017).

85 On the contrary, research based on *primary* data indicates that the introduction
86 of variable waste tariffs leads to substantial increases in illegal dumping. In an early
87 study concerning the impacts of introducing a PAYT scheme in Charlottesville,
88 Virginia, USA, Fullerton and Kinnaman (1996) concluded that 24 to 43% of
89 the observed household-waste reduction could had been due to illegal dumping (pp.
90 978-980). Later research corroborated this alarming finding. Thus Kim et al. (2008)
91 found that ‘a 1% increase in the unit price of a trash bag led to a 3% increase in the
92 number of reports of illegal dumping’ in Korea over the period 2001-2003 (p.167),

93 while, for the case of Italy, D'Amato et al. (2018) conclude that 'the hypothesis
94 that stricter environmental policy tends to favor the emergence of illegal
95 disposal cannot be rejected'. Similarly, Allers and Hoeben (2010), in their study
96 of 'unit-based garbage pricing' (UBP) across Dutch municipalities over a ten-year
97 period, found 'that only about 18% of the reduction in unsorted waste quantities is
98 due to better recycling'(p.424). While the authors acknowledge that part of the
99 remainder 'missing waste 'percentage may be attributed to illegal dumping, they
100 nevertheless note that 'if this was a serious problem, one would expect many
101 municipalities to abolish user fees. This has not happened. Thus, there is no evidence
102 of municipalities becoming disappointed about the effects of UBP programs' (ibid.).

103

104 **2.2. Illegal dumping and citizens' social control**

105 Although its actual magnitude cannot be precisely determined, the rise of
106 illegal dumping following the introduction of a PAYT scheme is an adverse reality
107 which local authorities will have to address. In the face of budget constraints and
108 personnel limitations, authorities have an incentive to promote individual citizens'
109 action in confronting/reporting trespassers. Available research has
110 shown that public environmental monitoring may enhance regulatory efficiency,
111 under certain conditions (cf. Goeschl and Jürgens, 2012). Particularly to waste
112 dumping, Matsumoto and Takeuchi (2011) found that local residents' 'community
113 support' (i.e. the existence of a system through which citizens assist the authorities'
114 monitoring and patrol programs) (p.187) is related to fewer (and to a lesser growth of)
115 illegal dumping incidents of electric appliances.

116 When citizens witness uncivil/unlawful behaviors by others their reactions
117 could vary over a spectrum, ranging from doing nothing -at the one end- to reporting

118 the perpetrator to the relevant authorities -to the other end-, with any other of the
119 intermediate reactions being a form of ‘social control’. By the term ‘social control’ is
120 meant ‘any behavior whereby an individual communicates his or hers disapproval to
121 someone who holds a counternormative attitude or engages in counternormative
122 behavior’ (Brauer and Chekroun, 2005a, p. 1519). This willingness to engage in
123 social-norm enforcement (also referred to by some as ‘altruistic punishment’) is rather
124 surprising since it ‘is individually costly, e.g. because it requires time and effort to
125 enact, and the punisher bears the risk of retaliation when confronting a non-
126 cooperator’ (Balafoutas et al., 2014, p. 15924). Nevertheless, it is quite common in a
127 variety of social norms’ violations, including littering. Thus, Brauer and Chekroun
128 (2005a) found that 68% of respondents *would* exercise some kind of ‘social control’
129 (e.g giving an angry look to personally insulting n someone littering in a French park
130 (p.1530)), while 40% actually *did* so in a parallel, natural (i.e. real-life) experimental
131 design (p.1529). Similar substantial percentages of social control (averaging around
132 32% yet ranging substantially across cities) are reported by Berger and Hevenstone
133 (2016) for the case of littering just outside a public trash-bin in natural experiments
134 conducted in Bern and Zurich, Switzerland, and New York, USA (pp.307-308) -in
135 stark contrast to Athens, Greece, where littering in the corridors leading to the
136 platforms one of the city’s train subway station was sanctioned by bystanders in only
137 4% of the cases (Balafoutas and Nikiforakis, 2012, p. 1775).

