

VILNIUS UNIVERSITY

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**INFLUENCE OF PERSONAL AND EXTERNAL FACTORS ON
GREEN CONSUMER BEHAVIOUR**

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VILNIAUS UNIVERSITETAS

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Introduction

Presently researchers place an intensive focus on different types of consumer behaviour related to the well-being of society (ethical, socially responsible consumer behaviour) or environment (environmental, green consumer behaviour), or even incorporate these two approaches into investigating sustainable consumer behaviour. However, consumer behaviour is a complicated phenomenon, which is quite intensively changing due to the changes in society and its norms. Consumer behaviour depends not only on personal characteristics or on preferences of consumers, but also on the impact of external environment, including society pressure, advertising, and products available. Therefore, certain consumer behaviour shapes the type of consumption and determines the importance of consumption in society. In the context of current ideology consumption is understood as the source of happiness (Sklair, 2010) and people perceive that only through consumption they can make changes to the society and create common well-being (Jubas, 2007). Therefore, intensive consumption and self-actualization through consumption led to the current situation where “usual” consumption in Western societies can be objectively called overconsumption, which means acquisition of goods that go beyond the basic needs and reasonable comfort (Ehrlich, Ehrlich, 2004). However, “usual” (“normal”) consumption is a very complicated and difficult to define concept; the understanding of a “norm” might significantly differ among cultures and social classes. In general, “usual” consumption can be described as acceptable to the majority of individuals in certain societies (Fowler, 2007), but the concept of “norm” changes over time due to progress and evolution of beliefs, politics, and social group values (Amine, Gicquel, 2011). Thus, the daily consumption of most necessary products is far too big, because these kinds of products are easily available and easy to overconsume.

The intensifying globalization and resistance to overconsumption encourages the introduction of sustainable consumption into the society

(Amine, Gicquel, 2011). Whereas, one form of sustainable consumption - green consumption is currently being perceived positively by the consumers society and is getting closer to “usual” consumption (Leonidou, Leonidou, 2011; Amine, Gicquel, 2011; Finisterra do Paco, Raposo, 2008; Shrum et al, 1995). There are many reasons why consumers become interested in green behaviour: some buy green products due to their health concerns, some want to protect environment or wildlife, others follow the trends of society or do it just because they think it is the right behaviour. Thus, green behaviour can be classified into many forms including, but not limited to: buying organic products, not buying genetically modified foods, being vegetarian, buying recycled paper products, and even simply trying to consume less of everything (Connolly et al, 2006). Therefore, not only purchase and consumption behaviour (when people choose organic food, buy from local producers, or buy products from recycled materials) can be assigned to green behaviour, but also non purchase behaviour, like: daily activities related to household habits (saving electricity, water, heat, etc.) and recycling activities (including charity) (Barr, Gilg, 2006). The most radical view on environmentally and socially oriented consumption emphasises the need to reduce consumption and implement anti-consumption practises (Cherrier et al, 2011; Lee et al, 2009a; Sandikci, Ekici, 2009; Iyer, Muncy, 2009; Garner, 2000; Dryzek, 1997).

However, many authors revealed that green consumption in particular does not lead to simplification of consumption practices because the assortment of green products is already very wide and consumers can still satisfy their hedonic needs by maintaining the same level of consumption, only changing it to the green one (Cherrier et al, 2011; Soper, 2004; Etzioni, 1996). Therefore, consumption of green products might not lead to sustainability, as consumers can maintain their level of consumption, while just feeling better because they consume products that are less harmful for them and for the environment. Thus, in such cases the disadvantages that overconsumption creates still remain.

Such consumption behaviour practices as reduction of consumption,

reuse, or sharing of products, and self-production of products are the forms of anti-consumption practices, also motivated by various environmental and social factors. This leads to a conclusion that anti-consumption can be an alternative to green consumption, as both are motivated by similar factors. Thus, consumption in Western societies has two distinctive features: a high level of consumption, which is even leading consumers to overconsumption; and initiatives of responsible consumption shaped by environmental and health consciousness. Both of these tendencies are highly influenced by the society's pressure, which comes from both community and advertising, shaping all consumption choices and levels (Humphery, 2013). Therefore, it can be stated that green consumer behaviour consists not only of purchase and consumption of green products, but also includes a decrease in any products' purchase and consumption. Also, these two options of green consumer behaviour are influenced by similar factors.

In conclusion, it can be claimed that consumers can choose from three types of purchase and consumption practices: to choose green products, to choose "usual" (not green) products, or to reduce the consumption of any products.

Research problem

A research gap exists, because green products purchase and consumption has already been quite heavily analysed in scientific literature, although results could be perceived as quite contradicting. Whereas purchase and consumption reduction leading to any form of anti-consumption was analysed very little, similarly to the relation between green products consumption and reduction of consumption. Therefore, incorporation of these two behavioural variants into a single green consumer behaviour phenomenon might solve the existing scientific research gap.

Green consumer behaviour is intensively spreading throughout the society; however, green purchase and consumption, applied at the same level as "usual" consumption, still leads to overconsumption. It appears that

overconsumption of any kind of products might only be solved by reducing purchase and consumption. Therefore, it is important to determine what personal and external factors lead consumers to green purchase and consumption intentions and what factors influence even a more dedicated form of responsible behaviour intentions – purchase and consumption reduction.

The **aim of this dissertation** is to determine how personal characteristics, green practices, society pressure and perceived product accessibility factors influence consumers intention to purchase and consume green products and intention to reduce overall purchase and consumption of products.

Research Object:

Consumers intentions to purchase and consume green products, “usual” products, and intentions for purchase and consumption reduction.

The tasks of the dissertation are as follows:

1) To delineate the concepts of “usual” consumption, over-consumption, green consumption and reduction of consumption, and to determine their interrelations;

2) To disclose how the key consumer behaviour theories can be applied for the analysis of green products purchase and consumption as well as anti-consumption;

3) To determine what factors and how influence consumers choice to purchase and consume green products, as well as to reduce products purchase and consumption;

4) To reveal the links between consumer personal green characteristics, green practices, society pressure and perceived product accessibility that determine consumer intention to purchase and consume green products, “usual” products, or to reduce purchase and consumption of a product in general.

5) Employing qualitative research methods to determine what consumers perceive as green consumption and what factors are the most important for their intentions to purchase and consume green products, and to reveal product categories, from which consumers most often purchase and consume green products.

6) Based on the empirical analysis to determine how personal characteristics, green practices, society pressure and perceived product accessibility factors influence consumer intention to purchase and consume green products.

7) Based on the empirical analysis to determine how personal characteristics, green practices, society pressure and perceived product accessibility factors influence consumer intention to reduce overall purchase and consumption of products.

Structure of the dissertation:

Various research methods were used to reach the goals of the dissertation. Literature analysis was carried out, also qualitative and quantitative research methods combined to test the developed research model. In Chapter 1, scientific literature analysis about the types of consumption is presented, including a scientific justification of the relationship between green consumption, “usual” consumption and consumption reduction. Chapter 2 presents consumer behaviour theories that were used by other researchers for the analysis of green consumption or anti-consumption. In chapter 3, based on scientific literature, the factors influencing either green consumption or consumption reduction are presented. Chapter 4 is dedicated to methodology of this dissertation, including a justification of the research model, a description of qualitative and quantitative research methods, instruments and respondents. Chapter 5 presents an analysis of qualitative research results according to different factors influencing green behaviour: consumption and consumption reduction processes and choices. Finally, Chapter 6 includes an analysis of quantitative research results using different statistical methods, as well as the

test of the research hypothesis.

This dissertation consists of 282 pages, 271 items in the literature list, 96 tables, 32 figures and 5 annexes.

Scientific novelty of the dissertation:

1) The intention to purchase and consume was analysed together with the intention of purchase and consumption reduction, and this allowed to find out how the same factors influence the two types of intentions. This is a conceptually innovative approach to the analysis of this issue.

2) The model and research instrument that integrates the two types of green behaviour intentions (green product consumption and reduction of consumption) has been developed and used in the study.

3) The use of the combination of qualitative and quantitative methods allowed to determine what specific factors influence the consumers intention to reduce products purchase and consumption; this was not possible in earlier studies that mainly included only qualitative analysis.

4) Green consumption and consumption reduction were analysed in one of the countries not classified as highest developed economies. Generally, the studies in these (emerging) economies are analysed less compared to the most advanced economies, and therefore the analysis filled in a significant research gap and presented contextual novelty.

5) The findings, based on the analysis, show that chosen personal characteristics have influence on the intention to reduce purchase and consumption, but do not have any influence on the intention to purchase and consume green products.

6) A justification was provided proving that society pressure has influence both on the intention to purchase and consume green products and on the intention to reduce purchase and consumption of any products. However, influence from close people impacts both green consumer behaviour options, whereas influence from advertising has effect only for the intention to purchase and consume green products. The importance of society's pressure was

justified for both green consumption and consumption reduction.

7) It was revealed that trust in green products characteristics factor was underestimated in previous studies of green consumer behaviour; the analysis showed that this factor had influence on all behavioural options: the intention to purchase and consume green products, the intention to purchase and consume “usual” products, and the intention to reduce purchase and consumption of any products.

Practical applications of the dissertation findings:

1) The results of this dissertation should prove to be valuable to both representatives of companies producing and selling green products, as well as to companies operating in markets related to the application of anti-consumption practices.

2) The results of this dissertation revealed that perceived product accessibility factors have the biggest impact on green products purchase and consumption; therefore, they should become a part of a very important trend for improving marketing strategies of companies producing and selling green products.

3) Companies operating in markets related to the application of anti-consumption practices (reuse, sharing) or organizations motivating purchase and consumption reduction should concentrate their marketing strategies on spreading information by using the “word of mouth” technique or public relations in order to develop the knowledge in separate individuals, and to encourage them to share their positive opinions about consumption reduction with their friends and relatives.

4) The developed research model could be applied (with minor changes) to various products categories and anti-consumption practises.

Dissemination of research results. This dissertations’ research results have been disseminated to the scientific community and broader audiences by means of scientific articles and presentations in scientific conferences (see

listed below).

Articles:

1) Kavaliauskė M. (2015). Green Consumption Versus Consumption Reduction: Theoretical Model Based On Theory Of Planned Behaviour. 6th International Scientific Conference “EMAC Regional 2015”, Vienna, Austria, article in conference proceedings, 7p.

2) Kavaliauskė M., Simanavičiūtė, E. (2015). Brand Avoidance: Relations Between Brand-Related Stimuli and Negative Emotions. ORGANIZATIONS AND MARKETS IN EMERGING ECONOMIES, vol. 6, no. 1 (11), p. 44 – 77.

3) Kavaliauskė M., Kočytė R. (2014). Sustainable tourism development in Neringa region“, International scientific conference “Economics and Management 2014” (ICEM 2014), Riga, Latvia. PROCEEDIA - SOCIAL AND BEHAVIOURAL SCIENCES 156, p. 208 – 212, ISSN: 1877-0428.

4) Kavaliauskė M., Stancikas, A. (2013). The importance of corporate social responsibility in Lithuania’s finance and telecommunication industries. International scientific conference „Contemporary Issues in Business, Management and Education 2013“, Vilnius, Lithuania, PROCEEDIA - SOCIAL AND BEHAVIOURAL SCIENCES 110, p. 796 – 804, ISSN: 1877-0428.4

5) Kavaliauskė M., Ubartaitė S. (2014). Ethical Behaviour: Factors Influencing Intention to Buy Organic Products in Lithuania. International scientific conference “Economics and Management 2013” (ICEM 2013), Kaunas, Lithuania. ECONOMICS AND MANAGEMENT, 19 (1), p. 72 – 83, ISSN 2029-9338 (ONLINE).

6) Kavaliauskė M., Vaskiv U., Šeimienė E. (2013). Consumers Perception of Lithuanian Eco-Label. International scientific conference “Economics and Management 2013” (ICEM 2013), Kaunas, Lithuania. ECONOMICS AND MANAGEMENT, 18 (4), p. 802 – 815, ISSN 2029-9338 (ONLINE).

7) Kavaliauskė M., Adomavičiūtė K. (2013). Development of Marketing Concept in the Context of Environment Protection and Social Responsibility. International scientific conference „Economic Transformations and Business Prospects“, Vilnius, Lithuania. EKONOMIKA, 92(3) supplement A, p. 233 - 244, ISSN 1392-1258.

8) Kavaliauskė M., Uždavinytė Ž. (2013). Environmental concern and intention to purchase from a socially responsible company: predictors and relations. 42nd International Scientific Conference “EMAC 2013”, Istanbul, Turkey, article in conference proceedings, 7p..

9) Kavaliauskė M., Chavkin, M., Zaukevičienė, I., Bernotavičiūtė, R., Urbonavicius S. (2012). Products elements as the basis for consumer choice: the case of food supplements. International scientific conference “Economics and Management 2012” (ICEM 2012). ECONOMICS AND MANAGEMENT, 17 (1), p. 257 – 263, ISSN 2029-9338 (ONLINE).

10) Kavaliauskė M., Urbonavicius S., Bikas E., Saikevičius D. (2012). Financial performance of innovative companies compared to traditional companies. 7th International Scientific Conference “Business and Management” 2012, Vilnius, Lithuania, article in conference proceedings, p. 380 – 385, ISSN 2029-4441 print / ISSN 2029-929X online.

11) Kavaliauskė M., Urbonavicius S., Baškys E.V. (2011). Attitudes of developers, experts and users towards eco-innovations. Conference proceedings of international scientific conference BMRA 2011 „Customer as Change Driving Force“, 7p., ISSN 2029-5448

Conferences presentations:

1) 6th International Scientific Conference “EMAC Regional 2015”, Vienna, Austria.

2) International scientific conference “Economics and Management 2014” (ICEM 2014), Riga, Latvia.

3) 42nd International Scientific Conference “EMAC 2013”, Istanbul, Turkey.

- 4) International scientific conference „Contemporary Issues in Business, Management and Education 2013“, Vilnius, Lithuania.
- 5) International scientific conference “Economics and Management 2013” (ICEM 2013), Kaunas, Lithuania.
- 6) International scientific conference „Economic Transformations and Business Prospects 2013“, Vilnius, Lithuania.
- 7) International scientific conference “Economics and Management 2012” (ICEM 2012), Tallinn, Estonia.
- 8) 7th International Scientific Conference “Business and Management” 2012, Vilnius, Lithuania.
- 9) Doctoral students seminar in 3rd International Scientific Conference "EMAC regional 2012", Belgrade, Serbia.
- 10) International scientific conference BMRA 2011 „Customer as Change Driving Force“, Vilnius, Lithuania.
- 11) European Innovation Summit 2011, European Parliament, Brussels, Belgium. Presentation: „Eco-innovations: challenges of interdisciplinary researches“, in conference section ”Europe’s Future Nobel Prize Winners - Role Models on Science & Technology Careers”.

1. Types of consumption

1.1. Concept of “usual” consumption in the context of over-consumption

Throughout the history, every person has been identified as a citizen in the context of some political reality. However, in modern western societies the term “citizen” was replaced by the term “consumer” (Varey, 2010). Currently consumption is a very important part of every person’s life, because through consumption people not only are able to fulfil their hedonic desires but also can self-actualize and even express their ideological opinions (Harrison et al, 2005). In every society, new consumption norms and trends constantly emerge and develop. As a result, the question regarding extensive consumption is raised more and more often, together with the need to distinguish what is “usual” consumption, what level of consumption can already be called overconsumption, and what are the alternatives.

Every society consumes such products and in such quantities that are in line with cultural norms and economic conditions of that particular society. However, “usual” (or “normal”) consumption is a very complicated and difficult to define concept, since the perception of the “norm” might significantly differ throughout different cultures and social classes. Social class is a very important aspect in determining the “good” form of consumption and lifestyle, as usually the “right consumption” is defined according to the middle-class life style, shopping habits and taste. This shows that one understanding cannot be accepted by the whole society (Lewis, Potter, 2011). We can distinguish huge differences between the life styles of Western societies and the emerging economies based on their way of living, values, and importance of consumption in everyday life. However, many emerging economies (like China or India) are aiming at the Western way of living, which changes the landscape of the “usual” (“normal”) consumption also in emerging economies (Humphery, 2013; Izberk-Bilgin, 2010).

Presently in Western societies consumption is perceived as the prevailing ideology and reality, even though it is only a commercial reality (Mikkonen et al, 2012). However, the current ideology views consumption as the source of happiness (Sklair, 2010). People perceive that only through consumption they can make changes in the society and create common well-being (Jubas, 2007). What is more, even in such worldwide used measures as Gross Domestic Product (GDP) life satisfaction is measured by income, wealth and prosperity, which means that life satisfaction can only be reached by acquiring products (Humphery, 2013, p. 42). However, according to Humphery (2013), wealth does not mean well-being if we dissociate well-being from The Western ideology (Humphery, 2013, p. 147). Mot and Plepys (2008) state that Gross Domestic Product is no longer suitable for measuring society's welfare as current society is slowly shifting from consumerism as the only form of person welfare and happiness. However, Mont and Plepys (2008) also point out that sustainable development cannot yet be implemented successfully in industrialized countries because of increasing levels of consumption. Therefore, they claim that by changing products to services (which means changing the process of the "usual" consumption) the solution for lowering negative environmental impact could be found.

Furthermore, intensive globalization is also affecting emerging countries (like China or India), where middle-class is growing rapidly and is intensively acquiring the Western consumption-intensive lifestyle, which leads to ecological challenges. This Western consumption-intensive lifestyle is heavily promoted by the media which stresses intensive consumption as an attribute of the modern nation (Anantharaman, 2014). Zhao et al (2014) found that a similar situation is in China, where people are getting more focused on consumption and place their individual interests before the society's interests. Biswas and Roy (2015) point out that increasing consumption in such developing countries as India created a lot of concerns for the environmental situation, therefore consumers in India are becoming interested in green products and green consumption. Izberk-Bilgin (2010) states that the current

economic and cultural globalization changes values, local businesses, and even the environmental situation in emerging countries, but these countries cannot be treated equally to the Western economically developed societies, as their economic, cultural, and social situation is different.

It is very important to analyse consumption practices in emerging economies separately from the Western societies in order to determine the differences and the trends of consumption practices. For example, such member states of the European Union as the Eastern European countries and the Baltic States experienced the highest increase in domestic material consumption during the ten-year period (2000 to 2011). While Estonia and Lithuania increased their consumption by more than 50 %, Romania, on the other hand, more than doubled the amount of materials used per capita over the same period (Sustainable development in the European Union, 2013). Similarly, according to Hubacek et al (2007), China and India are the best examples of emerging economies that aim for the living standards of the Western societies. Populations in these two countries are rapidly increasing, while at the same time their economic situation is getting better and people are seeking a lifestyle which gives access to healthy food, comfortable living environment, well-developed health care, etc. (Hubacek et al, 2007).

However, the increasing amount of goods every person purchases raises a lifestyle problem, because disposition time for goods is short, good quality is no longer valuable, amount of waste due to extensive consumption is huge and a person is forced to choose unsustainable forms of consumption (Schor, 2008). In addition, the turnover of goods is so rapid that personal ability to evaluate the impact and contribution to the way of living before purchasing any goods is very limited (Featherstone, 2011). Therefore, such consumerism led to the disintegration of local communities and a high level of social isolation. People no longer trust each other, therefore they prefer consumption instead of social life (Humphery, 2013, p. 46). Also due to intensive work, people neglect their families, friends and replace the loss of these relationships by consumption (Humphery, 2013, p. 167). Here it is very important to stress the

difference between “consumption” and “consumerism”, as consumption is defined as using an object regardless of any ideological or economic context, whereas consumerism is defined as consuming within a particular social or political system (Gabriel, Lang, 2006).

Thus, intensive consumption and self-actualization through consumption led to the current situation where “usual” consumption in the Western societies can objectively be called overconsumption. Ehrlich and Ehrlich (2004) define overconsumption by stating that overconsumption means acquisition of goods that go beyond the basic needs and reasonable comfort, stressing the negative ecological aspect of it. Princen (2001) supports this definition by stating that overconsumption means usage of resources that exceeds the basic needs of life and has negative ecological impact, but distinguishes overconsumption from mis-consumption, which means taking wrong decisions in personal life that lead to poor well-being (like stress, overwork, etc.)

So, overconsumption in the Western countries is motivated by decreasing household savings and increasing household debts, which all are dedicated to immediate consumption (Humphery, 2013, p. 33). In addition, overconsumption in the Western economies emerged due to over-supply and purposed for supersizing of products (like food packaging, food plates, etc.) (Probyn, 2011). Overconsumption is based on over-valuation of material pleasure and monetary status, with lack of care for personal and social consequences of one’s actions. In addition to that, overconsumption also causes environmental and personal health damage (Humphery, 2013, p. 33). However, overconsumption cannot be evaluated only from the ecological point of view as it has deep socio-cultural meaning expressed with hyper-consumption, which has already been destroying the social health of the society for several generations (Humphery, 2013, p. 27). A very good example of overconsumption is provided by De Graaf et al (2005), stating that in the USA there are more shopping malls than schools, and on average US citizens spend 6 hours a week shopping and only forty minutes playing with their kids.

What is more, ecological measures of overconsumption are still unclear and the definition of sustainability is controversial. Sustainability has to be implemented by environmentally improving production and distribution, but in this case it has no connection with the consumption level (Humphery, 2013, p. 31). Therefore, it is obvious that products from sustainable producers or distributors can still be overconsumed.

Another very important aspect that influences overconsumption is advertising, which shapes all consumption choices and levels (Humphery, 2013). Consumers are shaped by marketing messages and their consumption is driven by advertising and constant product innovation that also affects consumers' psychological state and changes their social norms. People are convinced by advertising that their sole identity is being a consumer. In order to consume at the level that advertising is enforcing, people have to engage in longer working hours, so that they can maintain the income level necessary for overconsumption. People begin to live in "false reality", where all their life is based on consumption. It does not mean that people lose the ability to think critically and to evaluate what they are buying, as the biggest problem is not what consumers are buying, but that they are buying far too much (Humphery, 2013). Consumers' consciousness is driven by the consumerist culture, therefore consumers' attitudes, beliefs, and values are already formed according to it (Humphery, 2013). However, Humphery (2013) raises the idea that consumption does not necessarily show who we are or what our values are, but it can be just a communication form, which can say something about a particular person, show his or her relations with others, but, eventually, it is not the only form of self-expression.

Current criticism of consumerism usually involves the issue of environmental consequences, but it also takes a broader social, cultural, and emotional scope, questioning the individual sense of well-being and happiness, overwork, cultural homogenization, life fragmentation, and loss of social relationships. The number of critics has increased during the downturn of economies during the period of 2008-2009, as the problems caused by over-

consumption became obvious and mostly affected the middle-class consumers (Humphery, 2011). The criticism of consumerism and over-consumption comes not from only scientific scholars, but also includes various political groups and networks from environmental organizations and consumer associations to small specific groups, short term initiatives. These anti-consumerism initiatives cover the following: advocacy of ethical consumption, resistance to cultural jamming, life style politics of downshifting, slow living and voluntary simplicity, creation alternative economic practises, development of sustainable communities. For implementing anti-consumerism initiatives changes in legislation, environmental taxes, and control of advertising are used (Humphery, 2011).

However, Barnett et al (2005) state that despite the current overconsumption, the “usual” consumers are now also actively affected by questions of “care, solidarity and collective concern” in their everyday shopping. Gabriel and Lang indicated four consumer waves, where the last one represented “alternative consumerism”, which was the reason for ethical consumption to become a powerful force (Gabriel, Lang, 2006). Therefore, responsible consumption is no longer associated with the hippie culture, as it is entering the lifestyle and shopping habits of the “usual” consumers (Lewis, Potter, 2011).

In general, it can be stated that consumption in the Western societies has two distinctive features: a high level of consumption, which is even leading to overconsumption; and initiatives of responsible consumption, shaped by environmental and social consciousness. Both of these tendencies are highly influenced by advertising and society, which will be analysed in further chapters of this dissertation.

1.2. Concepts of green and ethical consumption

The evolution of green consumer behaviour over the time very precisely illustrates the dynamics of understanding of “usual consumption”, as during

past four decades “green” consumer behaviour has evolved (Leonidou, Leonidou, 2011) primarily from the ecological and environmental consumer behaviour (Peattie, Crane, 2005). Therefore, in the 1970s ecological consumer behaviour was still perceived as marginal by the general society. However, growing fears linked to globalization led to attempts to operationalize environmentalist concepts, while today they are now in the process of entering into all spheres of society through sustainable consumption (Amine, Gicquel, 2011).

In the modern consumer society, an ecological consumer concept has emerged as an opposite to the hedonistic consumer concept (Moisander, 2007). Currently, the views on environmentally and socially oriented consumption range significantly and each of them should be discussed in more detail. The most radical view on environmentally and socially oriented consumption emphasises the need to reduce consumption (i.e. downshifting material and energy intensive consumption) (Cherrier et al, 2011; Lee et al, 2009; Sandikci, Ekici, 2009; Iyer, Muncy, 2009; Garner, 2000; Dryzek, 1997). However, consumption reduction and its relation to green and ethical consumption will be discussed in more detail in chapters 1.3 and 1.4. Whereas other types of environmentally and socially oriented consumption cover ecological/organic, green, ethical, socially orientated, and sustainable consumption.

Ecological/organic consumption

Usually in literature and in marketing communication ecological products are called “organic”, especially such categories as food and cosmetics are named as organic. Organic food, according to Davies et al (1995), is grown in a natural way and produced without pesticides, chemicals, fertilizers, and genetically modified organisms. Michaelidou and Hassan (2008) who state that “organic” means not food characteristics, but the way it was produced, confirm this description. According to Winter and Davis (2006), organic production is determined as an ecological production system which fosters biological diversity, minimal damage to environment, and the aim to sustain ecological balance.

Currently organic food in some regions of the world (for example, California, USA) is not any longer an alternative but rather the mainstream, as large supermarket chains and restaurants offer organic food (Probyn, 2011). In addition, compared with the traditional buyers, customers consuming organic products are more likely to engage in environmental activities: buy environmentally friendly, ethical, fair trade products and avoid buying non-ethical products (Honkanen et al, 2006; McEachern, McClean, 2002; Carrigan, Attalla, 2001). Therefore, when analysing green or ethical consumption, “organic” is just one of the aspects of broader consumption understanding.

Green consumption

Green consumption, which is currently becoming closer to the “usual” consumption, includes both aspects - natural (avoiding materials from endangered plants or animal species, avoiding products harmful to health) and environmental (avoiding products that pollute the environment, generate large amounts of waste, etc.) (Finisterra do Paço, Raposo, 2008; Shrum et al, 1995).

In the case of green consumption, scientist began to examine not only consumer behaviour before or after consumption, but also the consumption and buying habits. What is more, they did not limit the research to the social and demographic characteristics of green consumers (Jansson et al, 2010; Barber et al, 2009; Paco, Raposo, 2009; Lee, 2008; Mostafa, 2007; Pickett-Baker, Ozaki 2008; Diamantopoulos et al, 2003; Zelezny et al, 2000; Agarwal, 2000; Vlosky, Vlosky, 1999), but rather extended research into consumer values, skills, and opportunities domain (Taberbero et al, 2011; Goldstein et al, 2008; Cornelissena et al, 2008; Jimenez, Yang, 2008; Moisander, 2007; Chyong et al, 2006; Tanner, Kast, 2003; Follows, Jobber, 2000, Stern, 2000). Also some models of green consumers segmentation were developed (D'Souza et al, 2007; Roper, 2002).

Ethical consumption

In recent years ethical consumption as a term has been getting very

popular due to the rise of “organic” and “green” products and popularization of “Fair Trade” (Harrison et al, 2005). But such ethical consumption as “Fair Trade” is very limited and narrow as it regulates only several issues, such as relationships between producers and distributors or quality issues, but leaves many important aspects aside (Dolan, 2008).

In general, ethical consumption is very closely related to “good citizenship”. It shifts the focus from an individual informed consumer to networks and organizations which shape consumers as good citizens (Lewis, Potter, 2011). In addition, ethical consumption has a very strong political frame, questioning the existing social and economic structures, therefore it should at least be considered as changing the style of living (Lewis, Potter, 2011). What is more, ethical consumption has to deal with both well-being of the planet and self-concern. Therefore, in the case of food consumption the definition of what is “good” and what is “bad” food is very subjective, because we have to take into account not only its taste, nutritional value, visual appearance, suitability for a diet, but also ethics, relations between this food’s consumers, producers and distributors. However, consumers still have a very limited amount of information about the origin of the food, its composition, and distribution process, so here a space for advertising and branding emerges (Coles, Crang, 2011).

In general, ethical consumption by its essence is much slower than conventional consumption; also, it requires consumers to negotiate between competing factors such as cost, convenience, and environmental outcomes (Parkins, Craig, 2011).

Socially responsible consumption

Nowadays green consumption is even more extended to the concept of social responsibility. The socially responsible consumerism can be defined as “the conscious and deliberate choice to make certain consumption choices based on personal and moral beliefs” (Devinney et al, 2006; p. 3). According to it, a socially responsible consumer is defined as a consumer who thinks about

public consequences while purchasing and tries to bring social change (Lantos, 2002). Mohr et al (2001) define a socially responsible consumer as a person basing his or her acquisition, usage and disposition of products on a desire to minimize or eliminate any harmful effects and maximize the beneficial impact on society in the long run. Follows and Jobber (2000) indicate that a socially responsible consumer evaluates the impact of product use on the society before he or she reaches the purchasing decision.

Researchers typically distinguish two main parts of socially responsible consumption: ethical and green consumption (Paek, Nelson, 2009), since through consumption choices it includes both social and environmental concerns (François-Lecompte, 2005). It is possible to say that environmental dimension and societal dimension compose socially responsible consumption (Roberts, 1995) and reflect consumer values in relation to the natural, environmental, social, and economic aspects.

Though ethical and green consumers have many similarities (Connolly, Shaw, 2006), the main difference is in the focus on societal versus environmental aspect. A green consumer avoids products that are dangerous for health, cause damage to the environment, influence unnecessary waste, are produced using rare materials (Finisterra do Paço, Raposo; 2008; Shrum et al, 1995; Elkington, Hailes, 1989), while an ethical consumer follows these principles, but is also concerned about the people-related aspect of manufacturing, use and disposal (Strong, 1996).