138

139 **2.3. The determinants of social control**

140 Why are some individuals ‘willing to punish defectors [of social norms] at a
141 cost to themselves, even though it would be advantageous [to themselves] to simply
142 ignore them’ (Guala, 2012, p. 1)? Available research on the predictors of social
143 control has developed along two distinct pathways. Thus, on the one hand, it has been
144 argued that social control follows from an individual’s subjective appraisal of the
145 behavior -the latter being contingent to a number of factors: the offender’s physical
146 characteristics-such as his/hers gender or posture (Balafoutas and Nikiforakis, 2012;
147 Balafoutas et al.,2014; Przepiorka and Berger, 2016); the number of other bystanders
148 witnessing the transgression (Chekroun, 2008; Przepiorka and Berger, 2016); the
149 particularities of the area where the offence occurred (Berger and Hevenstone, 2016);
150 the feelings the particular anti-social behavior elicits in the observer and whether the
151 offender is considered as “one of us” or s/he is closely related to the observer ((Berger
152 and Hevenstone, 2016; Chekroun, 2008; Moisuc and Brauer, 2019; Nugier et al.,
153 2009); the level of ambiguity surrounding the behavior and the extent to which the
154 observer feels it is legitimate to exercise ‘social control’ over the particular behavior
155 (Chaurand and Brauer, 2008a). Amidst the plethora of these explanatory variables,
156 two have constituted the baseline for this particular analytical tradition, and they have
157 been shown to be positively correlated with social control: ‘the degree of personal
158 implication’ (i.e.to which extent the individual feels that the observed behavior has
159 implications to himself/herself) and the ‘degree of deviance’ of the behavior/action
160 (i.e. the extent to which it runs counter to societal “norms” of acceptable/desirable
161 behavior in a social unit) (Brauer and Chekroun, 2005a; Chaurand and Brauer,
162 2008a), although the latter was not found to be statistically significant in a natural (i.e.

163 real-life) experiment's setting (e.g. Balafoutas and Nikiforakis, 2012; Brauer and
164 Chekroun, 2005b).

165 The alternative perspective focuses instead on the individual's social
166 characteristics and in particular to his/her social capital. 'Social capital' (SC) is a
167 composite concept, comprised of the social norms one adheres to, the social trust one
168 has to other members of the society and the social networks one partakes in
169 (Coleman,1988), and has been widely employed as an explanatory factor in many
170 areas of environmental policies and behaviors (Dietz et al., 2007; Jones and Clark,
171 2014; Pretty,2003) including waste management (Jones et al., 2011; Pargal et al.,
172 2002; Tsai, 2008).In the words of Coleman (1988, p. S98) 'Social capital is defined
173 by its function. It is not a single entity but a variety of different entities, with two
174 elements in common: they all consist of some aspect of social structures, and they
175 facilitate certain actions of actors-whether persons or corporate actors-within the
176 structure. [...It..] is productive, making possible the achievement of certain ends that in
177 its absence would not be possible'. Ostrom (1998) has highlighted that communities
178 with higher levels of social capital –dense horizontal networks and higher levels of
179 trust- tend to act in a collective way facilitating the management of natural resources
180 (Pretty, 2003). Through the number and type of networks (pro-environmental or not)
181 that an individual is involved, the level of trust towards other citizens and institutions
182 and the type of social norms according to which an individual acts, social capital can
183 influence the level of public acceptability for waste management policies and the
184 existence (or not) of social control (Jones et al., 2011).

185 As it follows from a long-standing and substantial body of research on the
186 predictors of crime-levels at the neighborhood level (Bursik, 1988; Bursik,
187 1999;Sampson and Groves, 1989; Rose and Clear, 1998), social capital (especially its

188 ‘social networks’ and ‘social trust’ components) play an important role in actual crime
189 prevention and control because it is positively correlated to ‘informal social control’,
190 i.e. ‘the informal mechanisms by which residents themselves achieve public order
191 [...such as...] monitoring of spontaneous play groups among children, a willingness
192 to intervene to prevent acts such as truancy and street-corner “hanging” by teenage
193 peer groups, and the confrontation of persons who are exploiting or disturbing public
194 space’(Sampson et al., 1997, p. 918). In the words of Sampson et al. (1997), ‘At the
195 neighborhood level [...] the willingness of local residents to intervene for the common
196 good depends in large part on conditions of mutual trust and solidarity among
197 neighbors. Indeed, one is unlikely to intervene in a neighborhood context in which the
198 rules are unclear and people mistrust or fear one another’ (p. 919)- and this positive
199 correlation between SC and informal social control has been empirically validated in a
200 number of studies (Sampson et al., 1999; Sampson et al., 1997).

201 Accordingly, in this paper we are interested in testing and addressing the
202 following research hypotheses and questions respectively:

203 **Hypothesis 1a (H1a):** The degree of personal implication (i.e. to which extent the
204 individual feels that an observed behavior has implications to himself/herself) will
205 impact positively on the willingness to exercise social control when witnessing illegal
206 waste dumping.

207 **H1b:** The ‘degree of deviance of the counter-normative behavior’ (i.e. the extent to
208 which the observed behavior runs counter to societal “norms” of acceptable/desirable
209 behavior in a social unit) will impact positively on the willingness to exercise social
210 control when witnessing waste dumping

211 **H2:** An individual’s social capital will impact positively on the willingness to
212 exercise social control when witnessing waste dumping.

213

214 **Research Question 1 (RQ1):** Do an individual's subjective evaluation of waste
215 dumping and his/her social capital have independent effects on his/her willingness to
216 exercise social control?

217 **RQ2:** Do the various social capital components have a similar impact on one's
218 willingness to exercise social control in cases of waste dumping?

219

220 **3. DATA & METHODS**

221 **3.1. Context and Sampling**

222 In early summer 2016 we conducted research concerning the Greek public's
223 views on PAYT schemes. The research was based on an online questionnaire asking
224 participants to express, under conditions of anonymity, their views about
225 the introduction of a PAYT scheme in their area of living. On the first page of
226 the questionnaire, the readers were given information regarding the current situation
227 of waste management and charges in Greece and were asked to suppose that a PAY
228 scheme would be implemented in their area of living by their municipality. It was
229 mentioned that the new system relied on the "Polluter Pays Principle", and thus waste
230 charges would be proportionate to the amount of waste produced. Furthermore, the
231 participants were informed that the unit-pricing program would be applied
232 simultaneously to residue waste and recyclables (the latter already collected through
233 the 'Blue Bin' system, where individuals may drop their recyclable waste of glass,
234 paper, plastic, aluminum and tinfoil without the need to separate them and without
235 being offered any explicit and immediate reward). Users of the PAYT scheme would
236 be charged 0,05€/kg of residue/recyclable waste (i.e. an amount reflecting the
237 prescribed municipal waste management costs per kilogram at the time, under Article

238 43 of Law4042/12 (FEK 24/A/13-2-2012)). It was further mentioned that any
239 inappropriately placed/disposed waste would not be collected by the cleaning
240 workers. One of the sections of this broader questionnaire included items relating to
241 the respondent's likely reaction if witnessing a case of waste dumping (i.e.
242 purposefully bypassing the PAYT scheme).

243 The questionnaire was communicated electronically through the University of
244 the Aegean, Greece, academic email database and official Facebook page as well as to
245 the acquaintances' network of the authors, while the recipients/readers were
246 encouraged to forward the questionnaire to their own network of contacts. The survey
247 remained online between May 30th and June 29th 2016, and a total of 299 responses
248 were collected.

249

250 **3.2. Variables used**

251 Dependent variable

252 'Exercising social control': Measured through the following question: '*Assume*
253 *that your municipality is implementing a Pay-As-You-Throw (PAYT) scheme for*
254 *household waste and you witness another citizen bypassing it (e.g. leaving the*
255 *garbage outside the 'smart bin' or outside the communal bin of his/hers block of flats*
256 *or not using the pre-paid waste bags). Will you do any of the following? [Answer:] I*
257 *will reprimand him/her on the spot for his/her behavior'*. The original responses were
258 measured on a 4-point Likert-scale (ranging from '1: Surely No' to '4: Surely Yes',
259 plus the '666: I don't know' option). For our analysis, the responses 'don't know'
260 were treated as missing while the remaining 273 responses (91.3% of the original)
261 were recoded into a dichotomous dummy variable, '1: Surely/Rather NO' and '2:
262 Surely/Rather YES'.