Sustainable consumption

Sustainability covers a number of areas and becomes a prevailing idea of environmental, economic, and social progress and equity, all within the limits of the world's natural resources and without a negative impact on future generations (Dahlstrom, 2011; Bridges, Bryce, 2008; Peattie, 2001). Green products make a positive impact on product development, manufacturing and other product life cycle stages, but highlighting the importance of the social aspect and a long- term approach allows for products to be called sustainable

(Ottman, 2011). Sustainable consumption has a broader approach, evaluates more factors and the footprint of consumption in comparison to ethical consumption, which tends to be very limited because of the division of all products to good (ethical) and bad (unethical) (Starr, 2011).

If early green movements advocated for broad scale social change through collective action (Gabriel, Lang, 2006; Jamison, 2001), the new discourse on sustainable consumption defines consumers as goal-oriented individuals and influential market actors who use their purchasing power to bring social change by taking into account the public environmental consequences of their private consumption (Moisander, 2001). Therefore, collective consumption impact is as important as the effect of consumption of every individual.

Currently, it is observed that consumers are becoming sophisticated enough to select sustainable products. However, due to the complexity of sustainable products consumption, such products are common primarily among low involvement goods. This reveals that sustainable consumption has a long-term development perspective in the future (Jones et al, 2008).

It can be concluded that there are many different reasons why consumers are interested in green, ethical, socially responsible, and sustainable activities. In addition, it is important to point out that these consumption practises are complementary to each other (Littler, 2011). So the terms environmentally responsible, green, ethical, socially responsible, sustainable consumption or even anti-consumption cover many forms of practices, such as (Littler, 2011; Connolly, Shaw, 2006; Barr, Gilg, 2006):

- Purchasing and consuming organic products (food and other);
- Purchasing and consuming environmental or green products (solar panels, recycled paper);
- Purchasing and consuming fair trade products;
- Purchasing and consuming non-genetically modified products;
- Being vegetarian;

- Popularizing local products (Italian “Slow food”, local vegetable box schemes);
- Purchasing ethical investment products;
- Recycling and composting;
- Saving natural resources;
- Consuming less (downshifting);
- Implementing voluntary simplicity in everyday life (choosing a simpler life style);
- Participating in consumer boycotts (of unethical brands);
- Participating in consumer activism movements (consumers campaigns against misleading marketing);
- Supporting cause-related marketing (like donating small amounts of profits from the product to charity).

However, even more classifications of green consumer behaviour exist in scientific literature. For example, Barr and Gilg (2006) distinguished three types of environmental activities: purchasing behaviour (when people choose organic food, buy from local producers, buy products from recycled materials); daily activities related to home life habits (saving electricity, water, heat, etc.); and recycling activities (including donations). Whereas, Gilg et al (2005) in their research segregated four types of consumers in regard to their green behaviour:

1) Committed environmentalists – composting their waste, buying sustainably, buying from local produce and from local stores, but still only occasionally buying organic and fair-trade products.

2) Mainstream environmentalists – buying sustainably, buying local produce and from local stores, but rarely buying organic and fair-trade products; also not that eager to compost their waste.

3) Occasional environmentalists – only rarely buying sustainably or buying local produce and from local stores, almost never buying organic and fair-trade products and never composting.

4) Non-environmentalists – those who are not involved in any green purchasing or environmentally friendly actions.

Therefore, it can be concluded that although different definitions of environmentally friendly, green, ethical, socially responsible and sustainable behaviour and consumption exist and even though these behaviour practises have a lot in common, there are still many differences among them and they depend on the context they are used in. However, these behaviour practises consist not only of consumption, but of other activities as well.

Green consumption and over-consumption

The different practises described previously in this chapter cannot be treated as equally ethical (Littler, 2011). For example, buying ten organic t-shirts is an opposite life style practise compared to reduction of consumption. In the first case, the consumer buys as much many new clothes as usual, only he or she is concerned about the environment or health issues, therefore he or she chooses organic clothing instead. Nevertheless, in such a case the consumer does not take into account that his or her high level of consumption is still harmful to the environment and society, and thus still tends to overconsume, only chooses less harmful products. A similar example could be a consumer who lives in France, but buys organic wine from Chile or Australia. This choice is less harmful to the environment compared to the traditional one, but the distance the product has to travel to reach the consumer still makes an impact on the environment due to CO₂ emission during transportation, which could have been avoided if the consumer had chosen a local product or hadn't bought any wine at all.

Therefore, consuming less might lead to the reduction of overconsumption practises, which means that consumers have to refuse some products or services. However, many authors revealed that green consumption does not lead to simplification of consumption practices because the assortment of green products offered by various companies is already very wide, which means that consumers perceive green consumption as satisfying

their hedonic needs (Cherrier et al, 2011; Etzioni, 2003). Soper (2004) introduced a new term “alternative hedonism”, which means that consumers can still enjoy “good life” through consumption, only the consumption in such case is influenced by consumer concerns about environmental sustainability or fair-trade. People rethink what “good life” is when introduced to green consumption practises, which means choosing green products, reducing by-products of consumption (waste, impact on the environment), but still maintain the level of consumption that satisfies their hedonic needs. This leads to the fact that consumption of green products does not lead to sustainability, as consumers can maintain their level of consumption, just feel better by consuming products that are less harmful. However, in such cases the disadvantages that overconsumption creates still remain.

What is more, some products that are introduced to the market as green or ethical, raise the question about them actually being such. For example, ethical bottled water is a very ambiguous product, as bottled water market currently faces huge criticism because it not only sells water in many Western countries where simple tap water is often of very good quality, but also pollutes the environment with plastic bottles. Thus such thing as ethical bottled water raises the question if it can be called ethical at all, even though a share of its profits is dedicated to help solve some environmental problems or is donated to a charity (Potter, 2011). Another ambiguous product is ethical or organic wine, because such wine is produced only in quite a few countries of the world, thus it has to travel many kilometres to reach its buyer. In addition, it has issues with production methods, water safety and climate change. Finally, it touches the issue of alcohol consumption. Therefore, to consider wine to be an organic and, in particular, an ethical product in the context of sustainability is very debatable (Starr, 2011).

These examples lead to the idea that even though green consumption is dedicated to the protection of the environment and sustainability, it might not lead to general reduction of consumption because consumers are not willing to lose satisfaction in consumption as such. Therefore, reduction of consumption

emerges as one more form of behaviour allowing to express environmental values, but motivated by different motives compared to green consumption and will be discussed in following chapter of this dissertation.

Green marketing

In 1960s, the environmental movement started to emerge in the whole world together with huge concerns about the future of the environment and society. People's attitude towards the planet radically changed. If previously people were conscious about the nature because they were afraid to destroy the planet, in the 1960s they understood that the planet would always exist, but the challenge is to maintain the same living standards of the society (Ottman, 2011). In this context of the changing society, the need for evolution of marketing definition emerged (Varey, 2010).

In the seventies consumers were worried only about a narrow scope of ecological problems: air pollution, oil spills, synthetic pesticide use, and resource scarcity, which were only relevant to automotive, chemical and oil industries. However, even in these industries environmentally oriented marketing was perceived as an additional source of cost and only a few companies recognized eco-marketing as a part of their marketing strategy (Peattie, 2001). Therefore, the amount of concerned consumers was too insignificant for companies to react to emerging deviance from "usual" consumption, thus the first ecological / environmental marketing manifestations were only short-term reactive responses to consumers' sentiments and emerging environmental beliefs (Hartmann, Ibanez, 2006). Only in the last decade of the twentieth century, when the amount of environmentally concerned consumers increased significantly, the ecological / environmental marketing started to become conscious and purposeful activities directed towards consumers, and was called "green marketing" (Leonidou, Leonidou, 2010).

During the last 50 years the concept of marketing in the context of postmodernism and green movement has experienced many changes, new

definitions of marketing were formed, many of which are still used today (like ecological, environmental, green, socially responsible, ethical and sustainable marketing). However, among different authors and in the society different marketing concepts are used as equal or in incorrect context, which causes quite significant confusion in academic and popular literature, as every marketing concept has its meaning and content (Kavaliauskė, Adomavičiūtė, 2013).

Therefore, types of ecological, environmental, green, ethical, socially responsible, and sustainable marketing can be defined and distinguished one from each other by using 6 essential aspects: nature, environment, social justice, economic, innovative effect and holistic approach (Kavaliauskė, Adomavičiūtė, 2013). The analysis of scientific literature suggests that ecological marketing just emphasizes the ecological attributes of goods and services. At the same time, environmental marketing stresses the impact of goods and services on the environment and natural problem solving. Green marketing distinguishes ecological, economic and innovative attributes of the goods and services. Meanwhile, ethical marketing primarily emphasizes social justice dimension, covering the natural and economic effects. Socially responsible marketing combines green and ethical marketing features, but does not focus on the innovative aspect. Sustainable marketing includes nature, environment, social justice, economic, and innovation aspects and integrates all these aspects into a long-term holistic approach, addressing present and future well-being of consumers and organizations (Kavaliauskė, Adomavičiūtė, 2013).

Sustainable marketing includes socially responsible and environmental marketing aspects and takes responsibility for satisfaction of the consumers' and businesses' current and future needs by ensuring the long-term market for the product (Ottman, 2011). The aim of sustainable marketing is to create a well-functioning system of consumers, businesses, public institutions and other organizations that work together to ensure that marketing activities are social- and environmental-oriented, and that all the parties receive economic benefit (Kotler, Armstrong, 2012).

However, everyday life shows that marketing oriented towards green and ethical products is not always as positively targeted as described by Ottman (2011) and Kotler with Armstrong (2012). Now corporations influence all types of consumption, as these corporations produce organic/green products and later advertise them. So here the problem of greenwashing emerges, as corporations are quite free to use terms “organic” and especially “green” due to weak legal regulations. In addition, companies freely use contradicting advertising to meet their needs and goals by adapting it to the essence of their products (e. g. plastic versus wooden products and similar). Companies produce products in the most convenient locations, in such way abandon agriculture and crafts in many regions, and later through advertising convince consumers about the closeness of the first-world consumers to the producers and farmers outside the first world and homogenize consumption in most of the world (Lewis, Potter, 2011). Companies go even further by declaring corporate social responsibility, but the actions they take also vary significantly (from community involvement to charity) and cannot be evaluated objectively, as corporate social responsibility is declarative and selective and does not mean sincere corporate social accountability (Littler, 2011).

In conclusion, it can be stated that consumption plays a very important role in every person’s life as now most of the people identify themselves firstly as consumers. This shift in people identity was mostly caused by companies, which tried to expand their market share and used intensive advertising or other forms of society pressure. As an alternative to consumption and actions of the companies, sustainability in consumption emerged. However, only at the beginning forms of sustainable consumption were opposite to usual consumption practises, as currently green consumption is entering the everyday life of average consumer and thus becoming “usual”. Therefore, current high levels of consumption are not decreasing, only the products are being changed into green alternatives. This phenomenon led to the emergence of alternative living and consumption practises, such as reduction of consumption or anti-

consumption in general, which will be discussed in the following chapters of this dissertation.

1.3. Concept of anti-consumption and reduction of consumption

Concept of deviance

In every culture any behaviour that is not considered as “usual” behaviour, is perceived as being “deviant”. At the beginning researchers described deviant consumer behaviour as related to crime and poverty (Fullerton, Punj, 1993), however, later the definition was extended to compulsive behaviour and impulsive buying (Moschis, Cox, 1989). And still the understanding of deviant consumer behaviour remained quite narrow.

Deviant consumer behaviour (in relation to the norm) is quite complex, because it is aimed at various objects and based on different reasons why consumption is reduced or stopped. There are three major types of the so-called atypical (not “usual”) consumer behaviour: deviant, resistant and anti-consumption. Therefore, Fowler (2007) extended the understanding of the deviant consumer behaviour and defined that deviance in consumption is when it is not considered “usual” by the general society to which a particular person belongs.

Durkheim (2004) developed an explanation of the terms “usual” and “deviant” by opposing them, where “usual” means usual and acceptable to the most of individuals, while “deviant” means unusual, acceptable only for a small number of people and limited in time. Such social groups as brand communities and specific consumption subcultures could be the examples of deviant consumer behaviour (Amine, Gicquel, 2011). Therefore, some forms of consumption deviance are related to consumer resistance and anti-consumption, so deviant acts may be perceived as readapting or changing the prevailing norms rather than adapting to them (Amine, Gicquel, 2011).

Quite a new approach in consumer behaviour is the way particular

people engage in deviant consumer behaviour because they aim to modify society's cultural structure in order to improve it according to their beliefs (Amine, Gicquel, 2011). Therefore, the concept of "norm" changes over the time due to progress and evolution of beliefs, politics, and social group values (Amine, Gicquel, 2011).

Compared to "usual" consumption, deviance might be considered to be not only overconsumption, as analysed in chapter 1.1., or green, ethical consumption analysed in chapter 1.2, but also consumer resistance and reduction of consumption which will be analysed in this chapter.

Concept of resistance

Cherrier (2007) states that the question about the purpose of life and the role of material goods was debated already many centuries ago even by the most prominent Greek philosophers, however, until 1970s a voluntary simplification of life was mostly based on religious beliefs, whereas after 1970s religious beliefs were replaced by ecological sensitivity. Therefore, simpler living now is expressed as consuming less and possessing less, while replacing these with harmonious lifestyle, work, and good relationships with family members, friends, community, etc. Also, according to Maniates (2002), simple living movement is very individualistic. Studies on consumer resistance show that currently there is an uprising of various ideological ideas such as freedom of expression, need for autonomy, the will to act independently and being a smart customer (Roux, 2007), which leads to the conclusion that resistant consumer behaviour always has certain subjectively justified reasons.

One possible way to classify resistant consumer behaviour is according to its orientation: such consumer behaviour can be situated at a micro-social level (e.g. company-customer relation) and at a macro-social level (e.g. relationship with the system/society) (Amine, Gicquel, 2011). Based on this classification Roux (2007) categorized resistant consumer behaviour into three types, such as behaviour opposed to:

- 1) Firms (micro-level)

- 2) Market ideology (macro-level)
- 3) Consumer culture/materialist ideology (macro-level)

At the micro level consumer either chooses to boycott products or services of those companies whose activities he or she considers immoral, or even chooses vengeful behaviour by shoplifting, vandalism, or negative word-of-mouth. At macro level, when consumers choose to oppose market ideology, such opposition can be orientated towards marketing activities, like ad busting, when consumers deface advertising sites and media, or search for alternative modes of exchange, when consumers acquire second-hand products. Finally, when consumers choose at macro level to escape the consumer culture or materialism, it can be done by downshifting, when consumption level is intentionally reduced to have more free time and less work, or by voluntary simplification, when consumption is reduced for spiritual or ethical reasons (Roux, 2007). Anti-consumption behaviours imply control of consumption for the consumption practices, self-image, and individual values to incorporate awareness of the current situation and its future projection. Therefore, Cherrier (2009) describes resistance as both consumer activity and attitude; whereas Amine and Gicquel (2011) define anti-consumption as philosophy of life, more of a lifestyle than just a reaction to corporate oppression.

This difficulty in distinguishing consumers' resistance from anti-consumption rises largely from the fact that they overlap at least partially by expressing quite similar positions towards the consumer culture. In addition, each of these categories determine the position of individuals in relation to an established standard of the society. However, consumer resistance is more oriented to opposing certain objects or ideas with defined actions, whereas anti-consumption is oriented to self-control, avoidance, and reduction in general (Amine, Gicquel, 2011).

Concept of anti-consumption

According to Cherrier et al (2011), non-consumption can be classified in three ways (3 I's): "intentional non-consumption", resulting from a decision

not to consume something bearing an exact intention in mind, “incidental non-consumption”, resulting from choosing a preferred alternative which leads to non-consumption of other similar alternatives, and “ineligible non-consumption” that results when due to specific reasons a person cannot act as a consumer of a particular product (Cherrier et al, 2011). When anti-consumption is analysed, the first approach of Cherrier (2009) classification of non-consumption - intentional non-consumption - should be applied.

Lee et al (2009a) state that since anti-consumption means “against consumption”, it incorporates a rejection of the entire consumption process, including acquisition, usage, and disposal. Through consumption people can express their values, ideas, beliefs, and identity, and just the same can be expressed with anti-consumption (Cherrier, Murray, 2007). Cherrier et al (2011) state that the practice of non-consumption serves as an identity marker associated with perceived ideal of being a “good”, desirable person. What is more, sustainable non-consumption activities are made possible through the process of personal and environmental concerns integration into consumer personal lifestyle. Bettany and Kerrane (2011) suggest that a person interested in anti-consumption should also be resistant, focused on natural things and social individualization, whereas a consumer opposite to an anti-consumer would focus on unnatural things and domination.

However, many actions of non-consumption are so well integrated into consumers’ everyday life that they become almost subjectively ordinary actions for consumers (for example: not using microwaves or air conditioners, reducing the number of car trips to a minimum, and not using the washing machine except for full loads, turning the lights off, etc.) (Cherrier et al, 2011).

Cherrier et al (2011) presented the summarized differences between anti-consumption, intentional non-consumption and consumer resistance. Consumer resistance is the oldest and the most objective approach based on the customer values, because consumer resistance is orientated against specific brand, company, or culture with quite well justified reasons of such behaviour. Whereas intentional non-consumption is an approach that is more modern and

also based on the values, but less objective than consumer resistance, because it is oriented towards the expression of certain values and avoidance of being identified with those consumers, who express undesired consumption behaviour. Finally, anti-consumption is the postmodern approach that is subjective and context-dependant due to the fact of being based on various personal concerns that cover both private and social aspects.

Various environmental organizations, consumers associations, centres of research and information, alternative living networks, like “Greenpeace”, “Slow Food”, “Adbusters”, “Fair Trade Federation” and others, are acting globally as political groups against Western consumerism and overconsumption (Humphery, 2013). However, anti-consumerism as such has one essential problem, as it is mainly focused on individuals and changes that each individual has to make in his life through sustainable consumer behaviour and life style change. Even though initiatives and influence might come from a group or organization a person depends on, the final changes in life are made by the individual only. There still exist people who are eager to seek for an alternative life and their numbers are growing (Humphery, 2013), even though they understand that in order to achieve true sustainability they will have to sacrifice many daily conveniences, like mobile phones, global tourism, etc. Such is the cost of slower and simpler living – to lose some part of the offerings of modern life (Humphery, 2013). In addition, Humphery (2013), similarly to Stern and Dietz (1994), states that consumption should be in line with three aspects – oneself, others and nature.

It can be concluded that anti-consumption is based on consumers self-interested and socio-environmental motivations, therefore, it is very subjective and dependent on situation of the consumer (Lee et al, 2009a; Sandikci and Ekici, 2009; Iyer and Muncy, 2009), but it always has a reason. This reason has to be very strong and motivated in order for consumers to abandon other factors important for consumption (price, quality, availability) and choose some other normative framework which could influence their anti-consumption decisions (Cherrier et al, 2011). Cherrier et al determine (2011) that intentional

non-consumption can be understood as an act of consumers' resistance against other careless consumers, as well as an act of anti-consumption motivated by the subjectivity of the consumer. In general, the values that form the normative framework of contemporary Western anti-consumerisms are individualism, moral choice, self-fulfilment, happiness, existential authenticity, spiritual balance, and eco-social equilibrium (Humphery, 2013).

Types of anti-consumption

Such consumption behaviour practices as reduction of consumption, reuse or sharing of the products, as well as self-producing (growing, making) products are also the forms of anti-consumption practices.

Reduction of consumption

Anti-consumption for sustainability in addition to rejecting particular products, brands, or consumption activities also incorporates the practices of reduction. Reduction is a form of anti-consumption where the usage of particular products, brands, or consumption activities is significantly minimized (Black, Cherrier, 2010). It is obvious that green consumption means changing "usual" products to "green" alternatives, but it does not mean reduction of the consumption. Whereas consumers now realize that intensive consumption, often called "over-consumption", is harmful both for the society and for the environment (Albinsson et al, 2010), therefore reduction of the consumption in general is the way to express people's social and environmental concerns.

However, Cherrier (2007) states that solely social and environmental motives are not enough to make a person reduce his or her consumption, because voluntary simplification of consumption practices and the choice of anti-consumption must be also driven by consumers values, beliefs and attitudes, which have to be in harmony with a person's identity. Also Cherrier (2007) defines anti-consumers not only as being very much interested in self-expression, but also as people who tend to be a part of certain group of people

who accept this form of self-expression.

Voluntary simplification of consumption, which means reducing of consumption and disposition of certain goods, is inspired by five motives (Ballantine, Creery, 2010; Craig-Lees, Hill, 2002):

- 1) freedom of choice to lead a simpler life;
- 2) reduction in material consumption;
- 3) access to resources like wealth, education and unique skills which can be traded for a higher income;
- 4) control and personal fulfilment;
- 5) such values as humanism, self-determination, environmentalism, spirituality and self-development.

Etzioni (2003) and Schor (1999) (Table 1) both classify simplicity in consumption and provide explanations of voluntary simplicity and downshifting, although their explanations differ slightly.

Table 1. Classification of reduction of consumption (Etzioni, 2003; Schor, 1999)

	Etzioni (2003)	Schor (1999)
Downshifting	The most moderate form of simplification, when consumption level is reduced to a limited degree, but often as a form of social trend.	Conscious decision to achieve work-life balance and therefore place less emphasis on consumption.
Voluntary simplification	Strong form of simplification, not only reduction of consumption, but also giving up of income and socio-economic status to achieve non-material satisfaction.	More politicized form of downshifting.
Holistic simplification	The strongest form of simplification, when the whole life style, philosophy of existence is changed to achieve simple living.	

Elgin (1993) also adds that voluntary simplification by its nature – a balance between the material and the spiritual, a contrast of material progress – is ecological living, and it is not possible to speak about voluntary

simplification without taking into consideration ecological behaviour.

The actions that voluntary simplifiers take can be very different, but the most often mentioned are the following: recycling (Iyer, Muncy, 2009; Huneke, 2005; Leonard-Barton, 1981), purchasing and consuming organic food (Iyer, Muncy, 2009; Huneke, 2005; Leonard-Barton, 1981), purchasing goods made from recycled materials (Iyer, Muncy, 2009), making presents instead of buying them (Close, Zinkhan, 2009; Huneke, 2005; Leonard-Barton, 1981), growing vegetables and fruits by oneself (Schreurs et al, 2012; Wakefield et al, 2007; Huneke, 2005; Holland, 2004; Ferries, 2001), avoiding impulse purchases (Huneke, 2005). We can see that many of these practises are in line with environmentally conscious behaviour, so green consumption can really make changes in the world of overconsumption if it is combined with anti-consumption practises such as simplification of life and reduction of consumption (Harrison, et al 2005). Humphery (2013) explains that simplicity in consumption by its essence can be very different, as light forms of simplification (like “Slow Food” movement) do not reject hedonism of consumption, whereas voluntarily simplified living suggests searching for joy and social connections elsewhere (p. 165).

This above mentioned classification of voluntary simplification motives and actions (Etzioni, 2003; Schor, 1999) taken by voluntary simplifiers reveals that reduction of consumption can also be motivated by environmental values and actions, which leads to the conclusion that anti-consumption can be an alternative form of behaviour to green consumption, as it is motivated by similar values. Ballantine and Creery’s (2010) findings, which reveal that consumption decisions of voluntary simplifiers are driven by such factors as environmental concerns, product quality, shared ownership and self-sufficiency, can support this statement. Environmental concerns lead to the fact that voluntary simplifiers, based on their care for environment, search for alternative ways of consumption by buying products of higher quality, not disposing them often, by sharing necessary products / goods with other people or trying to use second hand products so that other consumers would not need

to dispose of them, also by trying to repair all the products and finally using everything with high efficiency to limit the amount of waste and the need for new purchases.

Reuse

One more form of anti-consumption in addition to rejection and reduction is reusing (Lee et al, 2009a). Reusing is against all the three processes that define consumption: acquisition, usage, and disposal (Cherrier, 2009).

Buying used goods, especially clothes for children is getting common among ethically conscious middle class consumers, who also tend to buy in farmers' markets and consume organic food. The advantage these consumers see in buying used goods is buying for less, not polluting environment with additional waste and saving resources necessary for making new products (Franklin, 2011). Gregson and Crewe (2003) add that reuse of things does not mean a decrease of market as such, because products for reuse are still sold and bought several times which still creates turnover in economy. In addition, consumers view buying second hand products, especially in specific flea markets, as a "pleasurable leisure form", because consumers not only buy used products but also communicate with sellers, are interested in the past of the product they acquire, socialize with other consumers, and thus perform actions that are not common any more in the current world of overconsumption.

However, Harms and Linton (2015) who investigated willingness to pay for refurbished products (which are repaired, cleaned, renewed to make used products like new and thus to reduce the amount waste) found that consumer willingness to pay for refurbished products is low, unless eco-certificates are added to these products. Therefore, refurbished products with eco-certificates might have a price similar to new products, however this depends on the product category and on how environmentally concerned the customer is.

Therefore, by reusing products consumers might not only save money, but also reduce the need for materials needed for producing new products,

extend the lifetime of products and also reduce the amount of waste. Objects for reuse include various options from such long-term products as cars to such small things like paper bags.

Sharing

Another form of anti-consumption practice is sharing (Belk, 2014; Belk, 2012; Ozanne, Ballantine, 2010; Ballantine, Creery, 2010; Huwer, 2004). Belk (2014) distinguished several types of sharing practises. Historically, common types of sharing were based on survival, convenience (when related to close people), and on courtesy and kindness to others (when related to strangers). However, recently new forms of sharing have emerged, based mostly on internet technologies, when people share non-material objects like music, films, e-books, etc. What is more, collaborative consumption is moving even further and people start to share certain resources based on either monetary or non-monetary exchange, which mainly focuses on temporary ownership experience. Thus, Belk (2014) stresses that ownership is losing its importance for self-definition. Compared to other forms of anti-consumption, the specifics of sharing is a need for less sacrifice, because a consumer only loses the “advantage” of possession, but does not exclude the product from his or her consumption practice in general (Belk, 2012). Therefore, sharing might be a very dangerous practice for commercial companies, because by sharing goods consumers could save a lot of their expenditure and at the same time preserve the environment.

The research by Ozanne and Ballantine (2010) about toys sharing libraries revealed that users of these libraries were mostly motivated by anti-consumption attitudes, but also by the possibility to be a part of a certain community, socialize, and finally to save money. A good example of high involvement sharing is car-sharing services. Huwer (2004) stated that in general people like to travel by car, therefore, offering a flexible car sharing service combined with the public transport opportunity could reduce the number of privately owned cars and increase consumer satisfaction rate. In addition, car sharing is not a threat to public transport in terms of lost

customers. Car ownership reduces the number of public transport users, while car sharing keeps it stable and even helps to increase it, because car-sharing members give up their privately owned cars and at least to some extent start using public transport. However, it is very important to realize that sharing cannot be associated with products which are a part of consumers' status and image. Prettenthaler and Steininger (1999) highlighted that people who usually purchase expensive cars in order to emphasise their high status and prestige will never use car-sharing services.

Self-producing

As it was mentioned before, self-producing (growing, making) is also a form of anti-consumption practices. The most common forms of such behaviour is making gifts instead of buying them (Close, Zinkhan, 2009; Huneke, 2005; Leonard-Barton, 1981), and growing vegetables and fruits by oneself (Schreurs et al, 2012; Wakefield et al, 2007; Huneke, 2005; Holland, 2004; Ferris et al, 2001).

Schreurs et al (2012) stated that growing vegetables is a common behaviour pattern for voluntary simplifiers as an alternative form of acquiring food products. Such food production is implemented through urban farming, which can be done in private gardens or community gardens where people can grow vegetables or animals close to the cities (Holland, 2004). Ferris et al (2001) named community gardens as an international phenomenon, for which the demand is increasing worldwide. In community gardens people not only have an opportunity to acquire food by themselves, but also promote environmental sustainability by reducing the distance food has to travel to the consumer and increase personal health by spending leisure time outside and socializing with others (Holland, 2004; Ferris, 2001).

Kortright and Wakefield (2011) found that in Canada owning a personal garden was common among people with different income levels. Such practice was mainly aimed at having safer and healthier food without any fertilizers. In addition, such people tend to share the food they grow with their friends and

family (Kortright, Wakefield, 2011). Research by Wakefield et al (2007) showed that people who grow food by themselves perceive it as being fresher, healthier, containing less pesticides compared to the produce sold the shops. Whereas, Bettany and Kerrane (2011) analysed urban hen keepers in UK and found that home production of eggs was inspired by nostalgia for previous life style, focus on sustainability in food production and distrust in large egg farms.

Urban farming can be found all over the world: USA, UK, Canada, but even more often in less developed countries in Africa, Cuba or similar (Kortright, Wakefield, 2011; Wakefield et al, 2007; Holland, 2004; Ferries, 2001) in relation to fewer possibilities to buy good quality food in such countries.

In the case of making gifts instead of buying them, it is usually related to gift-resistance phenomenon, which was described by Close and Zinkhan (2009). They stated that people often do not want to follow the traditions of the society to buy gifts for certain occasions, especially when they feel pressure from media, and therefore they choose either not to purchase gifts at all or to make them by themselves instead.

Types of anti-consumers

Iyer and Muncy's (2009) put a lot of emphasis on subjectivity in anti-consumption and developed an anti-consumption scale, in which self-consciousness, self-actualization, and assertiveness are the three main constructs. Iyer and Muncy (2009) segregated four types of anti-consumption in the form of matrix covering the object and the purpose of anti-consumption. Anti-consumption matrix shows the difference between those who want to reduce their overall level of consumption versus those who are interested in reducing the consumption of specific brands or products. In addition, the model reveals the difference between those who are focused on societal issues such as environmentalism versus those who are focused on personal issues such as life simplification. Therefore, the four types of anti-consumers according Iyer and Muncy (2009) are:

- 1) Global Impact Consumers
- 2) Simplifiers
- 3) Market Activists
- 4) Anti-Loyal Consumers

Kozinets, Handelman, and Lee (2010), who grouped not consumers but anti-consumption processes, did a very similar categorization to that of Iyer and Muncy (2009) based on situational specificity (specific or general) and motivational frame (moral/collective or personal). In the case of Kozinets, Handelman, and Lee (2010), the four types of anti-consumption are as following:

- 1) Utopian anti-consumption
- 2) Transformative anti-consumption
- 3) Activist anti-consumption
- 4) Expressive anti-consumption

Global impact consumers (Iyer, Muncy, 2009) are interested in reducing the general level of consumption for the benefit of the society or the planet. They do not believe that the current level of consumption is good for the society as a whole. The two most common reasons for which global impact consumers choose this form of anti-consumption are environmental concerns and material inequity. Kozinets, Handelman, and Lee (2010) express very similar views on utopian anti-consumption behaviour.