263

264 Predictor variables

265 ‘Degree of Personal Implication’ (IMPLICATION): We measure this through
266 the personal endorsement of any out of three PAYT schemes, which previous research
267 identified as most suitable for implementing under existing conditions in Greek
268 communities: (a) the volume-based bag program (Ecological Recycling Society,
269 2011;Karagiannidis et al., 2008; Malamakis et al., 2009); (b) the punch card weight-
270 based system (Ecological Recycling Society, 2011; Jones et al., 2010; Karkanias et
271 al., 2015);and, (c) weight-based bin per residence scheme (Ecological Recycling
272 Society, 2011;Karagiannidis et al., 2008; Malamakis et al., 2009). In particular,
273 respondents were asked to indicate their level of endorsement through the 5-point
274 Likert-scale question reading ‘*Would you be against or in favor of introducing any of*
275 *these three PAYT schemes in your area of residence?*’ (‘1: Against’ to ‘5: In favor’).

276 In previous research the degree of personal implication has been measured
277 through a question reading ‘*To what extent would you suffer, personally, the*
278 *consequences of the action of this person?*’ (E.g. Brauer and Chekroun, 2005b;
279 Chaurand and Brauer, 2008b), yet this exact question was not part of the
280 questionnaire we used during that data gathering. As a plausible proxy, we assume
281 that the *stronger* the endorsement of a PAYT system the more *negative* the
282 consequences felt by an individual would be s/he witnesses this system being free-
283 ridden: since an individual endorsing a PAYT system is, *ceteris paribus*, in effect
284 agreeing to pay his/her monetary ‘fair share’ for waste disposal management, s/he is
285 quite likely to consider the free-riding of the system as a, direct and personal, negative
286 (economic to say the least) consequence. Furthermore, our analyses (available upon
287 request) show that the endorsement of any of the proposed PAYT schemes by our

288 respondents is strongly and negatively correlated with the ‘personal costs’ one
289 perceives in the system (*‘It will be more time consuming for me; ...will be more
290 difficult to use for me; and, ...will be more costly to operate’*). In other words, the
291 endorsement of a PAYT scheme is strongly related to individual *self-interest*, the
292 same concept that ‘personal implication’ is also supposed to measure (see Brauer and
293 Chekroun, 2005b, p. 1523). Thus, while acknowledging the variable we use is sub-
294 optimal, we nevertheless consider the degree of personal endorsement to be an
295 appropriate proxy for measuring an individual’s ‘degree of personal implication’.

296 ‘Degree of deviance of the behavior’ (DEVIANCE): A three-item scale
297 (Cronbach’s $\alpha = 0.806$) based on the following three questions: ‘To which extent do
298 you agree with each of the following statements as a way of dealing with citizens by-
299 passing/non-complying with your Municipality’s Pay-As-You-Throw scheme (e.g.
300 leaving their garbage outside the PAYT bin; or, disposing household garbage in
301 public trash-bins; or, burning their garbage, etc.): *the local authorities should make
302 public the names of those bypassing the PAYT scheme; the local authorities should
303 impose heavy monetary fines on those bypassing the PAYT scheme; and, citizens
304 should report to the relevant authorities (e.g. the local authorities or the police) those
305 bypassing the PAYT scheme’* (each question measured on a 5-point Likert scale, (‘1:
306 Strongly Disagree’, ‘5: Strongly Agree’). Again, our approach differs from previous
307 research which has tapped on the degree of deviance in a straightforward way (e.g.
308 asking individuals to indicate ‘*To what extent do you consider the [particular]
309 behavior to be counter the norms of our society?’* (Brauer and Chekroun, 2005b) or
310 ‘*To what extent is the [particular] behavior of this person counternormative?’*
311 (Chaurand and Brauer, 2008b). Obviously, ours is an even stronger indicator of the
312 behavior’s perceived deviance, since the individual is asked to indicate whether s/he

313 feels that the particular transgression is important enough to be reported to-and/or
314 punished by- the appropriate authorities.

315 Social Capital (SC) is a multi-dimensional concept and was measured in our
316 study by combining different indicators proposed in the literature (e.g. Grootaert and
317 Bastelaer, 2002; Putnam, 2000). The most important indicator of social capital, trust,
318 was divided in two different categories, 'social (or interpersonal) trust' (Villalonga-
319 Olives and Kawachi, 2015) and 'institutional trust' (Haring, 2018).

320 Institutional Trust (INSTIT TRUST) was measured through a three-item scale
321 (Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.729$) based on the following questions: 'How much do you trust the
322 following institutions: *the national government; the Ministry for the Environment;*
323 *and, your local government*' (each question measured on a 5-point Likert scale, '1 =
324 Not at all' to '5 = Fully'). Social Trust (SOCIAL TRUST) was measured through a
325 three-item scale (Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.658$) based on the following questions:
326 'Concerning the following groups of people, do you think you should rather be
327 cautious or you could trust them? *neighbors; family; and, friends*' (each question
328 measured on a 5-point Likert scale, '1 = Cautious' to '5 = Trustful').

329 Informal Social Networks (INFORMAL NETS) were captured through a two-
330 item scale (Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.258$) based on the following questions: 'How often do
331 you do any of the following: *meeting with relatives; and, meeting with friends*' (each
332 question measured on a 5-point Likert scale, '1: Never' to '5: Daily').

333 Formal Social Networks (FORMAL NETS) were assessed through a two-item
334 scale (Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.695$) based on the following questions: 'Over the past 12
335 months have you been a member or have you volunteered to any club or society (e.g.
336 sports/cultural/professional/environmental/political etc.)? ('1 = Yes', '2 = No', for
337 either being a member or volunteering').

338 In order to capture the level of Public Participation (PARTICIPATION) a
339 four-item scale was applied (Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.619$) based on the following questions:
340 'Over the past 12 months have you done any of the following? *worked for a political*
341 *party or any other group/society; signed a petition; participated in a demonstration;*
342 *and, boycotted or bought certain products for political, ethical and/or environmental*
343 *reasons*' ('1 =Yes', '2 = No').

344 Finally Social Norms (NORMS) were measured via a two-items scale
345 (Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.797$) based on the following questions: 'How justifiable do you
346 consider the following actions: *disposing waste outside the assigned bin;* and,
347 *disposing non-recyclable waste inside the recyclables' bin*' (each question measured
348 on a 5-point Likert scale, '1: Totally justifiable to '5: Totally unjustifiable').

349 The correlations between the different predictor variables are presented in
350 Table X1 in the Appendix.

351

352 Control variables

353 We also include a number of demographic variables as controls, such as the
354 respondent's gender (dichotomous variable), age (continuous variable),
355 educational attainment (categorical variable with 3 levels: "low- elementary
356 schooling", "middle -high school", "higher- (post)graduate degrees") and income
357 (categorical variable with 3levels: "low, <800 euros", "middle, 801-1600 euros", and
358 "higher, >1600 euros") (The reader is referred to Table X2 in the Appendix for the
359 descriptive statistics of the demographic variables). Available research on exercising
360 social control has not given particular emphasis on the possible effects of
361 demographic variables, while the few existing results have been mixed. With respect
362 to gender, Berger and Hevenstone (2016)and Przepiorka and Berger (2016) found no

363 statistically significant differences, *contra* Balafoutas and Nikiforakis (2012) who
364 found that males are more likely to engage in social control. Regarding age, we are
365 aware of a single study which found that older individuals are more likely to engage
366 in social control (Berger and Hevenstone, 2016) while we have not been able to
367 identify any studies examining the possible effect of an individual's income and/or
368 educational attainment.

369

370 3.3. Methods

371 We test the predictor variables' effect on an individual's willingness to
372 exercise social control through binary logistic regression modeling approach (Agresti,
373 2002). We fit the logistic models in three consecutive steps. In order to assess the
374 model fit, we employ a model-comparison approach starting by fitting a generic null
375 model (control model A) and then proceed by adding new sets of predictor variables
376 for each subsequent model (Models B, C) in order to perform the models'
377 comparisons. Model comparison is performed via the X^2 statistic, which is a measure
378 of how well the independent variables affect the outcome of the dependent variable
379 (Hosmer et al., 2013). To obtain the results, the IBM SPSS programme 21 (Released
380 IBM Corp., 2012) has been utilized. More analytically, in Model A, which serves as
381 the control model, we examine solely the explanatory power of the demographic
382 variables. In the subsequent Model B, we further incorporate the predictors pertaining
383 to the individual's subjective evaluation of the (counter-normative) behavior, the
384 'degree of personal implication' and the 'degree of perceived deviance'. As a final
385 step, we examine the role of an individual's social capital, through its constituent
386 parts of networks, trust, participation and norms (Model C).