The second group of anti-consumers is best characterized as simplifiers. This group wishes to drop out of the fast paced, high-consumption society and to move to a simpler, less consumer-oriented lifestyle. There may also be a spiritual or ethical component to the simplifiers' anti-consumption beliefs (Iyer, Muncy's, 2009). Kozinets, Handelman, and Lee (2010) express very similar views on transformative anti-consumption behaviour.

Market Activists might avoid using a product or brand because they feel that a specific brand or product causes a specific societal problem (e.g., product that causes environmental degradation or brand that encourages negative social behaviour) (Iyer, Muncy, 2009). In the case of Kozinets et al

(2010) a similar practise is called activist anti-consumption.

Anti-loyalists are consumers who exhibit the opposite of brand loyalty. Anti-loyalty reflects a personal commitment to avoid purchasing a product because of perceived negative experience associated with it (Iyer, Muncy's, 2009). In the case of Kozinets et al (2010), a similar practise is called expressive anti-consumption.

As Iyer, Muncy (2009), Kozinets, Handelman, Lee (2010) and Roux (2007) divided anti-consumption in macro and micro levels, Lee et al (2009b) analysed the micro level type of anti-consumption - brand avoidance from the consumer subjective point of view, and determined four reasons:

- 1) unmet expectations,
- 2) identity incongruity,
- 3) inadequate value trade-offs,
- 4) ideological incompatibility.

Brand avoidance can be explained as “incidents in which consumers deliberately choose to reject a brand” (Lee et al, 2009b, p. 170). Brand avoidance focuses on the active rejection of a brand, not on the incidents when customers have no choice and are not able to purchase brands products because of their expensiveness, unavailability or inaccessibility (Lee et al, 2009b). The active rejection of brands includes the behaviours of abandonment (giving up a brand which was previously consumed), avoidance (staying away or moving away from a brand) and aversion (turning away from a brand) (Hogg, Banister, Stephenson, 2009; Hogg, 1998).

However, anti-consumption in brand level is more related to personal consumer experience associated with a certain brand, whereas global environmental problems, concerns, and expression of essential values are usually implemented through the macro level anti-consumption practises without orientation to a certain brand.

Application of anti-consumption

It is very important to point out that anti-consumers fail to apply

consumption reduction in all consumption categories, on the contrary, anti-consumers often face inconsistency by adopting consumption approaches in their simplified lifestyles, as attitude-behaviour gaps have been found quite often among anti-consumers (Moraes et al, 2008; Kozinets, 2002; Boulstridge, Carrigan, 2000; Dobscha, 1998). This happens because anti-consumers finally tend to spend more money in order to achieve their ideological consumption goals. Also being an anti-consumer of one product category does not necessarily mean, for example, a refusal of a luxury lifestyle (Etzioni, 1998). Usually, because anti-consumers decide to buy specific products they search for higher quality products (Ballantine, Creery, 2010). However, higher quality products still influence the overall buying intensity, and is a very critical factor when evaluating anti-consumers (Bettany, Kerrane, 2011).

What is more, due to obvious relations between anti-consumption and sustainability, it can be stated that anti-consumption or reduced consumption of particular products can be considered as the first step to the more binding concept of “green” consumer behaviour. Anti-consumption practices that are constructed around the environmental discourse of “recycled toilet paper”, “ecological footprint”, “help the environment” and yet partially outside the green consumer behaviour as anti-consumption does not always apply to all the consumption habits, just to the ones selected subjectively by the consumer (Cherrier et al, 2011).

1.4. Relation between green consumption, “usual” consumption and reduction of consumption

As it was described in chapters 1.1., 1.2., and 1.3., different types of consumption, such as “usual”, green and consumption reduction exist close to each other in the society. What is more, Chatzidakis and Lee (2012) stated that anti-consumption is very closely related to other similar fields of consumption: ethical consumption, environmental consumption, consumer resistance and symbolic consumption. This relation can be determined by revealing the

reasons and, in particular, the attitudes and motives for and against anti-consumption practice. However, these attitudes or motives do not have to be opposite to each other.

The consumer market is very often divided plainly into “good” and “bad” (“us” versus “them”), e.g. alternative food networks, local farmers markets versus big businesses, fast food chains. However, the world is much more complicated to be divided into only two parts (Probyn, 2011). This can be supported by the example that if a consumer buys green products driven by his environmental concerns, it does not mean that should the consumer decides to buy a non-green product he or she is against the environment. Even though environmental concerns are very important to green consumption and to anti-consumption as well, yet more factors might influence the consumer to choose one or another behavioural option.

Relation between green activities, green consumption and anti-consumption

The relationship between green (environmentally orientated, ethical, socially responsible, sustainable) consumption and anti-consumption was analysed and determined by various authors (Chatzidakis, Lee, 2012; Gulyas, 2008; De Pelsmacker, Janssens, 2007; De Pelsmacker et al, 2005; Harrison et al, 2005; and others.)

Some of the researchers segregated two types of green consumer behaviour: positive (consumer chooses green products) or negative (consumer boycotts certain products) (De Pelsmacker, Janssens, 2007; De Pelsmacker et al, 2005). Positive versus negative consumer behaviour is quite common in the case of ethical products. For example, Bendell (1998) states that consumers will act positively only if certain products meet the ethical products characteristics (fair treatment of employees and good working conditions, preservation of nature and environment, etc.). But if these required ethical product characteristics are not met, consumers simply boycott such products. Harrison, Newholm and Shaw (2005) expanded the concept of ethical

consumption and divided it into 5 categories, which include both consumption and anti-consumption:

- 1) Positive buying (consumers choose ethical products and companies);
- 2) Negative purchasing or boycott (consumers avoid products that might do harm to the environment, animals, nature, health or that are related unfair treatment of workers);
- 3) Fully screened approach (consumers choose the most ethical company);
- 4) Relationship purchasing (consumers take actions to inform companies about their ethical product's needs);
- 5) Anti-consumerism or sustainable consumerism (consumers reject products that can have negative impact on sustainability).

Freidman (1999) stated that boycott, which is as a form of anti-consumption, is one of the options how groups of consumers can achieve certain goals in the market. What is more, Clouder and Harrison (2005) segregated the concepts of strategic boycotts and re-directive boycotts. Strategic boycotts are directed to the wanted changes within the company, whereas re-directive boycotts are concentrated on the general sustainability problems and need to change consumer attitudes to the consumption. Therefore, here we once again face the classification of anti-consumption to micro (company) and macro (consumption as a whole) levels (Amine, Gicquel, 2011; Roux, 2007).

Furthermore, classification of ethical consumption got even more detailed, including all types of responsible behaviour, as Gulyas (2008) distinguished six ethical consumption categories:

- 1) Non-consumption;
- 2) Value-based regular shopping;
- 3) Boycott;
- 4) Positive boycott;
- 5) Usage;
- 6) Placement after usage, disposal.

According to Gulyas (2008), the main difference between non-consumption and boycott is that boycott is related to company (producer or supplier), whereas non-consumption is related to consumers attitude towards problems determined by consumption. Value based regular shopping represents buying of green products, whereas positive boycott is related to occasional selection of ethical products with the aim to express attitude to one or another problem. Usage and disposal are understood as all activities related to saving, reuse, recycling and other activities related to environmental issues.

From the classifications of De Pelsmacker, Janssens (2007), De Pelsmacker, Driesen, Rayp (2005), Harrison, Newholm, Shaw (2005) and Gulyas (2008) it is obvious that negative purchasing or boycott are very close to anti-consumption or sustainable consumption because in both cases consumers avoid or reject products that are not green or sustainable. However, the green (ethical) consumption is not the only form of expressing environmental concerns as instead of buying green products (which in some cases might be not available or convenient), consumers might choose to reduce consumption of “usual” products. But full anti-consumption of certain product is not the only opposite form of “usual” consumption when green consumption is not considered, as other forms such as reducing, reusing, sharing can be chosen.

However, companies and media understand that anti-consumption practises are harmful for their business, while motivating green consumption may have a very positive effect on the business. Thus, Parr (2009) explained that through implementation of eco-branding companies are destroying sustainability culture, because introduction of eco-brand corporations joins commercial convenience and environmentalism in order to expand the supply of products and services. Therefore, consumers who become eco-chic consumers can still buy products at their maximum convenience and choose the brands they like, but not green product characteristics that should be important. In such case the same passive consumption happens, only the purchased products have some green characteristics. But consumers are not eager to pursue sustainable way of living in general. What is more, Soper

(2008) developed the term “alternative hedonism” which describes the people who avoid consumption and seek for sensual pleasure by consuming differently. Consuming differently and consuming less are different choices, but they both can be based on green principles. However, for middle class consumers it is easier to engage in consumption reduction than in consumption because the first one needs less effort.

Black, Cherrier (2010) state that the wide range of anti-consumption possibilities allows consumers to express themselves mostly without any meaningful compromises, whereas in the practise of green consumption consumers are required to make compromises. This statement can be justified by the fact that consumers commonly do not purchase or use green products or brands in order to be more sustainable consumers, because they often fail to adopt green consumption practices in the long term. In addition, consumers admitted that in case their green consumption habits fail, they continue their regular use of “usual” products. Therefore, Black, Cherrier (2010) point out that anti-consumption is a more integral part of consumers sustainable lifestyles than purchasing of green products. On the contrary, Humphery (2011) states that ethical consumption is less challenging and easier adopted in everyday life than reduction of consumption at any scale because even with ethical principles consumption is much more acceptable at individual and society level than anti-consumption. Therefore, the type of consumption or consumption reduction that a person chooses and finds easier to adapt to might depend on his or her personal characteristics as well as the availability of green products.

Fashion industry can be a very good example of how usual consumption, green consumption and reduction of consumption can be applied, because now it has become a industry, which promotes consumption of clothes as a social practice that is crucial for defining self-identity. Usually people have too much clothes and change them every season due to fashion trends, but not because clothes are not good to use anymore. Thus, over-consumption of clothes leads to unsustainability in using water and energy resources required for producing clothes, increased carbon emission due to transportation, and

outsourcing production to poorer and lower paid countries. Therefore, fashion industry faces an emergence of green fashion, where clothes are made from organic fabrics, produced according to Fair Trade principles, where the means of distribution and production location are observed, also where purchase of second-hand clothes or purchase of minimal amount of clothes is promoted and where the clothes are washed following the green principles. The most surprising fact is that the most sustainable consumers of fashion products are the people who do not care about fashion at all, because they are not interested in fashion trends and wear their clothes for maximum period of time. Nevertheless, these people do not consider buying clothes made from eco-fabrics or purchasing second-hand clothes because they want to use the same clothes for as long as possible and to avoid any additional effort (Gibson, Stanes, 2011).

In addition, consumers engage in very controversial lifestyles. They emphasize health, happiness, social relationships and environment as important aspects in their lives, however, they still work and consume in the materialistic way (Humphery, 2013, p. 127). This shows that green consumption as such, if it is still performed in over-consumption levels, is not a solution for sustainability at all. Therefore, conscious consumption does not mean only green consumption as such, but rather downshifting the level of consumption in general (Humphery, 2013). According to Soper (2004), in practising “alternative hedonism” people still want to feel joy from their consumption, but they are unsatisfied with such by-products of consumption as pollution, stress, health risks, waste, etc. Therefore, they change their consumption practices to avoid consumption by-products, but still enjoy good life through consumption. However, the essence of responsible consumption is not only to consume differently, but also to consume less (Humphery, 2013, p. 59).

In conclusion, it is obvious that green consumption and anti-consumption overlap, they both have similar yet different reasons and create different consequences that should lead to sustainability in all areas of life and society, however, that is not always the case.

Classification to represent relations between green, usual and anti-consumption

One of the possible options to compare and show relations between green, usual and anti-consumption is a categorization of consumers. For example, Autio et al (2009) developed a consumer's segmentation model according to their environmental attitudes. This model very well represents the relationship between green, usual and anti-consumption, incorporating three types of consumers: 'Hero', 'Antihero' and 'Anarchist'.

„Hero“ is a consumer who is used to environmentally friendly activities from the childhood and tries to implement these practices in everyday life.

„Hero“ perceives green consumer practices as a logical part of household management which does not limit the possibility of enjoying consumption. However, „Hero“ consumer is practical and would stop green consumption should the circumstances become unfavourable, e.g. a decrease in financial income (Autio et al, 2009).

The opposite type of consumer is „Antihero“. This type of consumer does not see any possibility to improve the wellbeing of environment, although he or she agrees that current consumption practices make a lot of damage. „Antihero“ consumer prefers good, cheap and accessible products and is not willing to put extra effort to change his or her consumption habits (Autio et al, 2009).

The third type of consumer is „Anarchist“ who is very critical about green consumption practices, but simultaneously expresses concern about the environment. „Anarchist“ does not believe that purely green products can exist, the reason for which is limited commercial attractiveness of such products and existing pollution of the surrounding environment. „Anarchist“ is also very critical about fresh food consumption because it leads to huge amounts of food wasted every day. „Anarchist“ prefers reduction of consumption in general and buying only necessary products even though sometimes these are not green. However, „Anarchist“ perceives this kind of consumption as more valuable

compared to purely green consumption (Autio et al, 2009).

„Hero“ believes that green consumption requires information from media, or other trustful environment, whereas „Antihero“ rejects this kind of green oriented information and behaves in an opposite way. And finally, „Anarchist“ argues that if one wants to take the environment and social justice seriously, he or she needs to go beyond the role of a responsible consumer and mainstream media in order to question the information provided there (Autio et al, 2009).

Therefore, it can be stated that, in the context of sustainability, consumers may choose three types of consumption practices: to consume green products, to consume “usual” (not green) products, or to reduce consumption of any products, thus leading to total anti-consumption of that product.

Existing deviant behaviour

In conclusion, it can be stated that there are significant behavioural variations outside the boundaries of the norm, a not all forms of consumer behaviour deviance are valued and accepted by the society equally. In relation to social norms consumer behaviours are hierarchized according to whether they are normal and expected, accepted and tolerated, understood and excused or rejected by the society. However, researchers still face a problem, because some behaviours, such as shoplifting, are easily designated as deviant, while others are not so easily categorized, especially when they appear among social trends such as green behaviours or subcultures of consumption. In addition, the status of behaviour may change over time. However, even though environmentally and socially oriented consumer behaviour seems already accepted by the society, it still is a topic of fierce debate (Amine, Gicquel, 2011) and in all cases cannot be perceived as “usual”.

Although deviance through excessive consumption or even addiction to over-consumption may be profitable to companies and brands, it also generates serious societal problems and raises the question of morality and overall social well-being of the society. On the other hand, deviance through abnormal

reduction of consumption (downshifting, voluntary simplicity) threatens companies and governments by shrinking market and decreasing the overall consumption level, but it might open possibilities for alternative markets oriented to repeated consumption, sharing economy and similar.

What is more, the postmodern society is systematically changing and, despite the fact that in some cultures or countries any consumption deviance might be perceived as not “usual”, there is a growing part of the society that can be called “postmodern consumers”. Postmodern consumers can have any living and consumption practices they consider to be right by reflecting who they are and who they want to be (Belk, 1988). So in conclusion, the definition of a postmodern consumer by Cherrier (2007) can be applied, stating that the postmodern consumer is the one who can have active ethical lifestyle, who takes part in ethical organizations and critically analyses his or her personal ethical concerns and self-concepts, who seeks good life by achieving the common good for the society, who can leave his or her high-paying job to experience a simpler lifestyle or move to the countryside in order to retreat from urban pollution and overpopulated suburbs, who expresses his or her concerns about workforce exploitation, and who practices green consumption every day by choosing green and ethical products or by reducing consumption as such. So green consumption and anti-consumption are not opposite consumption practises, but a gap in scientific literature still exists in defining why consumers tend to choose one or another consumption practise as compared to the “usual” consumption behaviour.

This chapter provided an in-depth analysis of “usual” consumption, green consumption and variations of other forms of responsible consumption, as well as consumption reduction and anti-consumption. Also, this chapter provided explanation on how these different forms of consumption are related. In the next chapter, a discussion of how these different consumption and behaviour practises are explained by the main consumer behaviour theories and models will be presented.

2. Key consumer behaviour theories and models

2.1. Green consumers behaviour theories and models

Most of scientific researches about green consumer behaviour are based on six theories:

- 1) Norm Activation Model (Schwartz, 1968; 1977);
- 2) Theory of Reasoned Action (Fishbein, Ajzen, 1975);
- 3) Theory of Planned Behaviour (Ajzen, 1991);
- 4) New Environmental Paradigm (Dunlap et al, 1978; 2000);
- 5) Values-Beliefs-Norms Theory, VBN theory (Stern, 2000);
- 6) Comprehensive Action Determination Model (Klockner, 2013).

Klockner (2013), based on the literature analysis made by Sopha (2011), states that Theory of Planned Behaviour is the most often used theory in environmental psychological domain, followed by Norm Activation Model and Values-Beliefs-Norms Theory. However, some studies even combined two or more theories, which means that more than four out of five papers found in the literature study by Sopha (2011) used at least one of the three theories as a framework. Therefore, further in this chapter the six theories will be presented and analysed in more detail.

NORM ACTIVATION MODEL

Norm Activation Model (NAM) (Schwartz, 1968; 1977) (Fig. 1) is widely used to analyse socially responsible and environmentally orientated consumer behaviour (Harland et al, 2007; Wall et al, 2007).

Norm Activation Model initially was named by Schwartz as the theory of altruism, because it can be applied only when processes or actions are already happening and the person, whose behaviour is analysed, sees the negative consequences of these processes or actions. Norm activation model explains altruistic behaviour as behaviour performed for others' benefit rather than for "social and material reinforcements". When people engage in an environmentally cautious behaviour mostly because they care about natural

environment and society, this kind of behaviour can be considered altruistic (Ebreo, Vining, Cristancho, 2003).

Norm Activation Model in general is dedicated to analysing prosocial behaviour and consists of 4 situational activators: awareness of need, situational responsibility, efficacy and ability; and 2 personality trait activators: awareness of consequences and denial of responsibility (Harland et al, 2007). Awareness of need shows how person is focused on a certain issue (need), whereas situational responsibility shows how much the person feels responsible for that issue (need) and the consequences it causes. Efficacy shows the impact of actions that might minimize the issue (need), whereas ability determines a person's understanding about the possibilities to perform these actions. Awareness of consequences shows how well a person understands the consequences a certain issue (need) might raise, whereas denial of responsibility determines how the person tends to deny responsibility of his or her actions regarding the well-being of others (Harland et al, 2007).

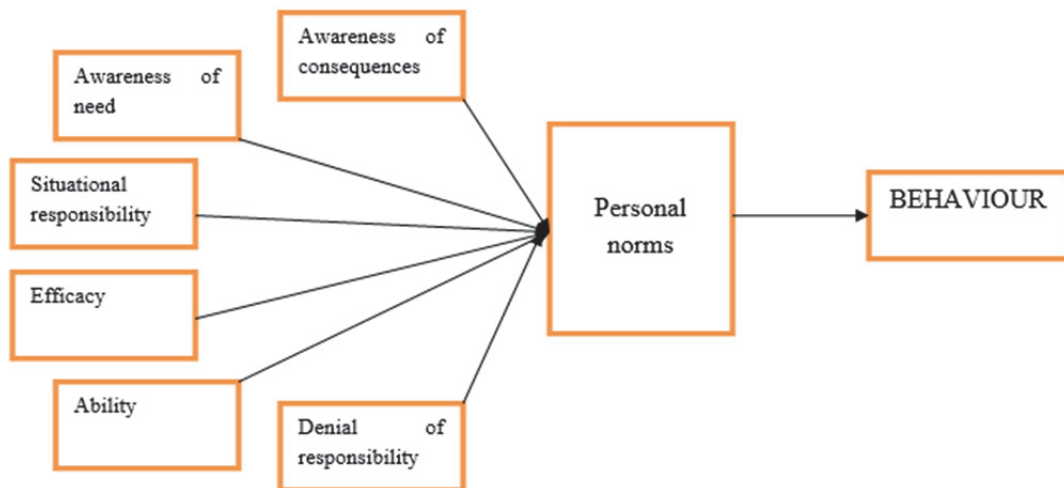


Figure 1. Norm Activation Model (Schwartz, 1968; 1977)

Norm Activation Model joins the understanding about the consequences, responsibilities and personal norms. The norm activation model determines that people more often express altruistic helping behaviour and act in ways that benefit others when they are aware of the consequences their

actions imply and when they can assign to themselves the responsibility for these consequences (Ebreo, Vining, Cristancho, 2003). Therefore, the understanding about the negative consequences of particular actions activates the personal norms, which finally determine person's behaviour to eliminate the negative consequences of these actions (Cordano et al, 2010). However, in its essence, the norm activation model is suitable to be used for analysing behaviours that are not driven by self-interest. Also, according to Klockner (2013), this theory is not applicable for analysis of repeated behaviour.

Harland et al (2007) state that pro-environmental behaviour studies that used the norm activation model mostly focused on personal norms, awareness of need and situational responsibility. However, efficacy and ability, also awareness of consequences and denial of responsibility were usually ignored. Also Harland et al (2007) found in his studies that inclusion of additional activators improved the potential of norm activation model to explain pro-environmental behaviour and personal norms significantly mediated the impact of activators on pro-environmental behaviour.

However, Norm Activation model was not so often used as a single model for analysis of socially responsible and environmentally orientated consumer behaviour (Harland et al, 2007; Ebreo et al, 2003), because it was combined with other theories. Norm Activation theory and Values-Beliefs-Norms theory are closely related, because Values-Beliefs-Norms theory was developed based on the main Norm Activation Theory assumptions and extended it with value-based egoistic, social-altruistic, and biospheric environmental concerns (Klockner, 2013).

THEORY OF REASONED ACTION

Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA) (Fishbein, Ajzen, 1975) (Fig. 2) is being used by the researchers when motivational influences and social actions are analysed, therefore it can also be successfully applied when analysing various behaviours related to the environment. This theory was successfully applied to determine various environmental behaviours: recycling, green

consumerism, ethical behaviour, etc. (Cordano, Frieze, 2000).

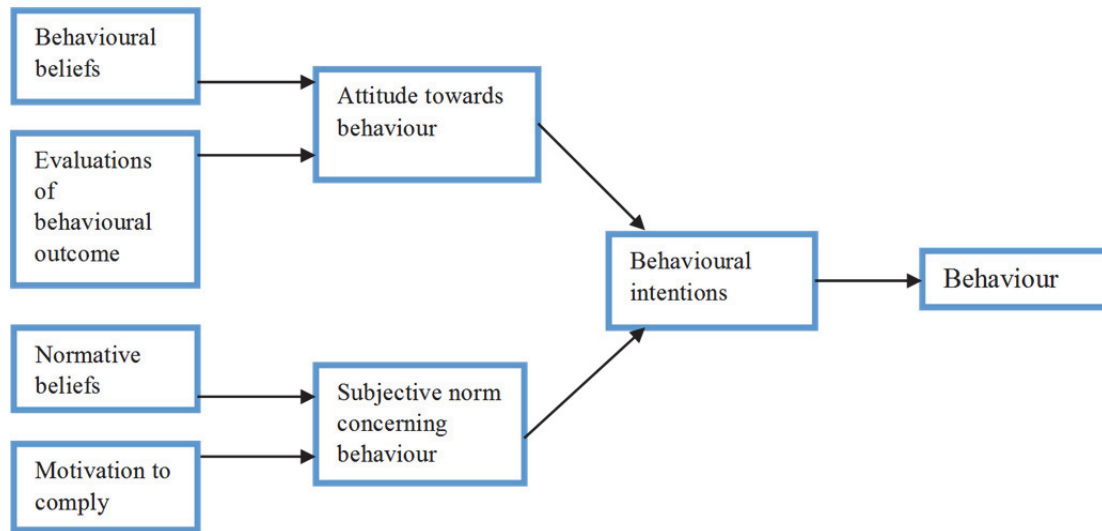


Figure 2. Theory of Reasoned Action (Fishbein, Ajzen, 1975)

The Theory of Reasoned Action consists of two factors: attitude towards behaviour and subjective personal norms related to behaviour. A person's behavioural beliefs and evaluation of outcome of certain behaviour determine his attitudes toward behaviour. Attitude toward behaviour shows how a person evaluates certain behaviour. Subjective norms are determined by the person's normative beliefs and motivation to comply with these norms. In general, they show the social pressure for the person to behave in a certain expected way (Klockner, 2013; Cordano et al, 2010; De Groot, Steg, 2007).

Therefore, attitude towards behaviour and subjective norms related to behaviour determine a person's intention to behave in some way and finally leads to the behaviour itself. Thus, the better attitude the person has towards certain behaviour and the stronger his or her subjective norms are, the more willing he or she will be to behave in such a way (Cordano et al, 2010).

Cordano and Frieze (2000) applied Theory of Reasoned Action to analyse behavioural preferences of 295 environmental managers. They determined pollution prevention attitudes, perception norms for environmental regulations, perceived behavioural control, and previous reduction activities in the facilities environmental managers work at.

However, the Theory of Reasoned Action was not very often used by researchers after it was extended by Ajzen (1991) into the Theory of Planned Behaviour.

THEORY OF PLANNED BEHAVIOUR

The Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) (Ajzen, 1991) (Fig. 3) is very similar to the Theory of Reasoned Action, only it has an additional perceived behavioural control variable, which is determined by a person's control beliefs and the power the person perceives to possess in order to accomplish them. In addition, the Theory of Planned Behaviour has such external variables as: demographic characteristics, personality traits, attitude towards goal, etc.

The Theory of Planned Behaviour has much wider application compared to the Theory of Reasoned Action because it evaluates not only personal and social factors, but also factors that have a low degree of volition (like price, place, etc.). As such factors occur in most of consumption situations, application of the Theory of Reasoned Action is very limited (Han et al, 2010). The perceived behaviour control variable determines to which degree a person has the opportunity and ability to perform a certain behavioural alternative as well as the need for cooperation when engaging in this behaviour (Klockner, 2013; Cordano, Frieze, 2000).

However, it is important to point out that all the three constructs of the Theory of Planned Behaviour are subjective representations of a person's perceptions. Therefore, within the Theory of Planned Behaviour a person engages in environmentally cautious behaviour if he or she has a positive attitude towards it, if he or she believes that other people expect him or her to act so and show their support for such an act, and if the person feels being capable to behave in such a way (Klockner, 2013). Klockner (2013) also criticizes this theory as being not very suitable for analysis of repeated behaviour as it does not include an aspect of habits.

Han et al (2010) compared the Theory of a Reasoned Action with the

Theory of Planned Behaviour to explain the formation of hotel customers' intentions to visit a green hotel. This research based on 428 customers from USA revealed that the model based on the Theory of Planned Behaviour had better predictive power for intention than the model based on the Theory of a Reasoned Action. What is more, Han et al (2010) found that attitude, subjective norm, and perceived behavioural control positively affected intention to stay at a green hotel.

Chan and Bishop (2013) applied the Theory of Planned Behaviour for the analysis of intention to recycle and actual recycling behaviour. However, they modified the TPB by changing the logical sequence of the TPB. They predicted that firstly attitudes are influenced by moral norms and only then in their turn they influence intention to recycle.

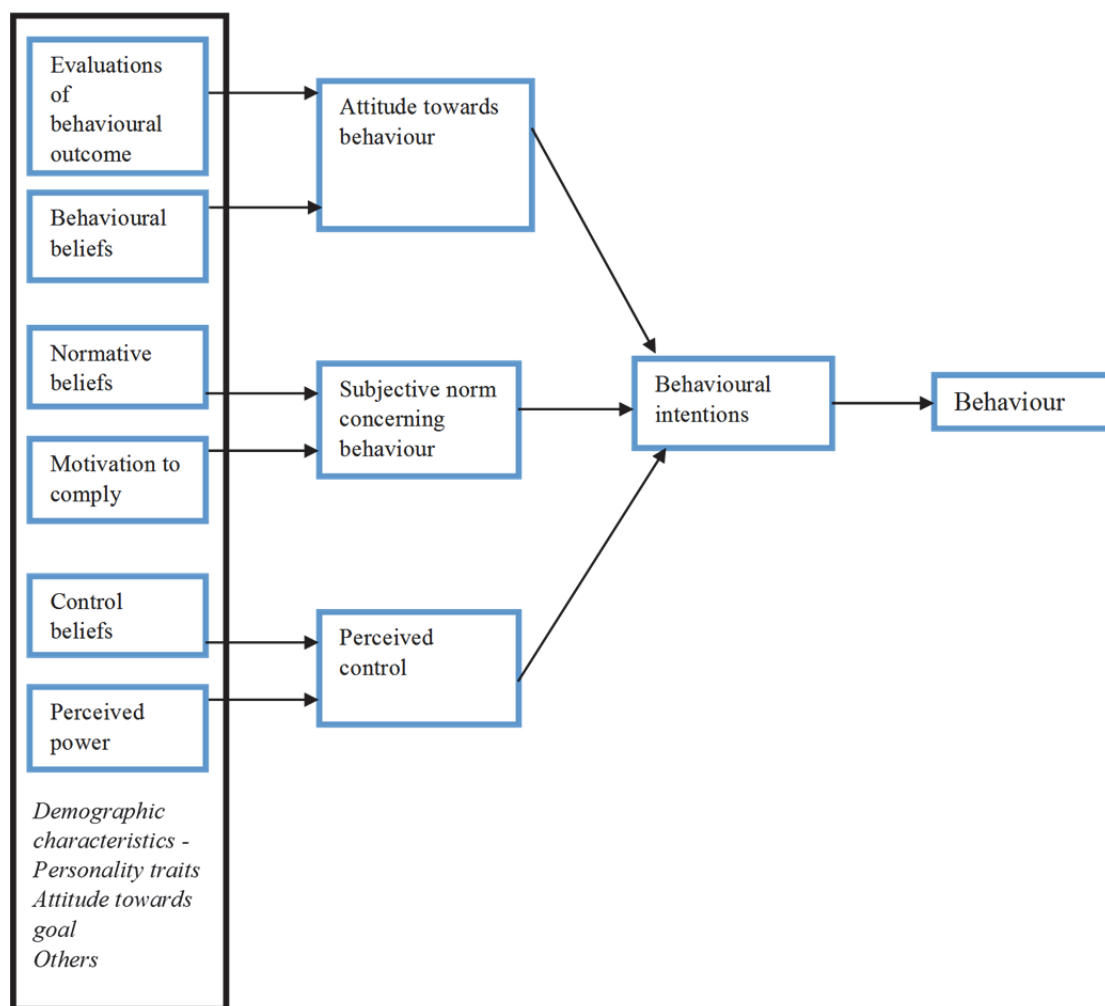


Figure 3. Theory of Planned Behaviour (Ajzen, 1991)

Some researchers have successfully applied the improved version of the Theory of Reasoned Action that Ajzen (1991) labelled as the Theory of Planned Behaviour to single culture pro-environmental behaviour (Do Valle et al 2005; Taylor, Todd, 1997; Boldero, 1995) and to cross-cultural pro-environmental behaviour (Oreg, Katz-Gerro, 2006). Also, the Theory of Planned Behaviour was quite often extended by egoistic, altruistic, and biospheric concerns and used in the Values-Beliefs-Norms Theory (De Groot, Steg, 2007; Oreg, Katz-Gerro, 2006) or combined with the New Environmental Paradigm Scale (Fielding et al, 2008) for investigating intentions to engage in environmental activism.