387

388 4. RESULTS

389 An impressive 89.3% of our respondents answered that they would
390 ‘Surely/Rather’ reprimand on the spot someone bypassing the PAYT scheme. As it
391 follows from Model A (Table 1), an individual’s demographic characteristics do not
392 influence his/hers likelihood to exercise social control, with the exception of the
393 Income variable: middle income individuals are over five times more likely (Odds
394 ratio (i.e. $\exp(B)$) = 5.129, $p = 0.023 < 0.05$) than high-income individuals (the
395 reference category) to exercise social control. On the contrary, there exist no
396 statistically significant differences between low income individuals and middle or
397 high-income ones, respectively.

398 The inclusion of the predictors pertaining to the perceived personal
399 implication and deviance of the PAYT bypassing (Model B), leads to an improvement
400 of the model fit (Nagelkerke R^2 increasing from 0.070 to 0.112 between Models A &
401 B), which is also statistically significant according to the X^2 test ($X^2 = 10.166$; p -
402 value = $0.017 < 0.05$). Again, we find that (only) middle income individuals are five
403 times more likely to exercise social control (Odds ratio (i.e $\exp(B)$) = 5.039, $p = 0.026$
404 < 0.05). While the perceived personal implication effect turned out to be statistically
405 non-significant, those who perceive bypassing the PAYT scheme as “deviant” are
406 over 1.6 more likely to reprimand someone bypassing the PAYT scheme (Odds ratio
407 = $\exp(B)$ =1.656, $p=0.049 < 0.05$).

408 Coming to the final Model C, which incorporates the Social Capital (SC)
409 component predictors, we find a further (and statistically significant) improvement of
410 the model fit (Nagelkerke $R^2 = 0.194$; $X^2 = 17.927$; p -value = $0.001 < 0.05$). Again, we
411 observe the positive effects of middle-income (Odds ratio (i.e. $\exp(B)$) = 5.443,
412 $p=0.025 < 0.05$) and of the perceived deviance of the behavior (Odds ratio (i.e. $\exp(B)$)

413 = 1.811, $p = 0.035 < 0.05$) on social control. Of the added SC predictors, the only one
 414 which turned out to be statistically relevant was the ‘Participation’ one: an individual
 415 who has been socially active in the past year, is more likely to confront a PAYT
 416 offender (Odds ratio (i.e. $\exp(B)$) = 0.447, $p = 0.011 < 0.05$).
 417

Table 1: Predictors’ effects on an individual’s likelihood to exercise social control when witnessing PAYT bypassing (binary logistic regression results)

	B (s.e.)	Wald	Exp(B)
<i>Model A</i>			
EDUCATION	n.s.		
AGE	n.s.		
GENDER	n.s.		
INCOME (Ref: High,3)			
<i>Income (Low, 1)</i>	n.s.		
<i>Income (Middle, 2)</i>	1.635** (0.720)	5.161	5.129
Constant	1.447*** (0.556)	6.779	4.250
-2 Log likelihood		110.247	
X ² statistic		6.256	
Nagelkerke R ²		0.070	
<i>Model B</i>			
EDUCATION	n.s.		
AGE	n.s.		
GENDER	n.s.		
INCOME (Ref: High,3)			
<i>Income (Low, 1)</i>	n.s.		