NEW ENVIRONMENTAL PARADIGM

Dunlap and Van Liere developed the New Environmental Paradigm (NEP) Scale in 1978. Since then it has become the most often used and best-tested measure of environmental concern and has been employed in many different researches all around the world (Dunlap, 2008; Slimak, Dietz, 2006). The original NEP Scale had three revisions in 1982, 1989, and 2000, however, the last revision made in 2000 and called the New Ecological Paradigm Scale (Dunlap, Van Liere, Mertig, Jones, 2000) has now replaced the original version of the New Environmental Paradigm (developed in 1978), because it is better grounded theoretically and has stronger psychometric properties.

The original New Environmental Paradigm Scale had 12 NEP items to measure support for pollution control, resource conservation, and population control, of which eight can be considered as pro-NEP items and four as anti-NEP items (Dunlap, 2008). The New Ecological Paradigm Scale had 15 items and measured degrees of endorsement (from low to high) of ecological worldview (Table 2). The main improvements that the New Ecological Paradigm Scale has compared with the original New Environmental Paradigm Scale are (Dunlap, 2008) are as follows:

- Items aimed at measuring the degree to which respondents feel modern industrial society is exempt from ecological constraints were added.
- Items dealing with the likelihood of eco-crises were added.

- Three new items for each of the resulting five facets were developed resulting in 8 pro-NEP and 7 anti-NEP items.
- NEP was grounded by relevant social-psychological theory that the NEP items were measuring primitive beliefs about the relationship between human beings and their environments.

Table 2. The New Environmental Paradigm (NEP) Scale (Hawcroft, Milfont, 2010)

Original NEP items (1978)	Revised NEP items (2000)
1. We are approaching the limit of the number of people the earth can support.	1. We are approaching the limit of the number of people the earth can support.
2. The balance of nature is very delicate and easily upset.	2. Humans have the right to modify the natural environment to suit their needs.
3. Humans have the right to modify the natural environment to suit their needs.	3. When humans interfere with nature it often produces disastrous consequences.
4. Mankind was created to rule over the rest of nature.	4. Human ingenuity will insure that we do NOT make the earth unlivable.
5. When humans interfere with nature it often produces disastrous consequences.	5. Humans are severely abusing the environment.
6. Plants and animals exist primarily to be used by humans.	6. The earth has plenty of natural resources if we just learn how to develop them.
7. To maintain a healthy economy we will have to develop a “steady-state” economy where industrial growth is controlled.	7. Plants and animals have as much right as humans to exist.
8. Humans must live in harmony with nature in order to survive.	8. The balance of nature is strong enough to cope with the impacts of modern industrial nations.
9. The earth is like a spaceship with only limited room and resources	9. Despite our special abilities humans are still subject to the laws of nature.
10. Humans need not adapt to the natural environment because they can remake it to suit their needs.	10. The so-called “ecological crisis” facing humankind has been greatly exaggerated.
11. There are limits to growth beyond which our industrialized society cannot expand.	11. The earth is like a spaceship with very limited room and resources.
12. Mankind is severely abusing the environment.	12. Humans were meant to rule over the rest of nature.
	13. The balance of nature is very delicate and easily upset.

	<p>14. Humans will eventually learn enough about how nature works to be able to control it.</p> <p>15. If things continue on their present course, we will soon experience a major ecological catastrophe.</p>
<p>Comment: Original NEP Scale: Agreement with items 3, 4, 6, and 10 indicate anti-NEP responses. Hypothesized facets: balance of nature (items 2, 5, 8, 12), limits to growth (items 1, 7, 9, 11), and human dominance over nature (items 3, 4, 6, 10, all anti-NEP items). Revised NEP Scale: Agreement with the eight odd-numbered items and disagreement with the seven even-numbered items indicate pro-NEP responses. Hypothesized facets: the reality of limits to growth (items 1, 6, 11), anti-anthropocentrism (items 2, 7, 12), the fragility of nature's balance (items 3, 8, 13), rejection of exceptionalism (items 4, 9, 14), and the possibility of an eco-crisis (items 5, 10, 15).</p>	

The revised scale is used as a measure of environmental concern, environmental values, and environmental attitudes. However, according to Dunlap (2008), the most accurate way of interpreting the New Ecological Paradigm Scale is to consider it a measure for ecological worldview (or environmental beliefs) because the NEP Scale evaluates the degree to which a person views the world ecologically (but not actually behaves so).

Hawcroft and Milfont (2010) carried out a meta-analysis of studies conducted during the last 30 years that used the New Environmental Paradigm (NEP) Scale. They chose to review 69 studies from 36 countries (including 58,279 participants from 139 samples). The results of their analysis revealed that there was a considerable variation in the way the NEP Scale was used, especially with the number of items used. Also Hawcroft and Milfont (2010) found that internal scale consistency was stronger in studies conducted in more developed countries. However, Hawcroft and Milfont (2010) finally reached a conclusion that the 15-item revised NEP Scale is a better predictor of environmental attitudes, whereas Cordano, Welcomer, Schrer (2010) stated that there is no essential difference between the scales and that even the first revisions of the New Environmental Paradigm with 6 items might be more appropriate in certain studies.

The NEP scale application received even wider recognition and usage when it was included in other recognized theories (Dunlap, 2008):

- Stern, Dietz and Guagnano (1995) have incorporated the NEP as a measure of environmental beliefs in their Value–Belief–Norm Theory.
- Schultz and Zelezny (1998) included NEP in their updated Schwartz’s norm-activation model.
- Fielding, McDonald, and Louis (2008) used the revised NEP Scale to measure general environmental attitudes in an updated Theory of Planned Behaviour.
- Schultz and Zelezny (1998) and De Groot and Steg (2008) also treat the NEP Scale as a measure of environmental attitudes and find it useful in clarifying the values based on environmental concern.

VALUES-BELIEFS-NORMS THEORY

The Values-Beliefs-Norms (VBN) Theory (Stern, 2000) (Fig. 4) consists of four factors blocks: values, beliefs, opinions and behaviour (Fig. 4). It can be stated that the VBN theory was developed on the basis of Schwartz’s Norm Activation Theory and Ajzen’s Theory of Planned Behaviour. This theory combines the Values Theory, the Norm Activation Theory and the New Environmental Paradigm through the chain of consequences, which determines personal values (like altruistic, egoistic, biospheric), causal beliefs (like ecological worldview), and threats to personal values (abilities to reduce the threat) that influence personal pro-environmental norms and finally influence environmental behaviour (Oreg, Katz-Gerro, 2006).

According the Values-Beliefs-Norms Theory, causal relation exists between stable factors, such as relation between human and environment as well as a personal responsibility for this relation. In The Values-Beliefs-Norms Theory every factor consistently influences the following factor and consequently has influence on all the remaining factors. Stern et al (1999) explained that people who express basic values believe that the objects they value are threatened and through their actions people can help to reduce this threat; therefore, they feel obliged to perform those action. Slimak and Dietz (2006) state that within the Values-Beliefs-Norms Theory the values and

especially the biospheric ones (like altruism) are the core of environmental perceptions. Moreover, values do not change much during the lifetime of an individual. Van Riper and Kyle (2014) described that biospheric values are related to non-human species and the biosphere; altruistic values are related to human welfare; and egoistic values are related to self-interest, therefore, individuals with egoistic values act favourably towards environmental preservation only if they believe that their personal well-being is threatened. Klockner (2013) states that egoistic values can be divided into self-transcendence, which focuses on universalism and benevolence as the main values, and self-enhancement, which focuses on power, achievement and hedonism as the main values.

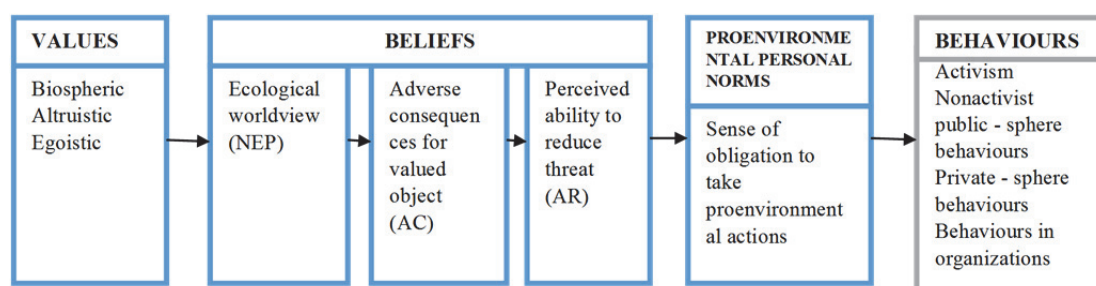


Figure 4. Values-Beliefs-Norms theory (Stern, 2000)

The results of the Values-Beliefs-Norms Theory are four types of behaviour that green consumers decide to engage in (Stern, 2000):

- Environmental activism (active involvement in various environmental groups);
- Non-activists public-sphere behaviour (position for environmental politics, agreement with environmental taxes);
- Private-sphere environmentalism (purchase of green goods and services, household lifestyle);
- Environmental behaviour in organizations (impact of individuals on organizations' position regarding the environment, purchase of green goods and services).

The Values-Beliefs-Norms Theory is very often applied for researching green and environmental consumer behaviour (even including such behaviours, as eco-tourism, reduction of car usage) (Chiu, Lee, Chen, 2014; Jakovcevic, Steg, 2013; De Groot, Steg, Dicke, 2008). Stern et al (1999) state that the Values-Beliefs-Norms Theory offers the best available support for the environmental movement based on the data they gathered in a survey of 420 respondents in the USA.

Various researchers extended the Values-Beliefs-Norms Theory in order to better explain specific issues related to environmental behaviour. For example, Oreg and Katz-Gerro (2006) extended the Theory of Planned Behaviour and the Values-Beliefs-Norms Theory by incorporating country-level values and analysed 31,042 respondents from 27 countries. Oreg and Katz-Gerro (2006) found that country-level values had influence on environmental concerns (environmental concern, perceived threat, and perceived behavioural control) which were also related to behavioural intention to act in an environmentally friendly way: recycle, refrain from driving and act as an environmental citizen.

Slimak and Dietz (2006) added ecological risk items as well as spirituality and political beliefs to the Values-Beliefs-Norms Theory in order to determine the perception of ecological risk. They surveyed 614 respondents from four groups: the lay public, experienced public, risk assessors, and risk managers at the US Environmental protection agency. Slimak and Dietz (2006) revealed that the Values-Beliefs-Norms Theory is suitable for determining the perception of ecological risk.

Jakovcevic and Steg (2013) applied the Values-Beliefs-Norms Theory in order to predict acceptability of a transport pricing policy as well as the intention to reduce car use after implementing this policy. The VBN theory was widely applied for studying the decrease in the number of cars in Europe (for example, De Groot, Steg, Dicke (2008) has applied this theory to determine car use reduction by surveying 490 respondents from Austria, The Czech Republic, Italy, the Netherlands, and Sweden), but Jakovcevic and Steg

(2013) were the first to apply the Values-Beliefs-Norms Theory for the Latin America population. Jakovcevic and Steg (2013) surveyed 160 participants and the research results revealed that the application of the Values-Beliefs-Norms Theory was successful in explaining policy acceptability and intention to reduce car use in Argentina. Researchers also revealed that biospheric and hedonic values were directly and significantly related to feelings of moral obligation, therefore it could be stated that when normative considerations are activated by values, they predict policy acceptability and intention to reduce car use.

COMPREHENSIVE ACTION DETERMINATION MODEL

One more alternative theory used in analysing environmental behaviour is the **Comprehensive Action Determination Model (CADM)** developed by Klockner (2013) (Fig. 5).

CADM was developed based on the Theory of Planned Behaviour. In the Comprehensive Action Determination Model individual environmentally friendly behaviour is determined according to intention, perceived behavioural control and habits. The model consists of such key constructs: attitudes, personal norms, perceived behavioural control, and social norms (subjective norms if in TPB), which together form the intention. Habit strength in CADM acts as moderator between intention and behaviour, therefore, the stronger the habits are, the weaker the intention behaviour link is. The constructs of awareness of consequences and ascription of responsibility are in line with the Norm Activation Model. The New Environmental Paradigm is also included in CADM, however, it is not applied in measuring attitudes because these are evaluated separately as specific measures of the respective behaviour. Whereas, the constructs of self-transcendence values and self-enhancement values are in line with the Value-Belief-Norm theory's statement that general values and ecological worldview have an additional impact on personal norms (Klockner, 2013).

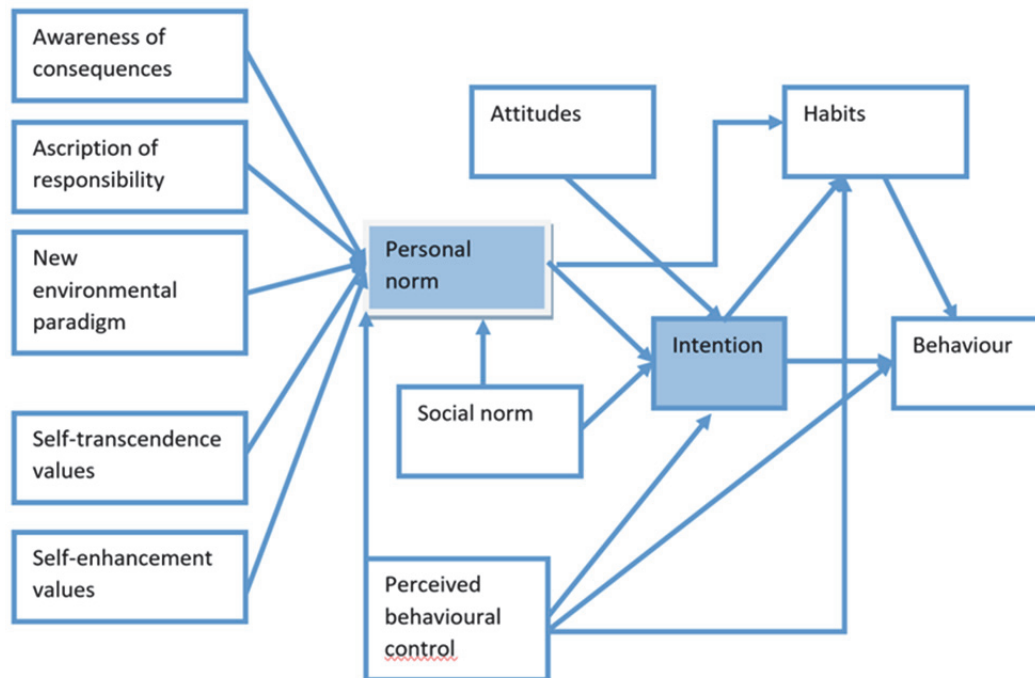


Figure 5. Comprehensive Action Determination Model (Klockner, 2013)

CADM model has already been tested in several studies in different behavioural domains (Klockner, Friedrichsmeier, 2011; Klockner, Oppedal, 2011; Sopha, Klockner, 2011). Also, it was tested by using a meta-analysis of the articles which included correlations between at least two model variables, which ended up in using 56 independent data sets norms (Klockner, 2013). Klockner (2013) revealed that the strongest predictor of environmental behaviour was intentions, followed by habit strength. Intentions were the most influenced by attitudes and perceived behavioural control. Finally, personal norm was significantly predicted by social norms and perceived behavioural control (Klockner, 2013).

Research examples comparing theories

Cordano et al (2010) state that many theoretical models have been employed to analyze pro-environmental behaviour, but only a few studies compared the different theories and perspectives used to examine pro-environmental behaviour, and even less studies analysed these perspectives in

different cultures. Klockner (2013) states that it would be very useful for the environmental psychology field to integrate the most common theories used in the studies of environmental behaviour theories into one theory, which would also show the relation of variables from different models. In addition, Klockner (2013) proposed a comprehensive action determination model (CADM) of environmental behaviour. Therefore, the overview of the main researches comparing the above mentioned different theories most often used for analysis of green or environmentally orientated consumer behaviour are presented further.

In the context of environmentally significant behaviour research, Wall et al (2007) compared the Norm Activation Theory with the Theory of Planned Behaviour to determine drivers' intentions to reduce or maintain their car use for commuting. They surveyed 398 respondents from Great Britain. Wall et al (2007) found that the Norm Activation Theory was better in explaining drivers' intentions to reduce or maintain their car use for commuting compared to the Theory of Planned Behaviour. Also, the researchers developed the model integrating constructs from both theories. This model explained more variance than any of the individual theories. What is more, in the model combining both theories, the personal-normative variable from the Norm Activation Theory and the perceived behavioural control from the Theory of Planned Behaviour were the only statistically significant predictors of drivers' intentions.

Han, Hsu, Sheu (2010) compared the Theory of Reasoned Action and the Theory of Planned Behaviour in order to explain the formation of hotel customers' intentions to visit a green hotel by surveying 428 respondents from the USA. The findings revealed that the model based on the Theory of Planned Behaviour had better predictive power for intention to visit a green hotel than the model based on the Theory of Reasoned Action. In addition, results of the survey showed that attitude, subjective norm, and perceived behavioural control positively affected intention to stay at a green hotel.

De Groot, Steg (2007) extended the Theory of Planned Behaviour by three environmental concerns: egoistic, altruistic, and biospheric, which are

also used in the Values-Beliefs-Norms Theory. They carried out the research in the Netherlands with 218 respondents to determine intention to use alternative ways of transportation, like public parking facilities near main roads, where private cars could be replaced by public transport. Their research revealed that these environmental concerns were directly related to attitudes towards using public parking facilities. However, egoistic, altruistic, and biospheric concerns were not directly related to the intention to use public parking facilities. Therefore, these environmental concerns do not have mediating impact towards intention. What is more, stronger intention to use public parking facilities was determined by positive attitudes, positive subjective norms and high perceived behavioural control.

Cordano et al (2010) in the surveys they were conducted in the USA and Chile compared three theories of pro-environmental behaviour: Ajzen and Fishbein's Theory of Reasoned Action, Schwartz's Norm Activation Theory, and Stern, Dietz, Abel, Guagnano, and Kalof Values-Beliefs-Norms Theory. Cordano et al (2010) revealed that none of the three theories was more appropriate for explaining pro-environmental behaviour. However, the norms variable had the strongest relationship with the behavioural intention.

The consumer behaviour models presented in this chapter were applied for researching green consumer behaviour. Anti-consumption behaviour theories and models are presented in the next chapter.

2.2. Models of anti-consumption behaviour

A single "grand" theory for anti-consumption does not exist yet (Lee et al, 2009a; Ozanne, Ballantine, 2010). Most of the researches made in the field of anti-consumption analysis have used qualitative research methods, usually in-depth interviews.

Some of the researchers focused on voluntary simplification and downshifting (Schreurs, Martens, Kok, 2012; Ballantine, Creery, 2010), and found that consuming less is determined not by financial, but by personal

reasons. Some analysed the reasons for boycott (Hoffmann, 2011; Carriga, Szmigin, Wright, 2004) or brand avoidance (Lee et al, 2009b), whereas others focused on the role of sustainability in relation to anti-consumption and found that anti-consumption can be practised using such forms as rejection, reduction and reuse (Black Cherrier, 2010) or sharing (Ozanne, Ballantine, 2010). Albinsson, Wolf and Kopf (2010) extended research in the field of anti-consumption to transition economies and analysis of resistance to consumption society among the consumers of the former German Democratic Republic. Sharp, Høj and Wheeler (2010) and Bettany and Kerrane (2011) analysed everyday consumption practises to reveal the role of proscription in motivating anti-consumption (Sharp et al, 2010) or the reasons of home food production (Bettany, Kerrane, 2011).

However, only Iyer and Muncy (2009) aimed at developing scales for measuring general anti-consumption attitudes based on surveys, and segregated four types of anti-consumers: Global Impact Consumers, Simplifiers, Market Activists, and Anti-Loyal Consumers. Kaynak and Eksi (2011) also tested the scales of Iyer and Muncy (2009) within the Turkish society to examine the power of ethnocentrism, religiosity, environmental and health consciousness on voluntary simplifiers and global impact consumers. Autio et al (2009) also developed a consumer's segmentation model based on content analysis of essays on environmentally oriented consumer behaviour by upper secondary school students in Finland. Authors segregated 3 types of consumers: "Hero", "Antihero" and "Anarchist" according to their environmental attitudes.

Oreg and Katz-Gerro (2006) in their research in 27 countries with 31.042 respondents joined the depended variables representing both environmental practises (recycling and environmental citizenship) and one practise that can be assigned to anti-consumption (refraining from driving). Authors found that these behaviours are influenced by behavioural intention to make sacrifices for the environment determined by the same factors such as environmental concern, perceived threat, and perceived behavioural control. In table 3 the overview of research methods used by various authors is presented.

Table 3. Research examples of anti-consumption

Author	Year	Goal of research	Method used	Number of respondents	Results
Carrigan, M., Szmigin, I., Wright, J.	2004	To determine potential of ethical consumption by older consumers	In-depth interviews	7 older consumers	Older people feel moral responsibility in their purchase behaviour and are willing to engage in affirmative purchasing and boycotting.
Autio, M., Heiskanen, E., Heinonen, V.	2009	To examine how young consumers construct their images of green consumerism	Content analysis of essays on environmentally oriented consumer behaviour	51 upper secondary school students in Finland	Model of consumers segmentation according to their environmental attitudes was developed, incorporating 3 types of consumers: "Hero", "Antihero" and "Anarchist".
Iyer, M., Muncy, J. A.	2009	To develop scales for measuring the general anti-consumption attitudes	Survey	504 respondents	Scales for different types of anti-consumers: Global Impact Consumers, Simplifiers, Market Activists, Anti-Loyal Consumers, were developed.
Ballantine, P. W., Creery, S.	2009	To determine disposition activities of voluntary simplifiers in the context of their overall consumption behaviour	In-depth interviews	12 current voluntary simplifiers from the USA	Disposition plays an important role in voluntary simplifier behaviour, especially during the initial stages of adopting a lifestyle.

Lee, M. S.W., Motion, J., Conroy, D.	2009b	To determine why people may avoid some brands, even when their financial circumstances allow them the option of purchasing	In-depth interviews	23 residents of New Zealand	Study revealed three types of brand avoidance: experiential, identity and moral brand avoidance.
Albinsson, P. A., Wolf, M., Kopf, D. A.	2010	To reveal experience of consumers from the former German Democratic Republic: their consumption during the transition of re-unification, and their consumption 15–20 years after re-unification, and to understand anti-consumption and resistance of brands and products	Formal interviews	20 former GDR residents	Former GDR residents expressed strong resistance to a throwaway society and nostalgia for less consumption-oriented society, durable high-quality products, and stronger community practice.
Black I. R., Cherrier H.	2010	To examine anti-consumption practices, motivations and values within attempts to live a more sustainable lifestyle	In-depth interviews	16 women from Australia and Canada practising sustainable living	Anti-consumption was practiced using rejection, reduction and reuse, aligning needs of the individual and the needs for environmental preservation

Hoffmann, S.	2011	To explore how different motives drive participation in consumer boycotts	Content analysis	Internet postings of 790 boycott supporters	Some consumers join boycotts because they feel solidarity with those affected by the actions of a company (resistance-boycotter), whereas others generally criticize the free-market economy and are generally prone to boycott any company (anti-consumption-boycotters).
Ozanne, L. K., Ballantine, P. W.	2010	To find out if consumers who reduce consumption through choosing to share rather than own are motivated by anti-consumption reasons	Survey	397 toy library members from New Zealand	Study revealed four groups of anti-consumers: Socialites, Market Avoiders, Quiet Anti-Consumers and Passive Members, and confirmed that sharing may be one of the possible alternatives adopted by anti-consumers.
Sharp, A., Høj, S., Wheeler, M.	2010	To find out whether proscription of a habitual consumption item can act as a mechanism to develop anti-consumption behaviour and attitudes	Telephone interviews before and after proscription	1167 shoppers	Study revealed that proscription is effective to achieve anti-consumption behaviours, however, proscription does not necessarily determine full anti-consumption attitudes.

Bettany, S., Kerrane, B.	2011	To analyse urban hen-keeping culture to determine multiple aspects of consumption/anti-consumption and consumer resistance/dominance in home food production	In-situ, in-depth ethnographic interviews	11 urban hen-keepers	Complex constructions of the meaning of egg consumption by consumers were determined.
Kaynak, R., Eksi, S.	2011	To examine power of ethnocentrism, religiosity, environmental and health cautiousness for voluntary simplifiers and global impact consumers	Survey based on Iyer and Muncy (2009) scale	503 respondents from Turkey	Ethnocentrism, environmental and health cautiousness have significant impact on anti-consumers, whereas religiosity has negative impact.
Schreurs, J., Martens, P., Kok, G.	2012	To examine the experiences and motives of downshifter in the context of consumers society	Phenomenological field research	15 voluntary and involuntary downshifter	Living with less was found being primarily a life matter instead of a purely financial matter: reorganizing expenses meant reorganizing life.

In conclusion, it can be stated that different theories were used for researching green consumption, however, mostly qualitative research methods were used for the research of anti-consumption practises. Whereas for the analysing the factors determining the practises of green consumption and consumption reduction in the context of “usual” consumption the quantitative research methods should be used. However, firstly it is necessary to define the factors determining different consumption practises, therefore they will be presented and analysed in the next chapter.

3. Factors determining type of consumption

3.1. Factors influencing green consumption

In previous chapters general differences and similarities between green consumption and anti-consumption were analysed. In this chapter the specific factors influencing either green consumption or consumption reduction (or even both) will be presented and analysed. It is very important to determine factors influencing different consumption options because further in this dissertation based on these factors a model for green consumer behaviour will be presented.

The factors, which were analysed by the researchers in the field of green consumption, can be divided into several categories:

- Personal factors
- External factors
- Demographic characteristics

In this thesis, the term green consumption is chosen as compared to ethical, socially responsible or sustainable consumption because such consumption aspects as fair trade, social justice, political incentives and long term holistic approach are not considered further in this dissertation.

Personal factors

There are many personal factors that, according to scientific literature, can influence consumers. Personal factors have positive relation to green consumer behaviour (Jansson et al, 2010), especially when high involvement products are analysed.

Personal values, opinions, and norms (Jansson et al, 2010; Chen, Chai, 2010; Stern, 2000; Schwartz, 1968):

All personal factors start from consumer values, which influence

consumer behaviour, which then influences green consumer behaviour (Stern, 2000). Such personal factors as personal values (biospheric, altruistic, and egoistic) also come from the Value-Belief-Norm Theory (Stern, 2000). Whereas personal norms, coming from the Norm Activation Model (Schwartz, 1968) have positive impact on consumers attitude towards green products (Chen, Chai, 2010) and motivate environmentally friendly consumer behaviour (Stern, 2000).

Other more specific and more directly related to green consumption personal factors are: environmental knowledge, environmental concern, environmental responsibility as well as attitude towards the environment, environmental protection, green products and services. However, the explanation of these factors overlaps among different researchers. Therefore, often it is difficult to distinguish the differences between the mentioned factors, as authors use different constructs which have some similar statements for measuring different factors.

Environmental knowledge (Barber et al, 2009; Mostafa, 2007; Finisterra do Paço, Raposo, 2008; Abdul-Muhmin, 2007; Diamantopoulos et al, 2003):

Environmental knowledge shows how much a person knows about environmental questions and problems. Diamantopoulos et al (2003) and Mostafa (2007) have proved that deeper environmental knowledge makes consumers change their attitude and to behave in a more responsible and green (Barber et al, 2009) manner, and that this of behaviour is more common among males. Researches also have shown that knowledge about the environment influences every step of the purchase process (Finisterra do Paço, Raposo, 2008) and is a crucial aspect influencing the overall consumer concern about the environment (Abdul-Muhmin, 2007).

Environmental concern (Zhao et al, 2014; Kavaliauskė, Uždavinytė, 2013; Barber et al, 2010; Lee, 2008; Mostafa, 2007; Finisterra do Paço,

Raposo, 2008; Abdul-Muhmin, 2007; Gilg et al, 2005; Dunlap et al, 2000; Follows, Jobber, 2000; Lindeman, Väänänen; 2000; Stern, 2000):

Environmental concern is a general attitude that reflects to what extent a consumer is worried about threats to the environment, their consequences to the nature and the future generations, and the required protection of environment in order to save it (Abdul-Muhmin, 2007). Environmental concern depends on the type of values a consumer expresses: biospheric, altruistic (which influence green consumer behaviour positively), and egoistic (which influences consumers negatively) (Lee, 2008; Stern, 2000). However, in general, environmental concern can be named as a social altruistic value and opposite to biospheric or egoistic concerns (Abdul-Muhmin, 2007). In addition, it can be stated that environmental concern in particular is one of the most important factors influencing green consumer behaviour (Lee, 2008).

Zhao et al (2014) in their research in China found that green purchase behaviour is mainly influenced by environmental concern, which is very closely linked to environmental knowledge. Abdul-Muhmin (2007) also emphasize that environmental concern is influenced by environmental knowledge and perceived seriousness of threats to local and global environment. It means that a person can be concerned about the environment only if he or she understands the possible threats and possesses a sufficient amount of knowledge about the existing environmental problems. Also Abdul-Muhmin (2007) stressed that local environment is more related to personal consequences to the consumer, which confirms the statement of Follows and Jobber (2000) who segregated individual consequences and environmental consequences and proved their influence on intention to purchase. What is more, according to Abdul-Muhmin (2007), if a person possesses at least some past experience of environmentally friendly behaviour, he or she will be much more concerned about the environment in general. Gilg et al (2005) found that less environmentally concerned people tend to think that environmental problems should be solved by the government, whereas highly environmentally concerned people tend to think that they are also responsible for environmental

problems.

Research by Kavaliauskė and Uždavinytė (2013) revealed that consumer environmental concern is influenced by personal and social factors, which means that consumers take into account not only society level problems, but also personal level aspects when expressing environmental concern. What is more, research results of Lee (2008) and Lindeman with Väänänen (2000) revealed that concerns about environmental problems had the biggest and most important influence on the choice for organic products.

Attitude to environment and environmental protection (Barber et al, 2010; Chen, Chai, 2010; Barber et al, 2009; Lee, 2008; Chyong et al, 2006; Durham, Andrade, 2005; Tanner, Kast, 2003); **Attitude to green products and services** (Chen, Chai, 2010; Pickett-Baker, Ozaki, 2008);

Some of the investigations have shown that the attitude towards the environment is one of the strongest green consumer behaviour influencing factors (Chyong et al, 2006; Tanner, Kast, 2003), but the findings of Lee (2008) have shown that attitude towards the environment made the least influence on green behaviour of women in Hong Kong. Chen and Chai (2010) in their study proved that there is no strong connection between attitude to environmental protection and perception of green products, but those who feel morally obliged to take care of the environment finally begin to be positive about green products. In addition, the greater the environmental problem is, the greater is the chance that users will act responsibly in relation to the environment (Lee, 2008). Barber et al (2010) explained that attitude towards the environment is very much influenced by the objective environmental knowledge, which implies that attitude towards the environment and environmental concern might be quite similar factors (Barber et al, 2009). In addition, the stronger the attitude of a consumer towards the environment, the more willing is the consumer to buy environmentally friendly products (Barber et al, 2010). In general, Durham and Andrade (2005) suggested that consumer attitudes about the environment and health are among the main factors

influencing consumers' choice of organic products.

Environmental responsibility (Milfont et al, 2010; Lee, 2008; Jimenez, Yang, 2008);

Approach towards the environment is directly related to environmental responsibility. Thus, a person who has a positive attitude towards the environment often acts responsibly and will tend to use green products or services (Lee, 2008). Therefore, an emphasis on personal responsibility of consumers for environmental problems could lead to positive consumer response, and their green behaviour (Milfont et al, 2010), but a company has a responsibility not to overdo using green marketing, since a strong emphasis on environmental responsibility can cause a negative reaction towards a proposed green brand and discourage purchase (Jimenez, Yang, 2008).

Past personal behaviour practice / experience (Paco, Raposo, 2009; Cornelissen et al, 2008; Pickett-Baker, Ozaki 2008; Abdul-Muhmin, 2007);

Green consumer behaviour is strongly influenced by personal past experience, the behaviour practices a consumer had. Past environmentally friendly behaviour is understood as previous experience in performed environmentally friendly actions (Abdul-Muhmin, 2007). Thus, the more a person is exposed to green behaviour, green products, and services, the greater the chance is that the consumer will act so by himself or herself and will choose green goods and services. However, personal experience also consists of experience from other people and surrounding environment, as well as green or environmental experience communicated by the media (Paco, Raposo, 2009, Pickett-Baker, Ozaki 2008). For people it is often difficult to identify their behaviour, some experience or habits as green behaviour, and only with the help from their surrounding environment they can be convinced as already having green behaviour experience, which encourages them to further intensify this behaviour and make it a daily routine (Cornelissen et al, 2008). Also, according to Abdul-Muhmin (2007), past behaviour has only an indirect effect

on concern through perceived psychological consequences.

Motivation (Tabernerero et al, 2011; Moisander, 2007);

Individuals with high self-motivation also are more likely to be friendly to the environment because they motivate themselves to put in extra effort to waste-sorting, recycling, and other environmental activities (Tabernerero et al, 2011). However, people need to feel that their actions to protect the environment and their green behaviour will positively affect environmental problems, because otherwise they might run out of reasons and motivation to act so (Moisander, 2007).

Identification with influence group (Biswas, Roy, 2015; Anantharaman, 2014; Brace-Govan, 2012; Goldstein et al, 2008; Cherrier, 2007; Moisander, 2007; Muniz and O'Guinn, 2001);

Green consumerism has the social nature of both environmental concern and consumer behaviour (Atio et al, 2009), which is influenced by the collective action of consumer organisations and adoption of community-oriented marketing by green marketers (Moisander, 2007; Muniz, O'Guinn, 2001). Therefore, green consumer behaviour can be influenced by the group consumers belongs to (Goldstein et al, 2008; Cherrier, 2007), which might be very specific (like family, friends, colleagues, etc.), or very broad (like citizens, women, etc.). These influence groups have a huge impact on consumers and can lead them to choose green products, because consumers tend to trust the groups they are connected to.

Brace-Govan (2012) state that role models are very influential, especially for young adults. Role models can be direct (like parents or friends) or indirect (like celebrities). Quite often the influence from role models is made through communities people belong to, therefore influence of a role model can be both positive and negative. That is why these role models can influence people to act in an unexpected way, which in many cases can be positive, like sustainable behaviour.

Biswas and Roy (2015) found that in India consumers who prefer green products are very sensitive to peer influence and social recognition, therefore, if the green product does not meet consumers expectations, great harm can be done by negative word of mouth. Whereas, Anantharaman (2014) found that in India environmentally orientated behaviour can be implemented using pressure from the society, like influence of environmentally orientated neighbours. The reason for this is the fact that economically, socially and politically advanced new middle class in India creates new social norms, where pro-environmental behaviour, like recycling and composting, buying organic food, engaging in terrace gardening, and cycling is encouraged.

Health (Bonn et al, 2015; Kavaliauskė, Ubartaitė, 2014; Salleh et al, 2010; Michaelidou, Hassan, 2008; Hughner, 2007; Rembiakowska, 2007; Verhoef, 2005; Tarkianen, Sundqvist, 2005; Maynard, Franklin, 2003; Magnusson et al, 2003; Łatacz-Lohmann, Foster, 1997; Davies et al, 1995).

Health factor becomes very important for consumers in relation to certain products categories like food (usually named as organic), cosmetics and household chemicals. Most of the researches that analysed motivation of consumers found out that the main motives to choose organic products include social and cultural factors, price, product quality and personal factors such as emotions and concerns about health (Hughner, 2007, Verhoef, 2005).

The studies which analysed consumer perceptions about organic food, attitudes and factors influencing the purchase of goods, concluded that in most cases consumers prefer organic products due to high concerns about their health (Łatacz-Lohmann, Foster, 1997; Davies et al, 1995). Promotion of a healthy lifestyle has a positive influence on the choice of organic ingredients, as consumers tend to choose high quality, nutritious, and healthy food (Bonn et al, 2015; Maynard, Franklin, 2003). They look more favourably on organic food because it is perceived as healthier, more nutritious, and friendlier to environment (Kavaliauskė, Ubartaitė, 2014; Rembiakowska, 2007). Magnusson et al (2003) confirmed in his investigation that consumers with

rather high health concerns more often make decision to choose organic products instead of normal everyday products.

The opposite view is shared by Mihaelidou and Hassan (2008), whose study found no statistically significant links between health concerns and intention to buy organic food. Tarkianen and Sundqvist (2005) and Michaelidou and Hassan (2008) argue that the influence of health concerns on consumer purchase is the weakest. Authors argue that ethics and values have the largest influence so far on buying organic products (Tarkianen, Sundqvist, 2005; Michaelidou, Hassan, 2008). Results of the research, conducted in New Zealand, showed that consumers are mainly affected by concerns about health and environmental problems, while in Denmark purchasing of organic products was mostly related to concerns about the environment (Salleh et al, 2010). It is obvious that in the case of green consumption, health aspect is very important but it cannot exist without environmental values; also, the impact of health very much depends on the product group.

Product safety / composition (Dewald et al, 2014; Kavaliauskė, Ubartaitė, 2014; Shahrudin, 2010; Mihaelidou, Hassan, 2008; Krystallis, Chrysosoidis, 2006; Saher et al, 2006; Rimal, Moon, Balasubramanian, 2005; Tarkiainen, Sundqvist 2005; Williams, Hammit, 2001);

Concerns about food composition, its safety has an important and significant impact on consumer decision to choose green products. In addition, product composition and safety are very closely related to health concerns. A research by Kavaliauskė and Ubartaitė (2014) revealed that concerns about health also had positive influence on intention to buy organic products and positively correlated with concerns about product composition. The research of Dewald et al (2014) found that fresh ingredients and health aspects were the most important factors when choosing to eat in green restaurants.

The consumers perceive safe food as food containing no chemicals and genetically modified organisms (Mihaelidou, Hassan, 2008). Michaelidou's study confirmed the fact that concerns about food safety is one of the most

important factors determining consumer purchase decision. Rimal, Moon and Balasubramanian (2005) confirmed this fact by studies in the United Kingdom, because the most important factor on the intention to buy organic products was the concern about food composition and safety. According to Williams and Hammit (2001), consumers who purchase products with organic ingredients tend to believe that due to their composition these products are healthier and less dangerous. Krystallis, Chrysohoidis (2006), who stated that consumers buying organic products are much more likely to pay more for these products simply because, in their view, organic products are much healthier, confirmed this. The survey, during which 3,000 students in Finland were questioned, has confirmed that consumers chose organic food because they considered it being healthier than conventional products (Saher et al, 2006).

Other authors confirm Mihaelidou and Hassan's findings, claiming that food safety is an important factor in purchase process, however, it is not always a direct determinant of the purchase rather just the determinant of the intention to buy (Tarkiainen, Sundqvist 2005). On the other hand, although these authors emphasize the importance of food safety on intention to purchase organic products, according to Shaharudin (2010), this factor has statistically a very small impact on consumers' decision to buy because concerns about health factor makes a greater impact on the purchase of organic products compared to food safety concerns.

External factors

According to many researches, influence of green marketing is one of the most important external factors having impact on green consumer behaviour. As for any products consumers intend to buy, they face a huge flood of information, whether they are buying high involvement products like automobiles, or low involvement products like bread or whether they are choosing second hand products. Now consumers have to deal with contradicting information and pressure that covers everything not only from the usual advertising pressure to purchase and consume more to all

environmental, ethical, and health related information from companies offering these products, but also from various media, informal communication networks, governments, scientists, etc. Finally, consumers end flooded by information and not knowing which information is trustworthy (Cherrier, 2007).

The main problem that organizations face while applying green marketing principles is the question of who the green consumer is and how can he or she be affected to establish a stable and even increasing demand for green products and services. In general, green marketing emerged because society demanded green products and services (Jain, Kaur, 2004; Zinkhan, Carlson, 1995), but companies also seek financial benefit, therefore, after the existing needs of green consumers are met, companies seek to expand this market (Peattie, Crane, 2005), especially in global scale (Gurau, Ranchhod, 2005; Pugh, Fletcher, 2005). It can be stated that green consumers and green marketing acts like influence and dependence circle, where both sides continuously influence each other (Schaefer, 2005; Jain, Kaur, 2004).

Green marketing (Bonn et al, 2015; Barber et al, 2010; Dolnicar, Leisch, 2007; Cherrier, 2007; Tadjewski, Wagner-Tsukamoto, 2006; Peattie, 2001);

Environmental concern started to be integrated into marketing practices and principles more than 40 years ago. During this period of time the relation between the environment and the economy has changed, therefore understanding of green marketing also has changed as well. At the beginning, ecological marketing only narrowly focused on reducing society's dependence on particularly damaging products. Later it evolved into environmental marketing which aimed at reducing environmental damage by tapping into green consumer demand and opportunities for competitive advantage. Finally, a more radical approach emerged, named sustainable marketing, which seeks to cover full environmental costs of production and consumption and to create a sustainable economy (Peattie, 2001).

One option for incorporating environmental responsibility in consumer behaviour is to attract consumers who are fundamentally interested in protecting the environment and consequently are willing to behave in a way that leads to smaller ecological footprint (Barber et al, 2010). However, selective marketing techniques can be used to attract environmentally oriented consumers (Dolnicar, Leisch, 2007) and to be effective (Barber et al, 2010). Firstly, sustainable marketing must become a strategy of a company instead of being a collection of random actions. Secondly, green marketing should avoid “green-washing”, which might mislead consumers by presenting false information on the environmental benefits of a product. Finally, marketing needs to use very accurate segmentation of environmentally conscious members of the society (Barber, Taylor, Strick, 2010) because green consumption is not the only form for expressing their personal green beliefs.

Consumers who are already involved in green consumption have the channels of information they trust, that is why advertising for green consumers has to be very cautious and clear (Barber et al, 2010; Dolnicar, Leisch, 2007), but not flooding with useless information (Tadajewski, Wagner-Tsukamoto, 2006). For example, Bonn et al (2015) found that consumers’ intentions about organic wine are affected by trust in sustainable actions carried out by retailers of organic wine. Also Bonn et al (2015) pointed out that communication about health and price aspects of organic wine is crucial in building consumers’ trust by carrying out the main communication efforts in shops, like providing displays and focusing on product labels. However, Cherrier (2007) states that ethical consumers can always make decisions about their consumption practices. She, however, also raises a question of what these decisions are worth and whether they might be based on questionable information.

Therefore, the main tools of green marketing are as follows: green advertising, eco brands, eco labels, environmentally friendly packages and design, and social actions (Rahbar, Wahid, 2011; Leonidou, Leonidou, 2010; Nik Abdul Rashid, 2009; D’Souza et al, 2006; Sammer, Wustenhagen, 2006;

Karna et al, 2001; Menon et al, 1999; Banerjee et al, 1995), but all these tools can only be successful if they are positively perceived by consumers (Rahbar, Wahid, 2011).

Green advertising (Rademaker et al, 2015; Rahim et al, 2012; Leonidou, Leonidou 2010; D'Souza et al, 2006; Banerjee et al, 1995);

The role of green marketing in motivating green consumption is complicated, because to some extent green marketing and especially green advertising has a positive impact on green consumer behaviour, however, if green advertising becomes too intensive, consumers perceive it as annoying and tend to ignore advertised product. A research conducted by Rahim et al (2012), who analysed young Malaysian consumers, justified that consumers were aware about green advertising promoted by the government, but had quite a low understanding about green living issues and did not practice it due to the lack of comprehensive understanding about the green living concept. This means that the content of green advertising was not adjusted to young consumers' understanding.

Therefore, Leonidou and Leonidou (2010) developed 3 major categories to which green advertisements fall to:

- 1) directly or indirectly addressing the relationship between a product/service and the natural environment;
- 2) promoting an environmentally responsible lifestyle with or without highlighting a product/service;
- 3) presenting an image of corporate environmental responsibility.

According to Banerjee et al (1995) green advertisements have an educational content, others are purely commercial in nature, and still others are image-focused. D'Souza et al (2006) state that advertising terms such as 'recyclable', 'environmentally friendly', 'ozone safe', 'biodegradable' have become popular in green advertisements and consumers are often exposed to such messages, but some of these messages are met with resistance. For example, obesity is related to overconsumption of food, which currently is very

actively promoted by advertisements that inform consumers on what kind of food is good or bad, how to choose healthy food, who to consult about eating and who to follow, what can the food we choose tell about us as individuals and as members of the society. On the other hand, these advertisements do not tell us to reduce consumption of unnecessary food in general (Gard, 2011), which could in its turn reduce the problem of obesity. Therefore, consumers are pressured to apply voluntary self-regulation when they are targeted information from various companies and external organizations. In this way consumers get involved into society issues more heavily just because of their consumption choices (Potter, 2011).

Often marketing of ethical products is quite different from the usual marketing, as, for example, in advertising ethical brands tell various stories about the problems of the world, which particular products help to solve, or stories about the founders of a brand and their specific experience related to ethical issues (Potter, 2011). Rademaker et al (2015) in their research revealed that in the case of green products, not only green product characteristics and green brand image is important for the effectiveness of an advertisement, but also the eco-image of the media certain advertisements are placed into. Therefore, it is very important for companies to achieve have full consistency in all aspects of their green advertisement campaigns.

D'Souza et al (2006) revealed that there is a substantial difference between high and low involved consumers with respect to green advertising topics. In their research, highly involved consumers considered all topics important, however, they did not find green ads convincing enough. While low-involved respondents expressed little support for environmentally oriented cause related consumer promotions. These results confirm the influence of extensive propaganda by the media and exaggeration of green advertising (D'Souza et al, 2006).

Eco-labels (Kavaliauskė, Vaskiv, Šeimienė, 2013; Cherrier, 2007; Rex, Baumann, 2007; Crane, 2005; D'Souza, 2004; D'Souza, 2000; Caswell,

Mojduszka, 1996);

Eco-labels are the types of product labels companies identify their products and services with to communicate information of product environmental impact and thus to help consumers make decisions about their consumption choices (Rex, Baumann, 2007). Companies engaged with selling eco-labelled products in various ways, from a narrow specialization in niche market up to more mainstream market (Crane, 2005). For eco-labels to become a successful environmental tool, information communicated to consumers through eco-labels should be understood and accepted. In addition, the product itself should not be misleading (D'Souza, 2000). Studies indicate that consumers perceive environmental labels as necessary; however, they are often confused by the terminology used on eco-labels (D'Souza, 2004; Caswell, Mojduszka, 1996). What is more, so many eco labels are introduced in the market that it becomes already unclear what the goal of eco-labels is: to inform consumers and give them trustful information about the labelled product or just to sell the product by claiming some green characteristics which might attract the consumer (Cherrier, 2007).

What is more, Atkinson and Rosenthal (2014) found that eco-labels lead not to green products purchase intention, but to consumers' trust in labelled green products. However, information an eco-label provides has to be detailed and persuasive. In addition, Atkinson and Rosenthal (2014) pointed out that trust in eco-labels is higher with low involvement products, such as food, because people care more about what they eat, than about the environmental impact of their smartphones (which would be a high involvement product). However, Harms and Linton (2015) found that eco-labels (or eco-certificates), if trusted, might lead to willingness to pay a higher price for green products.

Research performed by Kavaliauskė, Vaskiv and Šeimienė (2013) revealed that eco-labels solely cannot influence green purchase because it has to be accompanied by other product aspects. One of the main findings in the area of consumer perception of ecological labels was an exhibited distrust towards companies and certification agencies. Among the biggest concerns that

the study participants had about eco-labelled products was the perceived increase in prices. Therefore, the price issue should be better addressed in advertisements of eco-labels, so that consumers become aware that pureness and authenticity of products does not necessarily imply much higher prices on the market. Finally, participants emphasized that although lower environmental impact of eco-labelled organic products is a positive attribute, the main reason to purchase organic products is the wish to protect one's health. Therefore, this aspect also has to be incorporated into advertising.

Demographics

Most of the researches on green consumer behaviour specifically examined the influence of consumers' characteristics on consumers' intentions to purchase green products or services, or tried to identify green consumers segments. Results from these studies revealed that such demographic variables as income, education, and age cannot predict green consumer behaviour alone and are always mixed with environmental concern and other factors (Barber, Taylor, Strick, 2010). However, the main demographic characteristics that various scientists distinguished are:

- 1) Age (Kavaliauskė, Ubartaitė, 2014; Barber et al, 2010; Pickett-Baker, Ozaki 2008; Vlosky, Vlosky, 1999);
- 2) Gender (Barber et al, 2010; Lee, 2008; Mostafa, 2007; Gilg et al, 2005; Diamantopoulos et al, 2003; Zelezny et al, 2000; Agarwal, 2000);
- 3) Education (Jansson et al, 2010; Barber et al, 2010; Paco, Raposo, 2009);
- 4) Income (Jansson et al, 2010; Barber et al, 2010; Paco, Raposo, 2009);
- 5) Social class (Paco, Raposo, 2009; Littler, 2009).

Studies about the influence of **age** on green consumer behaviour showed that the effect of age is small (Pickett-Baker, Ozaki 2008), but the older a consumer is, the less likely he or she will become a green consumer (Kavaliauskė, Ubartaitė, 2014; Barber et al, 2010). However, not only age

matters, but also attributing a consumer to a certain generation (Barber et al, 2010; Vlosky, Vlosky, 1999). The research by Carrigan et al (2004) revealed that even though older consumers are willing to choose ethical products, they are more influenced by certain social values, which, if not met, may discourage them from buying certain products. Whereas, Zhao et al (2014) found that reusing and recycling behaviours are more common among older generations.

Very many studies have been conducted focusing on gender issues, however, they have presented contradictory results, as some of them have found that women are more likely to become green consumers (Gilg et al, 2005; Diamantopoulos et al, 2003; Zelezny et al, 2000), while other studies found the same about males (Mostafa, 2007). These results can be explained by variations of scopes and cultural differences of the consumers surveyed.

Jansson, Marell and Nordlund (2010) and Gilg et al (2005) found that **education** has a positive effect to willingness to adopt green consumption practises as higher educated individuals (who also often have higher income) are more knowledgeable and have better financial capabilities. Whereas, Zhao et al (2014) found that education is the most important factor for green purchase behaviour, since the more educated a person is, the more he or she is willing to purchase green products. Paco and Raposo (2009) stated that consumers with higher educational levels usually have access to more information, therefore, they are able to display greater environmental concern.

In most of the researches it was determined that **income** is positively correlated with environmental sensitivity (Paco, Raposo, 2009), because such serious problems like unemployment, uneven distribution of income, and poor access to health-care facilities discourage people from environmental activism and green consumption as such (Jain, Kaur, 2004).

Social class has not been analysed much in the context of green consumer behaviour, because occupation, income, and educational level are some of the variables that are correlated with social class, however, these, in isolation, cannot be assigned to a specific social class (Paco, Raposo, 2009). Littler (2009), on the other hand, argues that social class very strongly

influences what is defined as acceptable and good consumption for specific parts of the society. It depends on the values, cultural capital and taste of a specific social class.

3.2. Factors influencing anti-consumption

Practices of anti-consumption integrate processes of rejecting, reducing, and reusing products, brands, or consumption activities. All these mentioned processes move consumers to a more sustainable consumption. However, anti-consumption requires more involvement and a sacrifice of some individual needs from consumers. Anti-consumption requires consumers to change their usual lifestyle, based on wealth and money, to a different approach, based on environmental consciousness, morality and individualization of responsibility (Press, Arnould, 2009). Whereas, after reducing or even rejecting consumption, such individual needs as independence, beauty, quality, and value for money become even more difficult to achieve (Black, Cherrier, 2010). This means that anti-consumption can be classified as a part of sustainable living, but from consumers it requires more involvement and care for the environment than simple green consumption where “usual” products are changed into green alternatives. What is more, green consumption might be practiced by consumers who are not fully environmentally conscious and might be driven by other values, attitudes, and beliefs, whereas anti-consumption requires truly environmentally concerned people willing to act every day to reduce their impact on the environment and society (Press, Arnould, 2009; Ottman, 2011).

Since green consumption factors were listed and described in the previous chapter, factors determining anti-consumption are presented further in this dissertation.

Personal identity (Lee et al, 2011; Lee, 2009; Sandikci, Ekici, 2009; Black, Cherrier, 2010; Craig-Lees, Hill, 2002; Zavestoski, 2002);

Although most of the studies in anti-consumption have focused on the reasons behind brand avoidance (Lee, 2009), yet practices of anti-consumption

are still elements of sustainable lifestyles. In addition, sustainable lifestyle has a certain ideology that a person follows. For example, Black and Cherrier (2010) state that motivations for sustainable consumers' actions are not primarily driven by concern over the environment, but instead by self-expression, self-concept (Black, Cherrier, 2010; Craig-Lees, Hill, 2002), or certain ideology they follow (Sandikci, Ekici, 2009). Therefore, self-identity (such as mother, wife, sister, artist, teacher, lawyer, etc.) under which a consumer chooses to consume certain green products or to choose anti-consumption instead also has a great influence on one's choices. Consumers fear to be perceived as deviant and acting outside the mainstream, therefore they do not practise sustainable consumption that could potentially conflict with their identities. However, anti-consumption practices are usually performed within consumers' existing identities and desired identities (Black, Cherrier, 2010), but only until they clash with self-identification. Also, Black, Cherrier (2010) found that in many cases family values are given priority over sustainability. Other examples showed the importance of hobby and work identities taking precedence over the issues of sustainability. Some people ideologically change the way they acquire and use products, for example, individuals who grow their own vegetables reclaim their identity or authenticity (Zavestoski, 2002) via production instead of consumption (Lee et al, 2011).

Collectivism (Albinsson et al, 2010; Seyfang, 2006; Bryant, Goodman, 2004);

Anti-consumption is tightly related to sharing and reuse of existing products, therefore people who practice anti-consumption have to be a part of a certain society. Albinsson et al (2010) stated that consumption has a negative impact on collective identity and sense of community. Bryant and Goodman (2004) stated that in the purchase of green, ethical, organic products and eco-labels, networks play a very important role in changing consumer tastes and practices and later very much encouraging anti-consumption, as these networks influence the solidarity of people.

Seyfang (2006) stressed the importance of the community in developing sustainable consumption through education, websites, literature, etc., that allow spreading information about ecology among people belonging to the community and thus increasing their motivation to behave in such a way. So, it is obvious that the influence from the community can lead to both green consumption and reduction of consumption, depending on what kind of community it is.

Personal habits and existing behavioural practices (Klockner, 2013; Jansson et al, 2010; Black, Cherrier, 2010; Huneke, 2005; Stern, 2000);

Personal habits related to “usual” consumption have a negative impact on green consumer behaviour, because if consumers want to start behaving responsibly, usually they must change their habits (Jansson et al, 2010). Black, Cherrier (2010) state that the wide range of anti-consumption possibilities allows consumers to express themselves mostly without any meaningful compromises, whereas the practise of green consumption requires consumers to make compromises. This statement can be explained by the fact that consumers usually do not purchase or use green products or brands in order to be more sustainable consumers, because they often fail to adopt green consumption practices in the long term. Also, consumers admitted that in the case of green consumption failure they continue to use “usual” products regularly. Therefore, Black, Cherrier (2010) found out that anti-consumption is a more integral part of consumers’ sustainable lifestyles than the purchase of green products.

What is more, the role of habits is very important in the context of intention to behave and the actual behaviour. Klockner (2013) states that with behaviours repeated often enough the influence of intentions becomes weaker, while simultaneously the influence of habits becomes stronger. The stronger the habit is, the more automatic certain behaviour becomes in the same situation.

Two most common measures of habits are (Klockner, 2013): Response Frequency Measure (Verplanken et al, 1994) and Self-Report Habit Index

(Verplanken and Orbell, 2003). Furthermore, the strength of certain behavioural practices can be evaluated in two ways (Klockner, 2013): by evaluating the frequency and stability of behaviour itself; or by comparing the intensity of the behaviour practiced by a certain person with that of other people. Huneke (2005) developed a scale of 21 items for evaluating voluntary simplification practices by focusing on such aspects as environmental/social responsibility, community, time use, limiting TV/ads, having less things and maintaining spiritual life. A study of the USA residents carried out by Huneke (2005) revealed that the reasons for adopting green behavioural practices are: environmental concern, dissatisfaction with a stressful life style, anti-consumption attitudes, need for a satisfying lifestyle, and need for authenticity. However, the respondents of Huneke's (2005) study indicated that consistency in adopting green practices is the most complicated issue, as many circumstances (such as lack of time, social and economic infrastructure) stop people from adopting these green practices in their everyday life.

Price (Bonn et al, 2015; Dewald et al, 2014; Kavaliauskė, Ubartaitė, 2014; Kavaliauskė, Uždavinytė, 2013; Zhen, Mansori, 2012; Black, Cherrier, 2010; Briz, Ward, 2009; Hughner, 2007; Chen, 2007; Verhoef, 2005; Padel, Foster, 2005; Tarkiainen, Sundqvist, 2005; Zanolli, Naspetti, 2002; Laroche et al, 2001);

The researchers showed that the role of price as one of the possible factors that influence green consumption is ambiguous. Verhoef (2005) argues that price is an essential component of a negative impact on both organic food purchase and frequency of purchase. People tend to buy less organic products, if their price is relatively high, higher than that of the usual everyday products (Briz and Ward, 2009). Padel and Foster (2005), Hughner (2007) and Zanolli and Naspetti (2002) argue that the higher price of green products is one of the main reasons for consumers to refuse to purchase green products. Zhen and Mansori (2012) add that the importance of price to the consumer very much depends on the value the consumer perceives to be getting from the product he or she buys.

Bonn et al (2015) found that environmental and health attributes of organic wine had a positive impact on consumers' behavioural intentions, whereas the price had a strong negative impact, however, he pointed out that consumers who trust producers or retailers become willing to pay higher price for organic wine.

The opposite view is shared by Chen (2007) and Tarkiainen with Sundqvist (2005). Their studies do not provide any information claiming that price may have a statistically significant impact on the consumer buying process (Chen, 2007; Tarkiainen, Sundqvist, 2005), arguing that environmental concerns are one of the key factors influencing consumer interest and purchase of green products.

The evidence of growing interest in environmentally cautious consumer behaviour is the increasing number of consumers who are willing to pay more for environmentally friendly products (Laroche et al, 2001). In their research Dewald et al (2014) found that more than half of consumers are willing to pay a higher price for eating in green restaurants. Chen (2007) determined that people who care about environmental protection eventually start buying green products, despite their bigger price. Whereas, in the research by Kavaliauskė and Ubartaitė (2014) price was perceived as affordable, and thus price had a positive impact on intention to buy organic products. In addition, the research of Kavaliauskė and Uždavinytė (2013) showed that consumers perceive price as important for intention to purchase green products but not as important as other personal factors.