<i>Income (Middle, 2)</i>	1.617** (0.729)	4.925	5.039
DEVIANCE	0.504** (0.257)	3.846	1.656
IMPLICATION	n.s.		
Constant	1.476*** (0.566)	6.795	4.376
-2 Log likelihood		106.337	
X ² statistic		10.166	
Nagelkerke R ²		0.112	
		<i>Model C</i>	
EDUCATION	n.s.		
AGE	n.s.		
GENDER	n.s.		
INCOME (Ref: High,3)			
<i>Income (Low, 1)</i>	n.s.		
<i>Income (Middle, 2)</i>	1.694** (0.758)	4.993	5.443
DEVIANCE	0.594** (0.281)	4.458	1.811
IMPLICATION	n.s.		
NORMS	n.s.		
INFORMAL NETS	n.s.		
FORMAL NETS	n.s.		
INSTIT. TRUST	n.s.		
SOCIAL TRUST	n.s.		
PARTICIPATION	-0.804** (0.315)	6.505	0.447
Constant	1.640*** (0.602)	7.430	5.154
-2 Log likelihood		98.576	
X ² statistic		17.927	

418 n.s.: Not statistically significant, $p > 0.1$; *: statistically significant at the 0.1 level; **:
419 ... at the 0.05 level; ***: ... at the 0.01 level

420

421 **5. CONCLUSIONS & DISCUSSION**

422 In this paper we set to compare two different theorizations concerning who is
423 likely to exercise social control in the case of illegal dumping in the context of a
424 (hypothetical) Pay-As-You-Throw (PAYT) waste management scheme. One line of
425 argument has suggested that this would be influenced by the observer's subjective
426 evaluation of the behavior, and in particular the extent that s/he feels personally
427 affected by the behavior ('degree of personal implication') and the extent s/he
428 considers that behavior as inappropriate ('degree of deviance'). The other line focuses
429 instead on the observer's social characteristics, in particular his/her social capital.
430 Although both approaches have been used in previous research, we are unaware of
431 any study which tried to juxtapose these two approaches, thus this research attempted
432 to address a lacuna in our theoretical understanding of the determinants of social
433 control.

434 Our results show that both sets of predictors impact the likelihood to exercise
435 social control, independently of one another and over the individual's demographic
436 characteristics. In particular, we found that, as anticipated by previous research, the
437 perceived degree of deviance of the observed behavior is positively related to
438 exercising social control. Individuals who think that transgressing the PAYT scheme
439 is an offence serious enough to be reported to -and/or punished by- the appropriate
440 authorities are 1.8 times more likely to engage in social control than those who do not
441 think of it as an offence worth reporting/punishing. On the contrary, we did not find a

442 statistically significant relation between the ‘degree of personal implication’ and
443 social control. This result, which runs counter to past research, should rather be
444 attributed to our operationalization of the relevant concept. As we mentioned earlier,
445 past research measured the ‘degree of implication’ by asking respondents to indicate
446 to what extent they would suffer, personally, the consequences of the particular
447 action/behavior. In this research, and since we lacked such an explicitly formatted
448 question, we attempted to tap into ‘personal implication’ by using one’s endorsement
449 of the PAYT scheme, arguing that, the *stronger* the endorsement of a PAYT system
450 the more *negative* the consequences felt by an individual would be if this system is
451 free-ridden.

452 Our finding that that general endorsement of a PAYT scheme does not directly
453 influence the willingness to confront an offender, should inform future research to the
454 importance of measuring explicitly the extent to which one feels personally *affected*
455 by the offence. Arguably, using the endorsement of *any* PAYT scheme as a proxy, is
456 a broad brush approach which does not take into account the individual’s preferences
457 for a *particular* scheme -or even for the PAYT framework itself-, which are likely to
458 influence his/her degree of implication. Thus, further research is needed for
459 establishing the actual strength (or the very existence) of the relation between the
460 concepts of ‘endorsement’ and ‘implication’ which –as our results suggest- are not
461 highly correlated.