However, according to Black and Cherrier (2010), price plays an important role in choosing anti-consumption instead of green consumption, if the price of ecological products is higher. If a consumer expresses sensitivity about money and saving is an important part of his or her identity, the idea of purchasing more expensive green products conflicts with one's core values because the consumer might not be convinced by the superiority of green products over conventional ones (Black, Cherrier, 2010). In addition, if environmental or other values are strong enough, the higher price of green products might lead to consumption reduction.

Simplicity (Schreurs et al, 2012; Kavaliauskè et al, 2012; Pentina, Amos, 2011; Black, Cherrier, 2010; Albinsson et al, 2010; Ballantine, Creery, 2010; Iyer, Muncy, 2009; Huneke, 2005; Craig-Lees, Hill, 2002; Leonard-Barton, 1981);

Consumers tend to reduce the usage of particular products, brands or consumption activities to minimal level (Black, Cherrier, 2010), especially when they realize that intensive consumption is harmful both for the society and the environment (Albinsson et al, 2010). Search for simplicity might lead to anti-consumption of a particular product (Schreurs et al, 2012; Pentina, Amos, 2011; Black, Cherrier, 2010), because consumers always try to choose products with the simplest consumption process (Kavaliauske et al, 2012). Voluntary simplification of consumption which means reducing of consumption and disposition of certain goods is inspired by several motives (Ballantine, Creery, 2010; Craig-Lees, Hill, 2002), like freedom of choice to lead a simpler life, general reduction of material consumption and others.

Product availability (Dewald et al, 2014; DePelsmacker et al, 2007; Tarkiainen A., Sundqvist S., 2005; Peattie, Crane, 2005)

Limited product availability or difficulty to find it is defined as discouraging green consumer behaviour (Dewald et al, 2014; DePelsmacker et al, 2007; Tarkiainen, Sundqvist, 2005; Peattie, Crane, 2005). Therefore, it can be presumed that any additional efforts required for consumption of green products might influence consumers' intention negatively and lead to one of the alternative options – “usual” consumption or consumption reduction, if a person does not care about the environment or if his or her “usual” consumption habits are very strong.

Trust in green products (Chen et al, 2015; Bonn et al, 2015)

Chen et al (2015) state that green trust is experience-based, which means that consumers build trust in green products based on their accumulated

experience with certain products or companies. Chen et al (2015) found that green trust is directly affected not only by product's environmental friendliness, but also by green satisfaction and green perceived quality. Whereas, Bonn et al (2015) stated that communication about health and price aspects of green products is crucial in building consumers trust, and even that such trust minimizes the negative impact of a higher price, which leads to purchase of green products.

In conclusion, it can be stated that there are many different factors that, according to scientific literature, influence green consumption or consumption reduction practises. Therefore, in the following chapter the most important factors are selected and described, and the research model is presented which includes the factors that influence consumers intention to purchase and consume green products instead of "usual" products variants, or intention to reduce purchase and consumption of products instead of green or "usual" products variants.

4. Research methodology on green consumer behaviour

4.1. Research aim

The new form of consumer behaviour is people engagement in deviant from “usual” consumer behaviour, because they aim to modify society’s cultural structure in order to improve it according to their beliefs (Amine and Gicquel, 2011). And the new belief is that green consumption goes too much into mainstream and motivates consumption itself as usually green products are more expensive, sold in smaller quantities, etc. (Chen, 2013; Verain et al, 2012; Gogia, Sharma, 2012; Horbach et al, 2012; Cao, 2011; Reijonen, 2011; Dangelico, Pujari, 2010; Jansson, 2009; Ndubisi, 2008; Pickett-Baket, Ozaki, 2008; Saviz, 2006; D’Souza et al, 2006).

Only some researchers analysed intentional reduction of consumption as an alternative form of green consumption, although, it plays a very important role in sustainability (Cherrier et al, 2011). Non-consumption can be classified in three ways (3 I’s): “intentional non-consumption” resulting from a decision not to consume something with exact intention, “incidental non-consumption” resulting from choice towards a preferred alternative which lead to non-consumption of other similar alternatives, and “ineligible non-consumption” that results when a person due to specific reasons cannot act as a consumer for a particular product (Cherrier et al, 2011). However, in this dissertation only “intentional non-consumption” will be analysed further. As people can express their values, ideas, beliefs and identity not only through consumption but also through anti-consumption (Cherrier, Murray, 2007). Thus, Bettany and Kerrane (2011) suggest that person interested in anti-consumption should focus on natural things and social individualization, whereas opposite consumer to anti-consumer would focus to unnatural things and domination. Thus, Cherrier et al (2011) state that practice of non-consumption serves as an identity marker associated with a perceived ideal of being a “good” desirable person and non-consumption activities are accessed with integration of personal and

environmental concerns to consumer personal lifestyle. Therefore, it can be confirmed that consumers involved in green consumption are similar to consumers who choose anti-consumption practices instead as both of these consumers are personally interested in green issues. According to the research of Autio et al (2009) it can be stated that consumer in the context of environmental issues can choose three types of consumption practices: to consume green product option, to consume “usual” (not green) product option, or to reduce consumption of any product option leading to total anti-consumption of that product option. Obviously some factors exist which motivate consumers to choose consumption reduction instead of green products variants or “usual” consumption practices.

However, it cannot be stated that anti-consumers apply consumption reduction in all consumption categories, in contrary, anti-consumers often face inconsistency by adopting consumption approaches in their simplified lifestyles, as attitude-behaviour gaps have been found quite often among anti-consumers (Moraes et al, 2008; Kozinets, 2002; Boulstridge, Carrigan, 2000; Dobscha, 1998). Therefore, green consumers should focus on identifying priorities (such as household energy use, food quality and mobility issues) (Spangenberg, Lorek, 2002), rather than preparing a long list of every life aspect to be ‘greened’. What is more, the study of Autio et al (2009) indicated that young people need to feel their sustainable actions making a difference, rather than inducing guilt and insecurity. Therefore, it is obvious that green consumption and anti-consumption are not opposite consumption practices as they might be motivated by similar values and other factors. But some differences among the influencing factors have to exist to justify the different outcomes in consumption practices compared to “usual” consumption.

What is more, based on the different nature of different products consumers can choose different anti-consumption practises. The most applicable form of anti-consumption is consumption reduction as it can be applied to all product categories, such as: food, cosmetics, clothes, car use, household equipment, etc. Nevertheless, other forms of anti-consumption such

as sharing can only be applied to product categories as clothes (especially for kids), cars, specific equipment, books, etc. Whereas reuse can be applied to all products that can be bought after somebody have already used it (cars, clothes, equipment). Finally, for such products categories as food or cosmetics, people can choose such anti-consumption practise as making (growing) products by themselves.

Therefore, the **aim of this empirical research** is to determine how personal characteristics, green practices, society pressure and perceived product accessibility factors influence consumer intention to purchase and consume green products and intention to reduce overall purchase and consumption of products.

4.2. Research model and hypothesis

Research model (Fig. 6) takes its theoretical basis from the Theory of Planned Behaviour (Ajzen, 1991). However, it is aimed to reflect the specifics of the green consumer behaviour in two forms (green consumption and consumption reduction) together with the consumption of the non-green (“usual”) products.

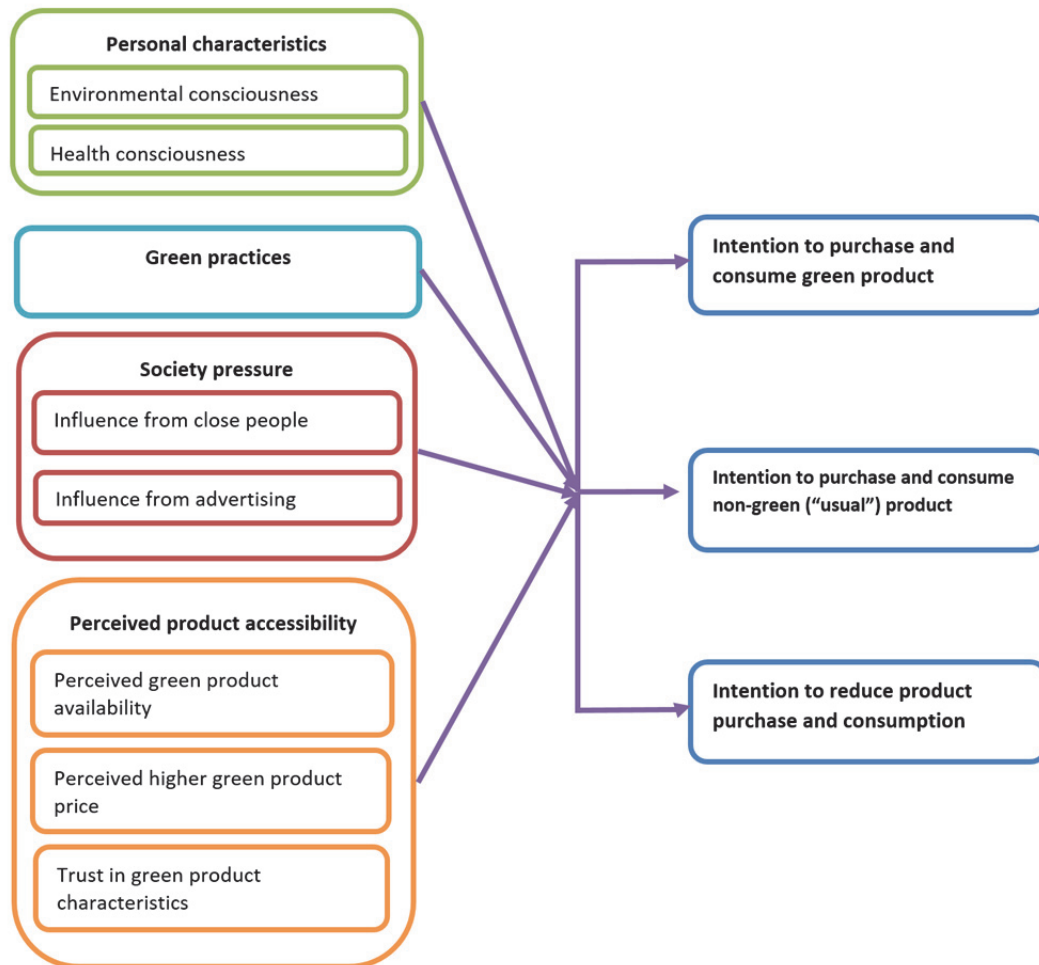


Figure 6. Research model on influence of personal characteristics, green practices, society pressure, and perceived product accessibility factors on green consumer behaviour

Based on the Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) the model presents personal characteristics, which determine attitude to behaviour called personal norm, according to TPB; green practices, which determine past behaviour; society pressure, which determines subjective norm concerning behaviour called social norm, according to TPB; and perceived product accessibility, which determine perceived behavioural control. Also environmental consciousness is representing New Environmental Paradigm theory. Personal characteristics and green practises can be named as personal factors, whereas influence from society and perceived product accessibility can be named as external factors.

4.2.1. Personal characteristics

Consumer personal characteristics reveal how much consumption practises represent consumer identity, how intensively consumer is concerned about environment and does consumer focus on environmental or personal health issues more. Durham and Andrade (2005) suggested that consumer attitudes about the environment and health are one of the main factors influencing consumers' choice for green products. Consumer personal characteristics form personal norm, which determines consumer attitude towards behaviour (Ajzen, 1991).

Such factors are consumer **environmental consciousness**, which unites both: consumer knowledge about environmental problems and consumer perception about its significance which might be leading to green consumption (Zhao et al, 2014; Kavaliauske, Uždavinytė, 2013; Barber et al, 2010; Dunlap, 2008; Lee, 2008; Mostafa, 2007; Finisterra do Paço, Raposo, 2008; Abdul-Muhmin, 2007; Follows, Jobber, 2000; Lindeman, Väänänen; 2000; Stern, 2000).

Consumers with high **personal health consciousness** usually are willing to choose green products, even despite their higher price (Dewald et al, 2014; Kavaliauskė, Ubartaitė, 2014; Salleh et al, 2010; Michaelidou, Hassan, 2008; Hughner, 2007; Rembiakowska, 2007; Verhoef, 2005; Tarkianen, Sundqvist, 2005; Maynard, Franklin, 2003; Magnusson et al, 2003; Davies et al, 1995; Łatacz-Lohmann, Foster, 1997).

Question whether environmental consciousness or health consciousness is more important for green consumers was analysed by various authors. Some of them confirmed the greater significance of health for green consumption (Kavaliauskė, Ubartaitė, 2014; Rembiakowska, 2007; Hughner, 2007; Verhoef, 2005; Magnusson et al, 2003; Łatacz-Lohmann, Foster, 1997; Davies et al, 1995). However, others (Michaelidou, Hassan, 2008; Tarkianen, Sundqvist, 2005) argued that health consciousness influence on green consumption is very weak or even non-existent.

Therefore, the following hypotheses were developed:

H1: Health consciousness has a stronger influence on intention to purchase and consume green products than environmental consciousness has.

H2A: Health consciousness has a positive influence on intention to purchase and consume green products.

H2B: Health consciousness has a negative influence on intention to purchase and consume usual products.

H2C: Health consciousness has a negative influence on intention to reduce any products purchase and consumption.

4.2.2. Green practices

Klockner (2013) criticized Theory of Planned Behaviour as not appropriate for analysing repeated behaviour, because it does not include any previous behavioural practices. So in this dissertation Theory of Planned Behaviour was extended with green practices, which determine actual behaviour. As consumers tend to change behavioural intentions if possible consumption practice opposes their routine habits. Many authors revealed that green consumption does not lead to simplification of consumption practices because the assortment of green products offered by various companies is already very wide (Cherrier et al, 2011). However, it is determined that for green consumption consumers always have to change their habits, which are quite difficult to implement in practice (Jansson et al, 2010; Stern, 2000). What is more, Black, Cherrier (2010) state that the wide range of anti-consumption possibilities allows consumers to express themselves mostly without any meaningful compromises, whereas consumers commonly do not purchase green products because they fail to adopt green consumption practices in the long term. In addition, consumers admitted that in case of green consumption failure they to continue to purchase “usual” products instead. Therefore, Black, Cherrier (2010) found out that anti-consumption is more integral part of consumers sustainable lifestyles than the purchase of green products.

What is more, Klockner (2013) stated that for often repeated behaviours the influence of intentions becomes weaker, while simultaneously the influence of habits becomes stronger. The stronger the habit is, the more usual certain behaviour becomes in the same situation. Huneke (2005) in his study found that consistency in adopting **green practices** is the most complicated issue, as many circumstances (such as lack of time, social, and economic infrastructure) stop people from adopting such voluntary simplification life style, as environmentally conscious behaviour, being socially active, green purchase practices, limiting exposure to advertising and maintaining life simplification practices.

Therefore, the following hypotheses were developed:

H3: Environmentally conscious behaviour practices have a stronger positive influence on intention to purchase and consume green products than environmental consciousness attitude does.

H4A: Green purchase practices have a positive influence on intention to purchase and consume green products.

H4B: Environmentally conscious behaviour practices have a negative influence on intention to purchase and consume usual products.

H4C: Life simplification practices have a positive influence on intention to reduce any products purchase and consumption.

4.2.3. Society pressure

Pressure from the society to choose green consumption practices might come from close people influence and from advertising with both potentially having quite significant impact on consumers' behaviour. Society pressure forms social norm, which determines consumer subjective norm towards behaviour (Ajzen, 1991).

Influence from close people is among the most influencing factors to consume green products (Biswas, Roy, 2015; Anantharaman, 2014; Goldstein et al, 2008; Moisander, 2007; Muniz, O'Guinn, 2001) and especially when green consumption goes mainstream. This pressure might come from influence

group as family, friends, colleagues (Anantharaman, 2014; Lee, 2009; Goldstein et al, 2008, Cherrier, 2007), opinion leaders (Kavaliauskè et al, 2012) or role models like parents, friends and celebrities (Brace-Govan, 2012).

Influence from advertising (Moisander, 2007; Muniz, O’Guinn, 2001) of companies producing and / or selling green products is also among the influencing factors (Bonn et al, 2015; Rahbar, Wahid, 2011; Leonidou, Leonidou, 2010; Nik Abdul Rashid, 2009; D’Souza et al, 2006; Sammer, Wustenhagen, 2006; Karna et al, 2001; Menon et al, 1999; Banerjee et al, 1995). However, if advertising is based on “usual” products, the consumer would choose “usual” consumption practices. Nevertheless, currently more and more advertising is based on green products and environmental problems, perceived as important by consumers (D’Souza et al, 2006). Therefore, consumers might be willing to choose the green product option, but only if they trust and understand information provided (Rahim et al, 2012).

However, pressure for choosing green consumption coming from close people and advertising might be considered as too aggressive (Rahbar, Wahid, 2011) and leading to increased consumption (despite the fact that of green products) compared to normal level of consumption.

Therefore, the following hypotheses were developed:

H5A: Influence from close people has a positive influence on intention to purchase and consume green products.

H5B: Influence from close people has a negative influence on intention to purchase and consume usual products.

H5C: Influence from close people has a positive influence on intention to reduce product purchase and consumption.

H6A: Influence from advertising has a positive influence on intention to purchase and consume green products.

H6B: Influence from advertising has a negative influence on intention to purchase and consume usual products.

H6C: Influence from advertising has a negative influence on intention to reduce any products purchase and consumption.

4.2.4. Perceived product accessibility

Such factors as price, limited product availability or its quality, required additional efforts for consumption are the factors influencing opposition to green consumption which might be considered as too complicated or expensive.

Price of green products is usually perceived as higher compared to “usual” products, therefore being one of the most important factors in refusing consumers from green consumption, as higher price of green products especially in less wealthy countries lead to low purchase of green products (Bonn et al, 2015; Dewald et al, 2014; Zhen, Mansori, 2012; Briz, Ward, 2009; Hughner, 2007; Padel, Foster, 2005; Verhoef, 2005; Zanolli, Naspetti, 2002).

According to marketing theory, every consumer seeks to acquire and consume the products in as simple way as possible. Therefore, limited **green product availability** is determined as discouraging green consumer behaviour (Dewald et al, 2014; DePelsmacker et al, 2007; Tarkiainen, Sundqvist, 2005; Peattie, Crane, 2005).

Finally, **trust in green product characteristics** might lead to green consumption and even willingness to pay a higher price for green products (Bonn et al, 2015; Chen, 2013). However, green trust is experience-based, which means that consumers build the trust in green products based on their cumulated experience with certain products or companies (Chen et al, 2015).

Therefore, the following hypotheses were developed:

H7A: Perceived higher green product price has a negative influence on intention to purchase and consume green products.

H7B: Perceived higher green product price has a positive influence on intention to purchase and consume usual products.

H8A: Perceived green product availability has a positive influence on intention to purchase and consume green products.

H8B: Perceived green product availability has a negative influence on intention to purchase and consume usual products.

H9A: Trust in green product characteristics has a positive influence on intention to purchase and consume green products.

H9B: Trust in green product characteristics has a negative influence on intention to purchase and consume usual products.

H9C: Trust in green product characteristics has a positive influence on intention to reduce any products purchase and consumption.

All the above-mentioned factors determine behavioural intention of consumer which might lead to consumption of either green product variant, either “usual” product variant, either anti-consumption of any product variant, but which might also differ according to product category. Therefore, further in this dissertation the research methods used for testing of theoretical model are presented.

4.3. Steps of empirical research on green consumer behaviour

To test the developed model (Fig. 6) within empirical research, combination of qualitative and quantitative research methods was applied (Fig. 7), and consisting of three steps.

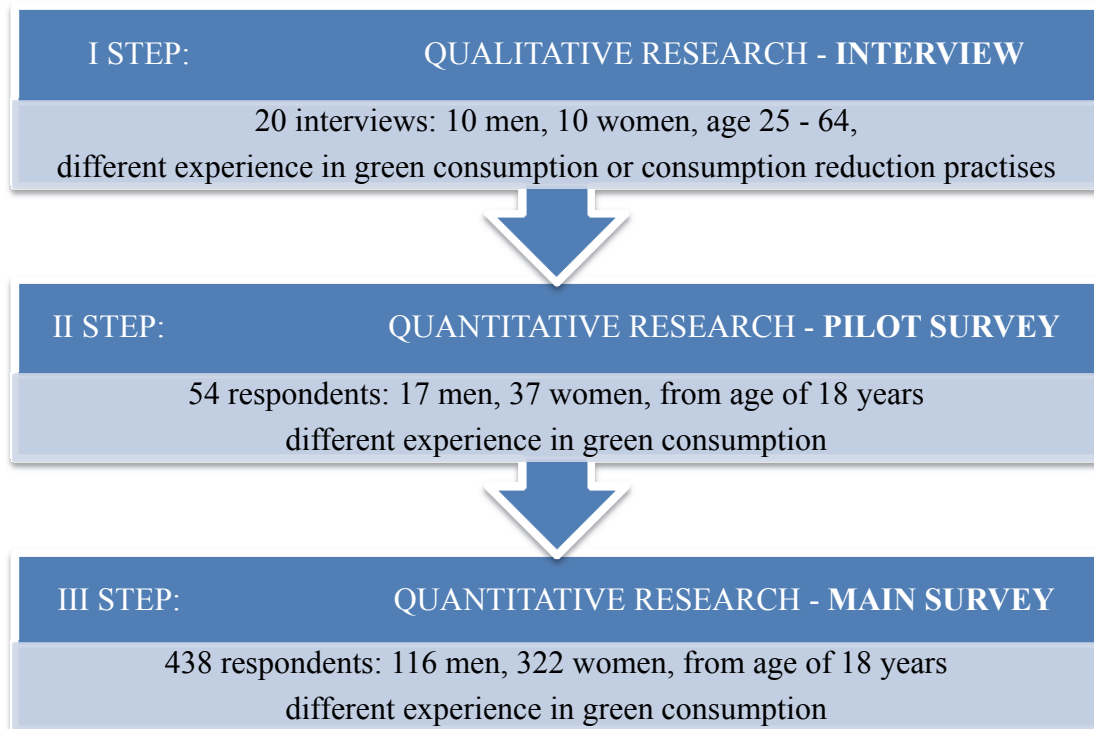


Figure 7. Steps of empirical research on green consumer behaviour

First of all, such qualitative research method as in-depth interviews was used as a pilot research method, allowing to prepare for the quantitative research. Such research process is called “qual-quant” research procedure. In-depth interviews were aimed to find out whether the factors based on literature research determining consumption of either green product variant, either “usual” product variant, either anti-consumption of any product variant are perceived by the respondents as really influencing on their consumption behaviour. In addition, these in-depth interviews allowed choosing the most common products categories within green consumption for further use in quantitative research.

In-depth interviews were carried out with 20 participants, 10 men, and 10 women representing different age groups, family status, and experience in green consumption or consumption reduction practises. The use of qualitative techniques allows researcher to feel the “real life” by analysing natural, ordinary events in local environment, be able to reveal the complexity of the phenomena and to adjust flexibly to the analysed context. What is more, qualitative research allows researcher to find out the meanings people give to the analysed objects, people perceptions and assumptions about certain issues, also to see their lifestyle (Miles, Huberman, 1994).

There are various forms of qualitative research, but in this research, interview as a qualitative research method was chosen because it allows interaction between interviewer and participant (Yin, 2011), also it allows to analyse the phenomena researcher is interested in more detail compared with focus groups (Quinlan et al, 2015; Lee, 2009). What is more, interviews are held in private which encourages the respondents to speak in more open way and to discuss more sensitive topics (Quinlan et al, 2015).

In this research in-depth, semi-structured interviews method was used. Structured interviews have formal questionnaire that lists every question to be asked (Yin, 2011), it allows researcher to ask all necessary questions and to get more detailed responses (Phillips, Stawarski, 2008). Therefore, in this case researcher had prepared interview scenario, where all necessary questions and

topics were indicated, but also encouraged interview participants to express their thoughts and experience in a broader perspective within the analysed topic.

After in-depth interviews, the second step of empirical research was carried out - pilot study in the form of survey to test the research instrument – questionnaire presented in chapter 4.6. According to Phillips and Stawarski (2008) to carry out a pilot study before the main survey is the most appropriate and effective way to design the final questionnaire, as it can be performed quickly with quite small sample. In addition, Tarnai and Moore (2004) state that such pretesting with real respondents is the most often used method among quantitative research methods. Therefore, 54 respondents from Vilnius participated in preliminary survey to test the developed questionnaire and the chosen products categories. More detailed information about pilot survey is presented in chapter 4.6.2.

Finally, the third step of empirical research was carried out – the main survey. According to Walliman (2011) survey research method has structured form, therefore is quite flexible and cheap to use, easy to administer, allows to cover large geographic area, but also convenient for survey participants and has no personal influence from researcher.

Therefore, the main survey was carried out during July, 2015 by professional research agency “Rinkos tyrimų centras”, which has an internet panel of respondents, representing the structure of internet users in Lithuania. The general sample was internet users from Lithuania, representing different genders, income, education, place of residence, etc. The detailed demographic characteristics of the survey are presented in chapter 4.6.3.2. Using services of professional research agency allows researcher to access internet panel that represents the structure of Lithuanian internet users, also allows to avoid such inaccuracies as missing values among the answers (as it is required to answer all questions), mistakes in questions wording (as final survey is reviewed by

company representatives), system issues (as professional survey system is used), differences in response ranges, etc. (Tarnai, Moore, 2004).

4.4. Qualitative research

4.4.1. Scenario development

The aim of qualitative research was to reveal how consumers understand green consumption, what factors shape their purchase and consumption decisions and to reveal product categories in which consumers most often use green products.

Preparation for qualitative research started from the development of interview scenario (see Annex 1). Interview scenario consisted of three parts: introduction, main exploratory part (consisting of 4 topics) and closing of the interview.

First dissertation topic, then research goal were developed: to determine product categories within which green consumption or consumption reduction are the most evident, to find out respondent opinion about and attitude to green consumption, green products and consumption reduction, also to reveal if green marketing and close people have influence on consumers.

Then scenario introduction part was designed. First of all, moderator should present himself and research topic. After presentation of moderator, respondent should present himself: age, family status, role in purchasing decision process – responsible for main part of purchasing, or participating in decision making.

After introduction, the questions for the main exploratory part of the interview were prepared. The questions were dedicated to explore the proposed research model (see fig. 6) and to find out the product categories for the further quantitative research.

Two types of questionnaires were prepared for the interview: questionnaire about respondents green practices (Annex 3) and questionnaire about product categories (Annex 2).

Questionnaire of green practices was prepared based on the voluntary simplification questionnaire developed by Huneke (2005). It consisted of 21 statements with seven-point Likert-type scales (1 = strongly disagree; 7 = strongly agree). Within this questionnaire 5 statements can be ascribed to green consumption practices (Buying locally grown produce; Buying environmentally friendly products; Buying from socially responsible producers; Buying from local merchants; Buying organic foods), whereas 6 statements can be ascribed to anti-consumption (Avoiding impulse purchases; Limiting exposure to ads; Limiting car use; Limiting/eliminating TV; Limiting wage-earning work; Making rather than buying gifts). This questionnaire would help to segment the respondents of interview according to their lifestyle in the context of green issues, and to compare their thoughts with quantitative measures.

Questionnaire of product categories consisted of 60 product categories from such products groups as: dairy, groceries, bread, meat, vegetable and fruits, food for children, drinks, body care, hair care, decorative cosmetics, hygiene and cosmetics for children, home care, clothes, toys. Respondent had to evaluate how much he perceives as ecological products what he buys from each product group (from 1 – „usual“, not ecological products to 10 – ecological products), who in the family are the main users of the product, or the respondent does not consume certain product category at all. These product categories were selected based on green products assortment in electronic ecological products shops. In addition, the questionnaire of product categories was tested on two respondents who buy ecological products, to check whether all product categories are included.

Interview scenario, questionnaire of green practices, and questionnaire of product categories were prepared in English language and then translated to Lithuanian because the respondents were from Lithuania and the interviews were held in Lithuanian language. Translation of interview scenario, questionnaire of green practices, and questionnaire of product categories were checked by professional editor.

4.4.2. Respondents of the interview

Respondents of the interview were selected based on their age, family status and lifestyle. Firstly, respondents who expressed positive attitude to green issues were chosen according to their preferences from various ecological life style forums in social media. Later, respondents recommended other respondents based on “snow ball” method, as respondents who are not interested in green consumption were also interviewed. Potential respondents were contacted by the interviewer by phone or email and asked to participate in the interview and answer questions about their lifestyle and consumption practices in the context of ecology. Also it was explained that the interviews are held as a part of research for dissertation at Vilnius University and that the identities of respondents will be held confidential. No financial incentives were offered for the interview participants, all interviewed participants agreed to participate in the interview for free.

It was decided that 20 respondents have to be interviewed, as Lee (2009) did on his research about brand avoidance. The respondents were divided into four age groups: 25-34, 35 – 44, 45 – 54, 55 – 64 years old. These age intervals were selected for the interviews in order to access people who already receive income independently, have certain (at least high school) education level, and represent age groups that use internet (as later in quantitative research only internet users in Lithuania were surveyed). In addition, respondents had different family status from being single and living alone to married people with several children or people whose children already moved out and live separately. The equal number of men and women were interview: 10 women, 10 men, also gender balance was equal in each age group.

The demographic characteristics of interview respondents is presented in Table 4.

Table 4. Demographic characteristics of interview respondents

Interview	Gender	Age	Family status	Housing	Car
Int 1, AIG	Female	28	Married, 1 child, 5 months	Renting apartment	1
Int 2, ANG	Male	29	Living with girlfriend	Buying apartment	1
Int 3, SAT	Female	38	Single	Own apartment	1
Int 4, INM	Female	36	Married	Own apartment	2
Int 5, GIB	Female	39	Single, 4 children (15, 11, 4 years)	Own apartment	1
Int 6, ROT	Male	57	Married, 3 children (live separately)	Own house	1
Int 7, TOG	Male	35	Single	Own apartment	1
Int 8, IGR	Male	28	Living with girlfriend	Renting apartment	1
Int 9, EDG	Male	29	Single	Own apartment	1
Int 10, ARK	Male	36	Married	Own apartment	1
Int 11, TAM	Male	35	Married, 3 children (6, 4, 2 years)	Own apartment	1
Int 12, IRB	Female	57	Single	Own apartment	0
Int 13, MAB	Female	29	Married, 1 child (1.8 years)	Own apartment	1
Int 14, JOM	Female	48	Married, 2 children (18, 16 years)	Own apartment	1
Int 15, JUS	Female	31	Single	Renting apartment	1
Int 16, STA	Female	64	Single, 2 children, 5 grandchildren (live separately)	Own apartment	0
Int 17, AIR	Male	48	Married, 1 child (3.5 years)	Own apartment	1
Int 18, JUA	Male	64	Married, 2 children, 3 grandchildren (live separately)	Own apartment	1
Int 19, RAT	Female	48	Married, 2 children (grown up, one live separately)	Own apartment	1
Int 20, DAR	Male	48	Married, 2 children (18 and 16 years)	Own apartment	1

4.4.3. Interview process

Interviews were held from January to April of 2015. The duration of interviews was from 1 hour to 1.5 hours, depending on the respondent. All interviews were recorded using a mobile device, the respondents were

informed that their interview is being recorded and later will be transcribed and used in the dissertation. In addition, the interviewer ensured the respondents that their identities will be kept confidential and only demographic characteristics will be used for their identification in the dissertation.

At the beginning, the interviewer presented the dissertation topic, followed by the research goal: to determine product categories within which green consumption or consumption reduction are the most evident, to find out respondents' opinion about and attitude towards green consumption, green products and consumption reduction, also to reveal if green marketing and close people have influence on consumers. After presentation of the interviewer, the respondent presented himself or herself: age, family status, role in the purchasing decision process – responsible for the main part of purchasing, or participating in decision making.

After introduction, the questions for the main exploratory part of the interview were supplied. Firstly, the interviewer tried to find out the level of a person's knowledge about ecology and to determine the most acceptable terms for the respondent. Secondly, the interviewer tried to find out about green consumption and behaviour practices of the respondent. Here the respondent also filled in the green practices questionnaire while discussing it with the interviewer. Thirdly, the interviewer tried to find out about the impact of external environment to the respondent's green products purchase and consumption. Here the discussion covered the impact of advertising, eco labels and close people on green consumption in Lithuania and on the respondent personally. After that, the interviewer tried to find out about the product categories, which are characterised as ecological, by discussing them with the respondent and by asking him or her to fill in the questionnaire of products categories.

Finally, the interviews were ended by asking the respondents to express any additional thoughts they had about the topics discussed, allowing them express any ideas, questions, or thoughts they had with the goal to add additional value and get more in depth insights from the respondents during the interviews.

All interviews were transcribed, making in total 104 pages of transcriptions. Interview transcriptions were made in the Lithuanian language as interviews were carried out in Lithuanian. However, the further analysis of interviews was made in the English language.

Interviews were analysed according to 15 aspects:

- 1) Most acceptable term and meaning of ecology
- 2) Perception of ecology as a social trend
- 3) Environmental consciousness
- 4) Health consciousness
- 5) Reflection of identity
- 6) Influence from close people
- 7) Influence from advertising
- 8) Trust in Eco-labels
- 9) Perceived product availability
- 10) Perceived price
- 11) Trust in product quality
- 12) Trust in product source
- 13) Green practices
- 14) Consumption level
- 15) Products

The analysis of the interview results is presented in chapter 5 of this dissertation.

4.5. Quantitative research

4.5.1. Research instrument

The aim of quantitative research was to determine when consumers intend to purchase and consume green products, when they do not change their “usual” behaviour, and when the possible increase of green purchase and consumption is replaced by the intention to reduce purchase and consumption

in order to answer to social pressure and due to personal characteristics and green practices.

The qualitative research instrument – the questionnaire was designed based on the scales developed by other researchers (see annex 4, table 63). The questionnaire (annex 4, table 63) reflected the developed research model (fig. 6), covering all aspects of the model: personal characteristics, green practices, society pressure, product perceived accessibility, and behavioural intention. For each construct of the research model, a scale was chosen based on literature analysis.

Personal characteristics were measured based on 2 constructs: environmental consciousness and health consciousness.

The **environmental consciousness** construct was measured based on the New Ecological Paradigm Scale (Dunlap, Van Liere, Mertig, Jones, 2000), which was developed on the basis of New Environmental Paradigm (developed in 1978 by Dunlap and Van Liere). The New Ecological Paradigm Scale is very often used to analyse environmental cautiousness or environmental beliefs, also it is incorporated into the Value-Belief-Norm Theory, developed by Stern (2000). Also, it was used together with the Theory of Planned Behaviour by Fielding et al (2008). It consists of 15 statements with five-point Likert-type scales (1 = strongly disagree; 5 = strongly agree):

The **Health consciousness** construct was measured based on the scale developed by Michaelidou, Hassan (2008). It consists of 6 statements with seven-point Likert scale (from +3 to -3 strongly agree to strongly disagree scale, where higher values indicate greater consciousness about health).

The **Green practices** construct was measured based on voluntary simplification scale developed by Huneke, 2005. It consists of 21 statements with nine-point Likert-type scales (1 = strongly disagree; 9 = strongly agree):

Society pressure was measured by using 2 constructs: influence from close people and influence from advertising.

For the **influence from close people** construct the scale developed by Lee (2009) was chosen. It consists of 5 statements with five-point Likert-type

scales (1 = strongly disagree; 5 = strongly agree).

The **Influence from advertising** construct was measured based on the scale developed by Rahbar and Wahid (2011), which in its turn was developed on the basis of the scale by Chan (2004) and Nik Abdul Rashid (2007). It consists of 5 statements with five-point Likert-type scales (1 = strongly disagree; 5 = strongly agree).

Perceived product accessibility was measured by using 3 constructs: product availability, price, and trust in product.

For the **perceived green product availability** construct one-item five-point Likert scale (ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree) developed by Tarkiainen, Sundqvist (2005) was chosen:

The **Perceived higher green product price** construct was measured based on the three-item five-point Likert scale (ranging from 1 = strongly disagree; 5 = strongly agree), developed by Zhen, Mansori (2012).

The **Trust in green product characteristics** construct was measured based on the scale developed by Chen (2013), which was developed based on Blau (1964), Ganesan (1994), and Schurr and Ozanne (1985). It consists of 5 statements with five-point Likert-type scales (1 = strongly disagree; 5 = strongly agree).

For the **intention to purchase** construct the scale developed by Michaelidou, Hassan (2008) was chosen. It consists of 3 statements with seven-point Likert-type scales (0 = strongly disagree; 6 = strongly agree).

However, these scales for measuring the constructs of the research model (Fig. 6) were chosen based on literature analysis and had to be pretested before being used for the main survey. Therefore, in the next chapter the process of the pilot survey is described.

4.5.2. Pilot survey

A pilot study in the form of a survey was carried out in order to test the research instrument – the questionnaire presented in chapter 4.6. The pilot survey was distributed by sending a link to the online questionnaire

(www.apklausa.lt) to familiar people who were later asked to distribute it further. Therefore, the “snow-ball” method was used to distribute the pilot questionnaire. In addition, the respondents were asked to provide the comments, if they had any, about the questionnaire, including ease of understanding, clarification of questions, length of the questionnaire and any other.

The pilot survey was carried out from 18th of May to 2nd of June of 2015. 58 respondents participated in the pilot survey.

However, only the answers of 54 respondents were used for further analysis because the deleted respondents failed to answer several questions and their answers were missing. Of these 54 respondents, 17 were men and 37 were women. The biggest part of respondents represented age group between 25 and 34 years. 44 of the respondents had income more than 500 euros per one family member during the month. Below table 5 with age distribution of the pilot survey respondents is presented.

Table 5. Demographics of pilot survey respondents

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Up to 25	2	3.7	3.7	3.7
	25 - 34	28	51.9	51.9	55.6
	35 - 44	8	14.8	14.8	70.4
	45 - 54	8	14.8	14.8	85.2
	55 - 64	7	13.0	13.0	98.1
	65 and more	1	1.9	1.9	100.0
	Total	54	100.0	100.0	

The respondents had several main blocks of comments about the questionnaire which were sent to the researcher by e-mail. Therefore, after concluding all the comments that respondents provided about the questionnaire, the following changes were introduced to the questionnaire:

- 1) Minor language changes (like grammatical structure of sentences and improvement of certain expressions) were introduced in almost all scales,

including scales for: environmental consciousness, health consciousness, green practices, influence from close people, perceived higher green products price, trust in green product characteristics, intention to purchase.

2) Two questions were added in the case of consumption of green detergent to reveal the behaviour of respondents in greater detail:

- How often do you wash clothes?
 - With possible answers: everyday, 4-6 times per week, 2-3 times per week, 1 time per week, 1 time per 2 weeks, less than 1 time per 2 weeks
- Have you ever used green detergent?
 - With possible answers: yes and no.

3) Description of green detergent was added to the question whether respondents had have ever used green detergent:

- Green detergent in this case is understood as: washing powder, washing liquid, washing tablets, etc., which are made of natural ingredients, do not pollute environment, etc.

4) The scale about influence from advertising was modified by introducing questions developed according to the literature analysis and qualitative research results. The new scale covered all sources of media and advertising and their importance to consumers during their decision making process:

- How information and advertising in media (internet, press, TV, radio) influence you in the case of ecology and ecological products?
 - I notice information (articles, shows) about ecological products in media.
 - I notice advertising of ecological products in points of sales (separate shelves for ecological products, eco brands, ecological packages, etc.).
 - I notice advertising of ecological products in media.
 - I notice eco-labelling of ecological products.
 - Information (articles, shows) about ecological products in media is

important for me while deciding to purchase ecological products.

- Advertising of ecological products in points of sales (separate shelves for ecological products, eco brands, ecological packages, etc.) is important for me while deciding to purchase ecological products.
- Advertising of ecological products in media is important for me while deciding to purchase ecological products.
- Eco-labelling of ecological products is important for me while deciding to purchase ecological products.

Since the respondents indicated that in the case of influence from advertising scale they really lacked evaluation of different types of media in the aforementioned scale, the inclusion of all types of media was proposed instead of focusing only on TV and eco-labels.

„There is not much of advertising of ecological products on TV“.

5) The questions about perceived availability of green detergent were expanded by describing the properties of green detergent, available for purchasing.

- Green detergent that washes dirt and stains well is always sufficiently available
- Green detergent that does not irritate the skin is always sufficiently available
- Green detergent that has no smell is always sufficiently available
- Green detergent that does not pollute environment is always sufficiently available
- Green detergent that has reasonable price is always sufficiently available

The respondents indicated that a single question for evaluating product availability was not enough, as it was not clear for the respondents what kind of ecological detergent and according to which qualities they should evaluate, because people can have different preferences for ecological products.

6) In the case of perceived quality of green detergent scale, the last statement: “This product keeps its promises and commitments” was deleted, because according to the pilot survey respondents it was redundant by asking the same too many times.

“I think the questions about product quality are the same.”

“If you ask synonymous questions 5 times, you will get very similar answers, but what is the purpose of that?”

“The questions duplicate each other.”

7) In the case of the question “How do you acquire detergent?” Likert scale was changed to two different scales to understand the acquisition process in greater detail:

- How do you acquire detergent the most often? (only one answer is possible)
- How did you acquire detergent during the last 6 months? (several answers are possible)

The respondents had comments about the measurement scales used. They indicated that in the case of the question “How do you acquire detergent?” the use of Likert scale is not suitable and they would like to choose several options of where they buy these products the most often, because to give point “1” in case of not acquiring the product in certain way seemed incorrect for them:

“Is this measurement scale correct? What should I choose if I do not buy in certain places at all?”

In addition, the time duration was changed from 1 month to 6 months as the respondents of the pilot survey have suggested.

8) In the case of intention to purchase scale, according to the comments of the pilot survey respondents, the number of questions was reduced, leaving only two questions for each behavioural option (except purchasing reduction):

- During the next 6 months I intend to purchase green detergent
- During the next 6 months I intend to consume green detergent
- During the next 6 months I intend to purchase usual detergent

- During the next 6 months I intend to consume usual detergent

The respondents indicated overlapping in the case of intention to purchase green or usual product. The intention was measured according to 3 statements: I intend to purchase (...); I want to purchase (...); It is very likely that I will purchase (...). Respondents mentioned that in the case of low/middle involvement product like detergent, “intend” is the same as “want” and “very likely”. Therefore, they suggested that there is no need to have 3 questions asking the same.

What is more, in the case of intention to purchase scale, initially a one-month period was chosen. However, the respondents indicated that this period is very short. The respondents tried to remember how much of detergent they still have at home and calculate whether they will need to buy some more in a month’s time or whether they will still have enough. Therefore, the recommendation was to increase this period to 6 months:

“I think 1 month period is too short. Maybe it should be half a year?”

“I live in a house, I always buy products in a big quantities.”

9) In the case of demographic questions several changes were also made:

- Firstly, age intervals were changed to an open question, where a respondent had to indicate his or her exact age.
- The question “How many children under 18 years old do you have?” was added in order to find out whether people with children are any different in their behaviour.
- The levels of education were corrected according to the education levels most common in Lithuania: primary, secondary, special secondary, higher, undergraduate, graduate.
- In the case of income, one more interval – over 1000 Euros was added, based on the answers of pilot survey, where most of the respondents indicated their income level for one family member as more than 750 Euros.
- Finally, the place of residence was changed from defined city size to

an open question, where respondents could indicate their city of residence.

Not only the comments of the respondents were used for the update of the questionnaire, but also the internal consistency of the constructs was measured using Cronbach Alpha. In the table below (Table 6), Cronbach Alpha of different scales from the questionnaire is presented:

Table 6. Cronbach Alpha of pilot survey scales

Scale	N of Items	Cronbach's Alpha
Environmental consciousness	16	.746
Health consciousness	6	.808
Green practices	21	.693
Influence from close people	5	.756
Influence from advertising	5	.826
Perceived higher green product price	3	.538
Perceived green product availability	1	-
Trust in green product characteristics	5	.970
Intention to purchase green detergent	3	.984
Intention to purchase usual detergent	3	.925
Intention to reduce detergent	6	.856

After the pilot survey all of the scales showed high Cronbach Alpha from 0.693 to 0.984, except the Cronbach Alpha of Price perception scale, which showed reliability of only 0.538. However, in the case of price perception scale the essence of the questions differs quite significantly, as two of them are referring to the level of price and one to the importance of price in purchasing green products.

The final version of the questionnaire consisted of 27 questions, of which 6 questions were demographic and the rest were related to the topic. Most of the questions were measured using a 7-point Likert scale. The final version of the questionnaire is presented in the annex no. 4.

4.5.3. The main survey

The aim of the main survey was to determine when consumers intend to purchase and consume green products, when they do not change their “usual” behaviour, and when the possible increase of green purchase and consumption is replaced by the intention to reduce purchase and consumption in order to answer to social pressure, and due to the influence of personal consumer’s characteristics, his or her green practices and product related aspects.

4.5.3.1. Survey process

1290 invitations to participate in the survey were sent to the internet panel of the research company “Rinkos tyrimų centras” (further – Research Company). 763 panel members did not respond to the invitation, 75 members of the panel started filling in the questionnaire, but did not finish, whereas 452 filled in the questionnaire completely, with a response rate of 35 %. Presumption is that quite a large number of unfinished questionnaires was due to the quite extensive length of the questionnaire.

The Research Company provided a SPSS file with responses to the author of this dissertation. However, only 438 answers were used for further analysis of the results, because 14 questionnaires (3 %) included major mistakes and were excluded from further analysis (their answers had the same number in all or the most of the questions (like 1, 4 or 7) and could be named as illogical). According to Walliman (2011) it is very important to indicate if any data is missing and which answers really show that respondent did not know the answer. Also, after receiving the data file it is important to check whether all the respondents provided answers to all the questions (Walliman, 2011). According to Meade and Craig (2011), 5 to 15 percent of respondents usually respond carelessly, especially while answering long surveys. These careless answers are even more common in internet surveys, because the environment where the questionnaire is being filled in is not controlled and respondents may have low interest in filling them in (Meade, Craig, 2011).

What is more, according to Meade and Craig (2011), careless answers more often can be found at the end of survey or at the end of long questions. This might be influenced by other questions with many statements within the same topic. The author of this dissertation, having received the data file from the research company, checked not only for illogical answers, but also whether all the respondents provided answers to all the questions. After this data preparation phase, the analysis of the research results was started.

The research results were analysed using the IBM SPSS Statistics 19 program. The following statistical analysis methods were used:

- Reliability analysis (Cronbach’s Alpha) was used to determine scale reliability
- Factor analysis
- ANOVA
- Independent t –tests
- Correlation analysis
- Regression analysis

4.5.3.2. Respondents of the main survey

Answers of 438 respondents were used for further analysis. However, more women participated in the survey compared to men, respectively 322 (73.5 %) and 116 (26.5 %). As the research topic was related to purchase and consumption issues, it can be explained that women usually are more responsible for such decisions in the family, therefore they might have been more eager to answer the questionnaire as compared to men (Table 7).

Table 7. Gender distribution

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Man	116	26.5	26.5	26.5
Woman	322	73.5	73.5	100.0
Total	438	100.0	100.0	

Respondents who answered the questionnaire had to be at least 18 years old in order to include only those respondents who already can make their own independent purchase and consumption decisions. 58.7 % (n=257) of the respondents were up to 39 years old (Table 8) with average age of 37.26 years (Table 9). In general, age distribution was quite equal, as all age groups were covered.

Table 8. Age distribution

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
18-29	137	31.3	31.3	31.3
30-39	120	27.4	27.4	58.7
40-49	99	22.6	22.6	81.3
50+	82	18.7	18.7	100.0
Total	438	100.0	100.0	

Table 9. Average age

N	Valid	438
	Missing	0
Mean	37.26	
	Std. Deviation	11.809

One of the limitations of the internet panel was that more people with graduate education usually answer the questionnaires. Therefore, in this case even 300 (68.5 %) of the respondents had graduate level of education, followed by 45 (10.3 %) obtaining higher education level (Table 10).

Table 10. Distribution of education level

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Primary	3	.7	.7	.7
Secondary	35	8.0	8.0	8.7
Special secondary	17	3.9	3.9	12.6
Higher	45	10.3	10.3	22.8
Undergraduate	38	8.7	8.7	31.5
Graduate	300	68.5	68.5	100.0
Total	438	100.0	100.0	

One more survey question asked about the respondent's income for 1 family member. 41.1 % (n=180) indicated that their income for 1 family member per month is between 250 - 500 euros, whereas other income groups of up to 250 euros and 500 - 750 euros for 1 family member per month, respectively, were 17.8 % (n=78) and 24.4 % (n=107) (Table 11).

Table 11. Income for 1 family member

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Up to 250 euros	78	17.8	17.8	17.8
250 - 500 euros	180	41.1	41.1	58.9
500 - 750 euros	107	24.4	24.4	83.3
750 – 1000 euros	47	10.7	10.7	94.1
More than 1000 euros	26	5.9	5.9	100.0
Total	438	100.0	100.0	

Most of the respondents came from the three biggest cities in Lithuania: Vilnius, Kaunas and Kaipėda, making respectively 50.2 % (n=220) of the whole number of respondents. The detailed distribution of respondents' place of residence is presented in annex 5, table 64.

4.5.3.3. Reliability of the main measurement scales

The Cronbach Alpha indicator was used to measure the reliability of the main survey scales. All of the scales after the main survey showed high Cronbach Alpha from 0.791 to 0.966 (Table 12), except the Cronbach Alpha of Price perception scale, which showed reliability of only 0.446. However, in the case of price perception scale the essence of the quite differ quite a lot, by two of them referring to the level of price and one to the importance of price in purchasing green products.

Table 12. Cronbach Alpha of main survey scales

Scale	No. of Items	Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha in pilot survey
Environmental consciousness	16	.791	.746
Health consciousness	6	.839	.808
Green practices	21	.820	.693
Influence from close people	5	.917	.756
Influence from advertising	5	.906	Scale was adjusted
Perceived higher green product price	3	.446	.538
Perceived green product availability	5	.895	Scale was adjusted
Trust in green product characteristics	4	.926	.970
Intention to purchase and consume green detergent	2	.966	Scale was adjusted
Intention to purchase and consume usual detergent	2	.938	Scale was adjusted
Intention to reduce detergent	5	.885	Scale was adjusted

It can be concluded that after carrying out the pilot survey scale reliability improved due to the changes introduced. However, further improvements of the research model will be described in chapter 6, where the statistical analysis of the quantitative research results will be presented.

5. Results of qualitative research

The qualitative research was carried out with the aim to reveal how consumers understand green consumption and what factors shape their purchase and consumption decisions, and to reveal product categories in which consumers most often use green products. The analysis of the qualitative research results was carried out with regard to the factors of the research model (Fig. 6), thus analysing 15 aspects of the topic: most acceptable term and meaning of ecology; perception of ecology as a social trend; environmental consciousness; health consciousness; reflection of identity; influence from close people; influence from advertising; trust in eco-labels, perceived product availability; perceived price; trust in product quality; trust in product source; green practices; consumption level; products.

Term / Meaning

All of the interview respondents were asked to define what terms “ecology”, “ecological” mean to them and how they understand these terms. Most of the respondents related ecology with food products and described terms “ecology”, “ecological” as possessing the qualities of being grown naturally, without any fertilizers, and chemicals. In addition, they stressed that they associated ecology with the traditional farming or even their own (or their close relatives) farming, growing vegetables in the gardens. The descriptions of “ecological” covered such ideas as:

“Vegetables, fruit, other products grown by a grandmother in the village, personal garden.” (Int 1, AIG)

“Grown in archaic way, without fertilizers, chemical additives, and without stabilizers in composition.” (Int 6, ROT)

“Products grown naturally, without fertilizers. As parents do, as grandparents did.” (Int 7, TOG)

“It is what you grow by yourself or buy from people you know (relatives, etc.).” (Int 12, IRB)

“Products grown naturally, without fertilizers, not only what is grown in soil, but also dairy products, [...] animals raised without violence.”
(Int 16, STA)

“It is sustainable growing and production of food.” (Int 8, IGR)

“Ecology is when you grow things by yourself, because only then you know what you have sowed and added. Ecology is also when you buy from those you know, e.g. relatives, or familiar people in the market.”
(Int 12, IRB)

“I understand ecology as in when vegetables are grown with as little fertilizers as possible, or with organic fertilizers.” (Int 18, JUA)

“Not only food products can be ecological, the production process can also be ecological.” (Int 3, SAT)

“Ecology for me is product composition, which should have a very low amount of chemicals.” (Int 4, INM)

“Ecological are all the products that are grown naturally without chemical fertilizers.” (Int 7, TOG)

“Main association is with food products of natural origin, more with vegetables, what is grown without fertilizers, in the green field, also with traditional lifestyle.” (Int 2, ANG)

However, some of the respondents stressed environmental aspect of ecology, mentioning the state of environment, the balance of environment and humans, as the description of ecology, for example:

“It is respect for the whole surrounding world and not stressing oneself as an individual, understanding oneself as a part of the Earth.” (Int 5, GIB)

“Ecology is clean environment, related to the person’s quality of life. Also it is a person’s behaviour and attitude towards the environment.”
(Int 20, DAR)

„I associate ecology also with natural environment, balance of nature and surrounding environment.” (Int 3, ANG)

“A big part of ecology is not harming the environment, not polluting the

nature with various packages, materials, which are in the compositions of the products. Pollution is so high that we do not know what will happen when we reach the highest possible level of pollution.” (Int 13, MAB)

The respondents who had a broader view and understanding about ecology combined aspects of natural food and state of the environment:

“I differentiate ecological product and ecological consumption. An ecological product is natural, grown without fertilizers, without synthetic materials. But ecological consumption is when you recycle, collect waste, do not pollute the environment, save electricity and water.” (Int 17, AIR)

“For me ecological means not polluting the nature. For example, I ride a bicycle all year round and I perceive it as being 100% ecological, because I do not pollute environment, do not use petrol, I do not need to go to sports club and pay for it [...] Also we do not buy firewood, because we use various trashes [...] Also we do not throw away anything that can be composted. But ecological food is totally different, because it has to be grown without any chemical additives. However, the environmental aspect is more acceptable for me. Therefore, there are two terms: behaviour is environmentally friendly and farming is ecological.” (Int 11, TAM)

Several other respondents mentioned the health factor of “ecology” when defining it:

„I would choose more ecological products because they are healthier, don't contain any.“ (Int 14, JOM)

“What is useful and not harmful for the person” (Int 15, JUS)

Some of the respondents even indicated life and consumption simplification as the definition of ecology:

“Saving resources, lower consumption, and lower production, doing less harm, and by these actions – protection of the environment is ecology.” (Int 19, RAT)

“You should not consume only for the sake of consumption. You need to consume only as much as you need, that is ecology for me.” (Int 5, GIB)

A very interesting aspect is that even in describing ecology, some of the respondents already indicated that they did not believe ecological products could exist or stated that ecological lifestyle would require enormous efforts:

“I sometimes notice and use ecological products, but in general I do not believe in them. My father worked in flax industry, communicated with farmers. In his opinion, fields were so much contaminated with chemicals during the soviet times, that it is not possible to grow anything ecological now, soil has to remain bare for some time in order to clean itself from chemicals.” (Int 3, SAT)

“An ecological farm is small and has limited growing capacity: few animals, small garden, where you do not need to fertilize much, also far from any city. Also, you can call a farm ecological when you grow things by yourself, and not when somebody else does and shows you some certificate. But what ecology means in Europe or Germany? It means that only some dangerous materials are absent, but the level of nitrates is the same as in non-ecological products, although it is as dangerous as other fertilizers or pesticides.” (Int 10, ARK)

“I do not like ecological markets and their products. Full table of big, same size green salads, red and big radishes, all the same size. Show me a granny who could grow such vegetables only by fertilizing with organic manure.” (Int 3, SAT)

“If a person lives in the city, in an apartment, drives a car, but eats ecological food, it is only a hobby, a game. If you really want to live lead an ecological style of life, you should move to the countryside, grow vegetables, animals (if you eat meat) by yourself, and do everything by yourself, without any fertilizers. That would be real ecology, but in this case I do not know where the money would come from.” (Int 10, ARK)

“I think people often do not understand what ecology is. We do not

think critically. [...] Ecology is not really defined yet.” (Int 15, JUS)

In total, term “ecological” was mentioned as the most appropriate to use 17 times, however, the term “natural” was indicated as the most acceptable 5 times and the term “environmentally friendly” – 2 times. Some of the respondents stated that they would use the term “ecological” for food, whereas the term “environmentally friendly” for behaviour (Int 11, TAM), or the term “ecological” more for the impact on the environment and the term “natural” for defining the product composition (Int 13, MAB) One of the respondents indicated that the term “ecological” had become more like a brand and the term “environmentally friendly” is more related to lifestyle (Int 19, RAT).

“I use the word ecological, but only for those products that are labeled as ecological in shops and similar. But I buy a lot of products directly from people while looking into their eyes and trying to determine whether the products really are as presented. I do not call these products ecological, because I do not believe they are such. I maybe call them natural.” (Int 5, GIB).

I think natural and ecological are defined incorrectly. Ecological is more how it will affect environment, whereas natural is more related to the product composition, shows that it has no additives. [...] Ecological also shows what the packaging is, how the product will be transported, what the values of the company are, etc. – much broader than only “natural”.” (Int 13, MAB)

“Ecological would be like a brand, whereas environmentally friendly would be lifestyle. Eco I associate with a part of a brand.” (Int 19, RAT)

“I think these different terms are subject to existing trends. Someone created and started using them. It is the business of politicians and scientists, new theories, their need for uniqueness. But I think one term natural would be enough.” (Int 3, SAT)

These huge differences in defining the terms “ecology” and “ecological” confirm the statements of Kavaliauske and Adomavičiūtė (2013), claiming that there is a big confusion in different terms and their meanings

within green consumption. In addition, it is obvious that people in Lithuania are only familiar with terms “ecological” (which is the most suitable and appropriate to use), in some cases terms “natural” and “environmentally friendly”. Whereas, respondents know but do not use (because they do not feel the difference in meaning) or even do not know at all such terms as “ethical”, “socially responsible”, green”, sustainable”. What is more, the respondents related the term “ecological” mostly with food products and anything that can be grown or made by oneself. This is in line with the findings of Davies, Titterington and Cochrane (1995) also Michaelidou and Hassan (2008) who stated that organic food is grown in a natural way and produced without pesticides, chemicals, fertilizers and genetically modified organisms, also “organic” food means not food characteristics, but the way it was produced. However, there is no direct translation of the term “organic” into the Lithuanian language (in which the interviews were carried out), therefore, it is obvious that the term “ecological” is the most suitable to use in such a country as Lithuania.

Perception of ecology as a social trend

A big part of the interview respondents (12 out of 20) stated during the interviews that they perceived the current interest in ecology within the society as a social trend, which is developed by companies on purpose, using media, with the aim to sell more products and gain more profit:

“Eco products are a serious social trend in Lithuania, the word “ecological” immediately makes me nervous” (Int 1, AIG)

“The current trend of ecology is created by lobbyists based on advertising, it is part of pop culture, it is trendy.” (Int 10, ARK)

“I am sure that green consumption is a marketing trend. The craze created by marketing to sell products also one more parameter especially for similar products.” (Int 17, AIR)

“Many people start to consume ecologically only because of the social trend, so that they could praise themselves, so that they would be

accepted by the society or their friends, in order to not be different from their surroundings, but not because of any health issues.” (Int 2, ANG)

“Ecology is important, necessary, but now it is a social trend” (Int 14, JOM)

“I support the idea of ecology, but also I am sceptical because ecology became a social trend, it is the reason to increase prices, to sell a product more expensively while stating it is ecological. Recycling is also a trend, making life easier for recycling companies, therefore it is nothing ecological.” (Int 3, SAT)

“I think it is good that the social trend of ecology exists. It makes no harm to anybody. Only it is a pity that people hook up on this idea and make money out of it. We should spread beautiful ideas [...] that the world should become better. But in Western societies these kind of things are immediately transformed into money and motivating consumption. We consume more, but ecologically. That’s what I dislike the most. People should be taught to consume responsibly.” (Int 5, GIB)

“Today we say “ecological”, but I would say it is a rhythm of life, as people lived in the past [...] Therefore, it is a social trend now, because we cannot say how it will be better. You can argue for health, longer life, but there is no proof because ecology is a new thing, not something from the past.” (Int 15, JUS)

“I would say ecological became a brand. However, I think ecology is not related to consumption.” (Int 5, GIB)

In addition, some of the respondents stressed that ecology cannot be in line with intensive consumption, as it has to be a lifestyle, a way of thinking:

“Ecology now is partially a social trend, because you can see customers who buy eco products, but right after that can do something that harms environment. [...] It is very narrow thinking that if you buy eco products, but don’t change your lifestyle, it is already ecology. Or buying a lot of eco products, eco food and then throwing it away without any thinking.” (Int 13, MAB)

“I think ecology is a social trend. For example, a person is surrounded by natural things, but later you see that he or she is consuming something in large quantities. [...] it is not consistent with ecology. Somebody influences a person and he or she does so. Only very few people think and try to unite everything from lighting and thermal isolation to food, as person should seek for harmony.” (Int 9, EDG)

“My attitude to ecology is that it is a social trend. Many people want to be like the Western people, not from the East. We go to the Western countries, see how people behave. Germans and Swedes recycle and that is true ecology, things related to environment, not food. The Dutch and Scandinavians ride bicycles the whole year. [...] In general, now it is fashionable to care about the planet, although we really do not know how much we are harming it.” (Int 11, TAM)

The idea of ecology as a social trend was indicated by both people interested in ecology and consuming eco products, and those who were not interested in ecology and did not consume eco products. Humphery (2013) in general also proposed the idea that people from emerging economies want to be like the people from the Western countries and are driven by consumption.