462 Coming to the possible effects of Social Capital (SC) on social control, we
463 find that it also plays a role, over and independently of an individual’s subjective
464 evaluation of the observed behavior. This is corroborated on one hand by the fact that
465 the final Model C (i.e. the one in which we have included SC predictors) fits better to,
466 and explains more of, the data; on the other hand, by the fact that the addition of the

467 SC predictors does not alter either the sign or the statistical significance of the effect
468 of any of the other predictors (the subjective evaluative ones included). Yet not all
469 SC components were found to be relevant. Only public ‘Participation’ proved
470 statistically significant, with more ‘active’ individuals being over two times more
471 likely to engage in social control than less ‘active’ ones. On the contrary, social trust
472 and informal networks, which were found to be particularly prominent in other studies
473 on social control (e.g. Sampson, et al., 1999; Sampson et al., 1997), turned out to be
474 non-significant in our study. We claim that this discrepancy is due to the fact that this
475 prior research had largely focused on a radically different kind of delinquent behavior,
476 namely (violent/petty) crime. Since, as Coleman (1988, p.S98) notes ‘Social
477 capital...is not a single entity but a variety of different entities [...thus it...] is not
478 completely fungible but may be specific to certain activities. A given form of social
479 capital that is valuable in facilitating certain actions may be useless or even harmful
480 for others’, the fact that certain SC components which were found to be relevant in the
481 social control of crime turned out to be non-relevant for the case of the social control
482 on illegal dumping should not come as a surprise. Furthermore, it should not make us
483 lose sight of the really important theoretical finding of our research: (aspects of)
484 social capital are a *complementary* predictor of social control in the case of waste
485 dumping, independent of the subjective evaluation of the deviant behavior.

486 Turning to the limitations of our study, the fact that our sample was self-
487 selected, may have introduced a selection bias, with persons more concerned about
488 PAYT choosing to participate and thus being over-represented in the research.
489 Furthermore, our average respondent (female, under 40 years old, highly educated) is
490 not representative of the general population. These characteristics would have
491 restricted the variability of the responses and thus resulted to weakened correlations.

492 Nevertheless, our analyses returned overall statistically significant relationships
493 between the variables as well as congruent with both the available literature and
494 previous, random-sample research. Thus, while acknowledging that the limitations
495 posed by our sample's characteristics should serve as a note of caution when
496 interpreting our findings, it is not very likely that the sample's composition
497 substantially affected the results obtained. Future research, using random sampling,
498 would allow us to settle this point.

499 A second point of concern relates to what extent our results, based on
500 someone's professed willingness to exercise social control over PAYT violations,
501 would hold 'in the real world'. Past research has established that those actually
502 exercising social control are far fewer than those stating they would (e.g. Brauer and
503 Chekroun (2005a). This is hardly surprising if one considers the multitude of factors
504 affecting such a real-life decision (see the relevant discussion in the preceding section
505 titled 'The determinants of social control'). Nevertheless, previous research has also
506 established that *both* professed and actual behaviors are affected by the same
507 predictors overall. Thus, although we expect that far fewer Greeks would actually
508 exercise social control than the 89% who claimed they *would* do so, we also anticipate
509 that the predictors we identified in this research would be relevant in cases of *actual*
510 social control as well.

511 As a final note, we would like to comment on the policy implications of our
512 findings. As mentioned in the Literature review, citizens' exercising social control in
513 cases of PAYT bypassing may offer the waste authorities/managers a complementary
514 (and low-cost) way of dealing with offenders. Should local officials wish to promote
515 such a role for their citizens, our results suggest a promising way of intervening: since
516 no external interferences may alter one's (personal) social capital, waste managers

517 should instead focus on highlighting the perceived deviance of PAYT bypassing.
518 Promoting, through informational and advertising campaigns, the particular
519 behavior's perception as an offence which should be reported to -and fined by- the
520 authorities and whose perpetrators merit a public reprimand, is likely to enhance the
521 citizen's willingness to confront the offenders. And if the latter is indeed materialized,
522 then both the costs of formal monitoring and the incidents of free-riding the local
523 PAYT scheme would be reduced in the longer-term.

Table X2: Descriptive statistics of demographic variables used in the analyses

	Mean (std. dev.)	Minimum/Maximum	N
Gender	1.44 (0.50)	1/2	295
<i>1: Female</i>			
<i>2: Male</i>			
Age	39.93 (10.03)	21/71	286
Educational attainment	2.30 (0.74)	1/3	296
<i>1: Elementary</i>			
<i>2: Gymnasium/High school</i>			
<i>3: (Post) Graduate</i>			
Personal Income	1.79 (0.63)	1/3	251
<i>1: <800€</i>			
<i>2: 801-1600€</i>			
<i>3: > 1600€</i>			

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