However, people who were interested in ecology and consuming eco products also stressed that ecological thinking as such is important and that the society needs it, but it should be maintained not only by consumption practices, but also by the whole ecologically conscious lifestyle. Ballantine and Creery (2010) developed the same findings as Craig-Lees and Hill (2002) who stated that environmental concern can lead to changes in consumption practices and especially the reduction of consumption. Iyer and Muncy (2009) named such people “Global impact consumers”, whereas Kozinets, Handelman, and Lee (2010) called this kind of lifestyle “Utopian anti-consumption behaviour”, when consumers arrange their consumption practices according to environmental concerns and try create benefit firstly for the society and the planet.

Environmental consciousness

One more aspect that was analysed during the interview was the environmental consciousness of the respondents. During the interview the respondents were asked “Do you care about the environment, environmental protection?” and if they responded positively, the question was detailed further as “How do you care about the environment, environmental protection”?

All of the respondents responded that they care about the environment and environmental protection at least to some extent, but when they had to detail their answer, it became obvious that only several of them really care about environment on the global scale, like:

“I am concerned about what environment we live in. There should be no pollution, it should be clean, beautiful, with clean good air. I take care so that nothing of what we use would pollute the environment.” (Int 13, MAB)

“Everything comes from nature, we need to save the resources.” (Int 19, RAT)

“I could refuse cotton because it makes terrible things to the Earth. The same with meat consumption, it should be limited. Not only because of killing or not killing animals, but also because there are too many people and Earth suffers from the amount of animals grown on it and the food they require, instead we could give this food to people. Maybe this is real ecology, when you can see the broader view.” (Int 5, GIB)

However, other respondents limited their care about the environment only to local surroundings and littering:

“I take care about the environment, but I could do more. For example, I recycle paper, also I cannot stand when I see litter on the streets, I always pick it up and throw it away.” (Int 1, AIG)

“I am not active, but when I do something, I think that my actions should have a minimal impact on the environment.” (Int 2, ANG)

“The environment is important, I plant trees. A person should not litter where he or she lives.” (Int 9, EDG)

“I try not to litter [...] I do not pollute the environment, but I do not do anything additionally.” (Int 3, SAT)

“The environment where I live is important. I try to follow order.” (Int 16, STA)

“I have a strict attitude to cleanness, I think everybody should keep it. I have been recycling since the time I lived in Germany. [...] I try to throw away as little as possible.” (Int 7, TOG)

“The environment is important. I do not litter. It is related to people’s culture. If you do not litter, do not burn tires, in this way you already can increase the level of ecology.” (Int 4, INM)

“I try to ensure that sprayers I use would be more environmentally friendly [...] I do not throw batteries or trash in the woods. I try to be neat.” (Int 15, JUS)

In addition, the respondents expressed worries that even though one takes care about the environment, the interests of business companies win against true environmental protection:

“I care about recycling. However, recently I found out that Vilnius city is not complying to the EU regulations that are related to environmental protection and climate change, because people sort their trash, but after that it is thrown to the same dump. So it is no use, as it is a matter of business. Even if you try to make something better for the environment, you are often cheated and you lose motivation.” (Int 15, JUS)

Therefore, it can be concluded that the respondents in general were only slightly concerned about the environment on the global scale, but more concerned about the environment in local surroundings, putting emphasis on littering, cleanness and recycling so that the environment the respondents live in would be suitable for them. Abdul-Muhmin (2007) segregated that environmental consciousness is influenced by environmental knowledge and perceived seriousness of threats to local and global environment, because a person can be concerned about the environment only if he or she understands the possible threats and possesses sufficient amount of knowledge about the

existing environmental problems. Therefore, in this research the same conclusions can be made as those by Abdul-Muhmin (2007) that local environment is more related to personal consequences to the consumer, so usually it is more important to the person. However, the interviews did not support the idea of other researchers (Lee, 2008; Chyong et al, 2006; Tanner, Kast, 2003; Lindeman and Väänänen, 2000) that environmental consciousness and positive attitude to the environment were the most important factors influencing green consumer behaviour.

Health consciousness

Many researchers have indicated that health consciousness is a very important factor, influencing green consumer behaviour. Therefore, during the interviews the respondents were asked “Do you care about your health, is your health important to you?”. In addition, if they responded positively, the question was further detailed to “How do you care about your health”. Most of the respondents stated that health is very important to them and the main ways that they take care of their health are their lifestyle (without harmful habits), eating practices, healthy food, and physical activity.

“Health is important to me, because we are what we eat and what we think.” (Int 5, GIB)

“I do not smoke, drink alcohol only in minimum amounts, almost do not eat smoked products, eat very little pork, eat a lot of fish and even more dairy products.” (Int 10, ARK)

“Health is an important issue. I eat vegetables, fruits, care about my food. Good recreation, walking in fresh air, swimming in the pool is of great importance.” (Int 16, STA)

“Health is food, healthy life style, sports.” (Int 20, DAR)

“Health is very important. I check my state of health constantly. I have a day regime, try to get enough sleep, eat timely, and strengthen my immune system. Once a week I do yoga and twice - aerobics.” (Int 12, IRB)

“First of all, a person should not have any harmful habits, and instead

he or she should have positive habits: some people can sit in front of the TV in the evening, others can go for a walk or even ride a bicycle to nice places. In general, I think people should move more, have proper eating practices, a correct posture.” (Int 9, EDG)

“Health is very important. I support sports life. I do sports by myself and encourage others. “I pay attention to the principles of the food pyramid, try to eat fewer artificial products, better make food by myself.” (Int 7, TOG)

“Health is important; however, until now there was no need to take care about it much. I walk to work because my back hurts from long sitting, I need to move. I do it because it is useful for my health, I also like sports. I care about my food, not only its taste, but also its quality. The same with clothes, I choose natural materials because of health.” (Int 3, SAT)

However, some of the respondents indicated that they did not directly associate health with ecology, but more with natural food and its quality:

“Of course, health is important and, first of all, appropriate eating. A big part of a person’s health depends on what he or she eats. So I try to eat as naturally as possible. Ecology is also important, but I associate it more with the environment, its protection, but not human needs.” (Int 13, MAB)

“Health is in the first place. You take care of your health by choosing more natural food, so that you could help yourself with natural instruments, not medicine.” (Int 4, INM)

“Health is important, but I think that the main factors that make a difference for health is lifestyle, eating habits (less fat, less meat, more vegetables, balance of nutrition), but not that the products should be ecological.” (Int 10, ARK)

“What is important with ecology is that products should be as healthy as possible. [...] Ecological Coca-Cola or ecological chips are not acceptable to me. I have a rule not to buy mixed products, I try to produce everything by myself.” (Int 5, GIB)

Finally, several respondents stressed that health is not that important to them, because of quite a young age or because it became a social trend to care a lot about one's health.

“Health is important, but I care about it only a little. However, I would like to take care more.” (Int 1, AIG)

“I do not care about my health much, as many younger people care less about their health.” (Int 15, JUS)

“Health, healthy life style became a brand.” (Int 19, RAT)

Therefore, it can be concluded that health factor is very important in the context of green products, and especially ecological, natural, good quality food products consumption. Nevertheless, other factors like sports and avoiding harmful addictions also do have influence on health condition. These findings are in line with the statements of Maynard and Franklin (2003) who found that consumers concerned about their health tend to choose high quality, nutritious and healthy food. However, in the case of whether ecological, organic food is healthier, the attitude differs not only among the respondents of these interviews, but also in the results of the researches by Tarkianen and Sundqvist (2005) and Michaelidou and Hassan (2008). It is obvious that health factor is important in the context of green consumption, however, the focus both on environmental aspects and on health factors differs not only based on the country where the respondents live in (Salleh et al, 2010), but also on other factors and characteristics of consumers.

Reflection of identity

When evaluating green consumer behaviour, the identity of a consumer in the context of ecology becomes a very important aspect. The consumer's identity under which he or she chooses to consume certain green products or to choose anti-consumption instead also has a great influence on one's choice, because usually consumers do not consume products that are against their identity or lead to consumer identification with an undesired type of people (Lee et al, 2011; Black, Cherrier, 2010; Zavestoski, 2002). Therefore, the

respondents of the interviews were asked whether they perceived themselves as being favourable towards ecology, ecological products, and consumption, and if they answered positively – to what extent. Some of the respondents indicated that they perceive themselves as being favourable towards ecology and at least to some extent can call themselves eco consumers.

“I perceive myself as a consumer favourable towards ecology, I would give myself 9 points. I used a bicycle instead of a car for a long time. Ecology is important for me, but I am not a maniac. However, I prefer healthier products.” (Int 8, IGR)

“I would say I am 50/50 eco consumer. Because we use a lot of eco food products, but the use of other products depends on the situation (for my child or me).” (Int 1, AIG)

“I am in the middle of favouring ecology, because I do not chase it, but also do not ignore it absolutely. I try to buy products from the village, where I know how they were grown.” (Int 16, STA)

However, several others stressed that even though they would like to be eco consumers and are like this to some extent, the circumstances they live in (lack of finances, lack of time, etc.) prevent them from being eco consumers to the level they would like to:

“I am not an “eco freak” consumer. Maybe I would like to be able to consume only natural / ecological products, but their prices are too high, I cannot afford them. So I have to adapt.” (Int 5, GIB)

“I am more in favour of ecology. But it is difficult to be fully an eco consumer because then you need a lot of effort and money. I cannot afford it at the moment, as I do not have so much time and so much financial resources to live ecologically.” (Int 13, MAB)

“I cannot say that I am fully an eco consumer, I am not the green one, because it is not possible in the current society to live according to green principles. But if you want, you can minimize harmful things in your surrounding environment.” (Int 4, INM)

While other respondents indicated that being an ecological consumer is

a very controversial issue because it is hard to be consistent and to fit in certain settings:

“I feel more like a responsible consumer than an ecological consumer. It was always difficult for me to fall into the criteria of the Western society. I usually do not find my place there.” (Int 5, GIB)

“My behaviour is contradictory, because I sometimes choose eco products, clean home with vinegar, but wash dishes with “Fairy” (which is chemical and stays on dishes, etc.). [...] However, I support the idea of ecology but do not like that it is becoming a social trend and therefore more expensive. [...] Our grandmothers did not care about ecology because they knew how many potatoes they planted and how many will grow. There are too many people in the world, people live too well. [...] If there were no refrigerators, there would be no ecology. [...] Such questions as motivating consumption, ecology – would not have existed in the past.” (Int 3, SAT)

Finally, some of the respondents were really critical about ecological identity, stressing that it is not possible to be a consumer in the current world or it is not worth doing:

“Even if people say they follow ecology – I do not believe it. Personal needs emerge, not enough time, so I think they go and buy vegetables in usual supermarket. Because being ecologically orientated is a conditional issue, when you need to calm your soul down by making something right. [...] Among my friends all look sceptically towards ecology, they even do not use such an expression. My friends maybe try to buy healthier products, but they do not look for ecology, eco-labels. [...] I would more likely buy a product because it is tasty or cleans as I expected.” (Int 15, JUS)

In conclusion, it can be stated that some consumers can identify themselves as eco consumers, because they are favourable towards ecology and consume ecological products, while others act in such way but do not want to be identified as such. The ones that do not consume eco products are critical towards the whole issue of ecology.

In the literature about the influence of external environment to green consumer behaviour or alternative consumption practises, the following types of factors are distinguished: influence from close people, influence from advertising, and influence of eco labelling.

Therefore, during the interviews consumers were asked what impact various information sources had on purchase and consumption of green products in Lithuania: media (internet, TV, radio, press), other people (friends, acquaintances, colleagues, opinion leaders), or eco labelling. Also, which of these sources made the smallest / biggest impact on purchase and consumption of green products in Lithuania. After that, the same question was asked about the impact various information sources had on respondents' purchase and consumption of green products.

Influence from close people

To analyse the influence on purchase and consumption of green products from close people, several specific questions were asked based on the answers of the respondents. In particular - are there any people around the respondent who are interested in ecology, purchasing / consuming green products? If yes, do these people share information about purchasing / consumption of green products with the respondent? If yes, through which channels? In addition, does the respondent trust their opinion, advices and why?

Among the most influencing close people firstly the family members were mentioned, followed by colleagues and friends, which confirms the findings of other researches, like Lee (2009), Goldstein et al (2008), and Cherrier (2007). What is more, close people were indicated as having the strongest impact, although the biggest visibility of green products was indicated as coming from media.

“Family, parents make influence from the perspective of ecology. Parents did not use any fertilizers, they grew everything by themselves. Grandparents used only organic fertilizers.” (Int 7, TOG)

“Family, friends, relatives make influence on me. When I need to

change something, I ask for their opinion. Then I try to see by myself whether the product suits me. I evaluate everything to see if it is really useful for me.” (Int 13, SAT)

“People around me sometimes make influence. [...] Colleagues sometimes recommend something and I buy the same product. But I do not always trust their advice 100%.” (Int 11, TAM)

“I get recommendations from colleagues, friends because they say “seen, heard, read, tried”. It is very important. If something is recommended by close community, I try it immediately, do not check anything additionally.” (Int 12, IRB)

“Friends have the biggest impact, but most often I see advertisements in media”. (Int 1, AIG)

“Celebrities are also important, they work for advertising, for example, consume specific kind of juice because they it is somehow better than others. Neighbours are also important, people observe what neighbours buy, consume, because they think that neighbours live better and try to copy them.” (Int 15, JUS)

However, the respondents stressed that they trusted only specific people and usually tried to check information about their products by themselves.

“I would say that experience from surrounding people is the most important to me. If somebody says that this product is good for me, then I try to see if it is good or not. [...] But only some of the surrounding people can recommend me something. It depends on the person and comes from experience.” (Int 4, INM)

“Influence from community is the strongest for me, from the people who are interested in certain issues and can tell me from their own experience that they feel better after choosing a certain product. The information I get from media influences me less compared to recommendations, because I always want to find out more myself, to look for additional information.” (Int 2, ANG)

“How other people evaluate product quality is very important to me. For

example, they say that “this face cream is good” after you complain about your skin. Then you take a sample and try. It does not mean that I will immediately buy the product, I have to try it first. [...] Also I trust the recommendation only from a few very close people. These people do not like to buy things just because they are new.” (Int 19, RAT)

“Ecological consumption is quite new in Lithuania, so people mostly hear from others. [...] The biggest influence for me is from information sources I find by myself and form my personal opinion. The second are opinion leaders, who know certain things very well and whom I trust.” (Int 13, MAB)

And finally, some of the respondents indicated that the pressure they feel from close people, especially about the issue of ecology and green consumption, makes them nervous and causes negative reactions, which complies with the findings of Brace-Govan (2012), who stated that the influence from other people can be both positive and negative and even can influence people to act in an unexpected way.

“Yes, I have two friends who care about ecology a lot. I borrow some ideas from them. However, only one of them provides information, but the other already makes pressure. And I cannot resist.” (Int 14, JOM)

“One of my close relatives is very concerned about the food he eats, that it should be balanced. However, I do not perceive him as being very healthy, I would say, pickier. He talks constantly and that makes me nervous. I feel his criticism about our food. He should keep his opinion to himself, it causes my opposite reaction.” (Int 18, JUA)

Influence from media and advertising

To analyse the influence on purchase and consumption of green products from media, several specific questions were asked based on the answers of the respondents. In particular - do they notice advertising of green products? If yes, where: internet, TV, radio, press, etc.? Also, do they trust advertising of green products?

The respondents indicated that influence from media was the strongest of all types of external environment influences. Internet was mentioned as one of the commonly used channels because some of respondents think that in general marketing actions for ecological products are weaker compared to that of usual products. The respondents also indicated that they see advertising of ecological products in shopping centres.

“I would rate media, other people, and eco-labels by their order of importance [...] because mostly I see green advertisements on web pages. In general, situation has changed when the baby was born, because for babies everything is advertised as ecological. [...] I see the most of advertising of babies’ products in social media and various parenting forums.” (Int 1, AIG)

“I think that media has the biggest influence. If something lasts long enough in informational space, it becomes a norm. Then your friends and acquaintances acquire these things and it starts to make influence on you.” (Int 17, AIR)

“In Lithuania media makes the biggest influence, because ecology is a social trend now.” (Int 3, SAT)

“If usual advertising technologies are used to introduce ecological products, the importance for health is stressed, then you can easily convince some of the people who are influenced by advertising.” (Int 10, ARK)

“Firstly it is media’s influence and saying that some product is better, but not saying why. The mass will follow.” (Int 15, JUS)

“I think people are influenced by advertising. Because there are two types of companies, the first type focuses on product quality, while the other focuses on advertising. People see advertising and buy things.” (Int 9, EDG)

“A big part of the society is convinced by advertising to buy certain products, but I do not think it is always ecological products. Marketing actions of ecological products are weaker compared to those of usual

products. But those who are interested, they find what they are looking for. Those who are not interested, they do not go to eco shops. Also supermarkets have their sections for ecological products, but I have not seen active advertising.” (Int 13, MAB)

Some of the respondents stressed that a lot of advertising and information about certain products cause opposite reaction, they do not want to buy a heavily advertised product anymore. This confirms the findings of Cherrier (2007), who stated that in the case of green products and environmental issues, consumers end up in information mess with no understanding which information is trustworthy. In addition, the perception is that intensive advertising leads to increased prices of ecological products. This confirms the idea of Littler (2011) who stated that despite the product type, companies firstly seek for profits and only then think about social or environmental issues. Therefore, the respondents indicated that they verify information about heavily advertised products, because they think something might be wrong with these products.

“Products that are intensively advertised, I think, end up as being more expensive, because companies have to put money into advertising. [...] If a product is very heavily advertised, it becomes unattractive to me.” (Int 7, TOG)

“Media has no positive influence on me. On the contrary, it can have opposite influence, because I sometimes doubt, if a good product needs to be advertised very much. If there is a lot of advertising, it causes my reaction of rejection.” (Int 4, INM)

“When there is a lot of advertising on television, when something is heavily advertised, it causes my opposite reaction, I would not buy that product.” (Int 3, SAT)

“I react negatively to the pressure from media, especially if it is very intensive. I specifically do not choose that product.” (Int 15, JUS)

“I would say “Tymo” ecological market is advertising formed by media. If somebody says to me that something is fashionable, popular

now, it causes my opposite reaction.” (Int 3, SAT)

“There was a case where a product was heavily advertised and I found out that there was an excess of that product in the world, so I made a presumption that they just want to sell it.” (Int 2, ANG)

“I was influenced by media in a different way - it showed to me that the label “ecological” is used, but nothing is done to make products really ecological even in Germany or France.” (Int 6, ROT)

What is more, a lot of respondents indicated that they avoided advertising in general by not watching television, not reading newspapers, using ab-block tool on the internet, because they did not perceive advertising as being useful. Instead, they searched for information about products by themselves and only when they needed certain products.

“We do not watch advertisements because we have a TV set where you can rewind them.” (Int 1, AIG)

“I have an ad-block on my browser, I do not watch advertising on television. I avoid advertisements in all possible ways, because they distract me.” (Int 8, IGR)

“I limit my exposure to advertising, because it is enough for me to see it once. If advertisement is shown many times, I immediately change the channel. And in general I do not watch television on summer because there are more interesting things to do.” (Int 12, IRB)

“I ignore advertising, I do not see it.” (Int 14, JOM)

“I see an advertisement once and it is enough for me, later I ignore it.” (Int 18, JUA)

“I limit my exposure to advertising naturally because I do not watch television. Advertising pressures to buy something, but if I am interested, I search for information by myself. I do not need television to say to me that a certain product is good.” (Int 13, MAB)

“I limit my exposure to television and advertising, I do not read press, I use ad-blocking software on my computer, so I do not see any advertisements, because I am not interested. If I have a need, I look for

information. But it will be information, not advertising.” (Int 19, RAT)

“I do not look into the essence of advertisement, because I am not interested in what is advertised. If I am focused on the movie, I rewind ads.” (Int 6, ROT)

“It is hard to understand in advertising what is true and what is lie. [...] I do not watch shows about ecology, because I do not admire them, I think it is exaggerated.” (Int 16, STA)

“We do not have a TV. I have an ad-block on my computer. But I still see new products, read articles, or search for info by myself. I do not want advertisements to be persistently shown for me, it makes me tired. [...] When I get emails with advertising, I read them, especially from IKEA or sports shops. I am a person of discounts, I like to buy things cheaper. [...] Also I purposefully like various shops on Facebook, because this way it is specialized for me, not for the masses.” (Int 11, TAM)

So it can be concluded that despite the fact of what kind of products are advertised, people are very reluctant to advertising and do not perceive it positively or avoid in on purpose, unless it is very in line with their needs or hobbies. This confirms the findings of Tadjewski and Wagner-Tsukamoto (2006), Dolnicar and Leisch (2007), and Barber et al (2010) who stated that consumers have channels of information they trust and advertising has to be very cautious and clear, not flooded with useless information. In addition, it depends on how involved consumers are with green consumption, the same as stated by D’Souza and Taghian (2005).

Trust in Eco-labels

To analyse the influence of eco-labels for purchase and consumption of green products and the trust in eco-labels by the respondents, several specific questions were asked based on the answers of the respondents. In particular - do they notice eco-labelling on products? Do they know any eco-labels? If yes, what? Is eco-labelling important to them? Do they trust in eco-labelling and why?

Some of the respondents indicated that they see eco-labels and trust them at least to some extent. However, it also depends on the type of an eco-label. Cherrier (2007) revealed that green products should be advertised more by providing information, instead of targeted actions.

“I see eco-labelling, it influences me a little. For example, I have a rule that I do not buy non ecological sunflower oil, because I know how terribly sunflowers are grown.” (Int 5, GIB)

“I notice eco-labels, but it is not the main factor influencing my choice. If there are two similar products, but one is with an eco-label, I want to compare the composition and the country of origin of these products. For example, ECOCERT eco-label is the most influential for me, because in order to get it a validation process must be completed. But if an eco-label is unknown to me, it will not draw my attention.” (Int 2, ANG)

“I am not a specialist of eco-labels, but I pay attention. I like to buy stuff in healthy food shops, eco-labelling serves me well, but I am not always sure what it means.” (Int 13, MAB)

“If it was a German certification, then it would be different, I would believe it. But in other cases I am sceptical, even in farmers market. I buy, but I doubt every time. [...] I lack trust in eco-labels, if I had more of it, I would buy more eco-labelled products.” (Int 11, TAM)

Other respondents stressed that eco-labels do not influence their purchase choices because products with eco-labels are more expensive, even though they perceive such kind of products as slightly better. The quite big prices of eco-labelled products were also indicated as the most important limiting factor in the research performed by Kavaliauskė, Vaskiv and Šeimienė (2013).

“If prices were similar, then I would pay attention to eco-labels, because ecological is slightly healthier. But differences in prices are too high.” (Int 10, ARK)

“If the price was the same, and you knew the product is really ecological, then an eco-label would have more influence. Now the

product stands on the shelf, and you do not know if the product is really ecological. I have no idea how the control is performed. [...] I think there is no big difference.” (Int 7, TOG)

“I do not pay much attention to certificates. But I trust them, as I believe that such kind of products are a little bit better. [...] There is less falsification, less synthetics in eco-certified products, as really ecological product should be taken from nature.” (Int 3, SAT)

“If the product composition contains a lot of chemical materials, we all understand it is not healthy. I read product composition, but not always. So in these cases, when you do not have much time, eco-labels have influence.” (Int 7, TOG)

However, a part of the respondents had a negative opinion about eco-labels and stated that they do not ensure that the product is really ecological. The same distrust towards eco-labels, companies selling such products and certification agencies was expressed in research by Kavaliauski, Vaskiv and Šeimienė (2013).

“We do not look for certificates. Some only write “bio”, but I do not care about it.” (Int 11, TAM)

“Eco-labelling, certificates do not make any influence on me because it is only statistics, evaluated by a certain number of aspects, not evaluating the rest of them. So it is only a probability that product is ecological.” (Int 19, RAT)

“First I always look at the product composition, and only after that I look whether there is an eco-label or not. Then sometimes I think why an eco-label is given for this product having in mind its not ecological composition. I think that requirements for different eco-labels differ significantly, there are no standards, so it is unclear why eco-labels are given.” (Int 4, INM)

“A lot of labels really are a lie. So I do not trust in them. It is better to buy from relatives, acquaintances or by following recommendations.” (Int 1, AIG)

In conclusion, it can be stated that in Lithuania eco-labels are not a very influential tool of marketing because consumers either do not notice them or do not trust them. In addition, even if they notice eco-labels – higher prices of such products are limiting their ability to buy them.

Perceived product availability

Respondents were asked whether it was easy to find, access and buy green products, because, according to the literature, limited product availability is determined as discouraging green consumer behaviour (DePelsmacker et al, 2007; Tarkiainen, Sundqvist, 2005; Peattie, Crane, 2005).

The responses of the respondents varied significantly. Consumers, who are used to buying ecological products, stressed that the assortment of ecological products is quite big, but ecological products are not always sufficiently available in usual supermarkets, so consumers have to go to specific eco shops or farmers markets:

“I think that now it is easy to buy ecological products. Just you have to get a habit. If for usual products you go to “Maxima”, for the same type of ecological products you go to „Eko Sala“. The question is just which door you open, and how much money you can spend.” (Int 5, GIB)

“It is easy to find and buy ecological products, because you pass the section of ecological products 5 times when you are in the supermarket. From my experience, such departments are in the middle of supermarkets”. (Int 12, IRB)

“At the beginning I had to put much more effort to buy ecological products, now I do it on the internet, however not all products are available there. So you still need to make some effort. For example, in one e-shop there are basis products that I need, but not all, so I have to search elsewhere. Or in one e-shop there is a wider assortment, but the prices are higher compared to others. So in such cases you have to make more effort. The same is in the city, there are not that many places where you can buy ecological products.” (Int 13, MAB)

“Farmers markets of ecological products made the situation easier [...] There are such products, but you have to pay attention [...] I am already a little bit tired of getting up every Saturday morning and going to these markets. If everything was in one supermarket, it would be even more expensive. So we are not rich enough to afford that [...] However, it would be very nice to find everything in one shop.” (Int 11, TAM)

A part of the respondents did not feel that green products are not sufficiently available, because they grow such products by themselves or get from the relatives. As it was mentioned before, such kind of products were perceived by the respondents as the most ecological.

“We have many relatives in the village, so we always get organic food. We get eggs, we do not buy meat because we also get it: lamb, rabbit. We consume ecologically, even though we really do not buy ecological products. And if we buy ecological products, it is just because, for example, we know that somebody butchered a pig.” (Int 1, AIG)

“About a half of our products come from the village, also we grow vegetables, fruits by ourselves.” (Int 16, STA)

“We have a garden near our house, so products come from there, especially during the summer.” (Int 11, TAM)

However, a bigger part of the respondents stated that the availability and assortment of ecological products was smaller than compared to usual products and that it was quite difficult to find them.

“Maybe the assortment of ecological products is smaller than compared to usual products.” (Int 3, ANG)

“It is not easy to buy products which have ecological composition that is acceptable to you, so that you could find effectiveness and balance of composition. It is not easy.” (Int 4, INM)

“I would like to get more meat directly from farmers, but this requires effort. We received a half of a lamb, but we had to chop it by ourselves. We broke our knife, my husband went to buy an axe, all our kitchen was covered in blood. You can get tomatoes, cucumbers during the summer,

but during other seasons there are none of them or they are expensive.”
(Int 13, MAB)

“You have to go to special shops, where products are expensive, and I do not find anything in usual shops. Also, everything that is ecological is imported to Lithuania. I do not understand why ecological products cannot be produced in Lithuania.” (Int 3, SAT)

“As I know, people who try to live in a very healthy way, do not stick to it for long. It is difficult, so they slowly move back to to their usual rhythm. To drive 100 kilometres every weekend for several litres of milk, several loaves of bread and several cabbages is nonsense.” (Int 10, ARK)

“Supply of ecological products is not high, at least I think so. We go to the market, they say that products are grown without fertilizers, but you cannot know.” (Int 18, JUA)

Therefore, in conclusion it can be stated that opinions about the perceived availability of ecological products are very different and depend on how involved a person is in green consumption, also on what is his or her financial situation and possibilities to dedicate additional time to search for ecological products or grow them.

Perceived price

During the interviews all the respondents indicated that prices of ecological products are higher compared to those of usual products. However, the respondents fell into two groups, one agreeing that higher prices of ecological products are acceptable and should be like this, while other stating that prices of ecological products were too high and increased intentionally.

The respondents, who stated that higher prices of ecological products were justified, explained that it is more difficult and expensive to grow such products because no fertilizers are added, or because such products cannot be mass produced. These findings are in line with the results of other researchers, as Laroche et al (2001) found that the number of consumers who were willing

to pay more for environmentally friendly products was increasing, while Chen (2007) determined that people who care about environmental protection eventually start buying green products despite their price, and, finally, the price was perceived as affordable and had a positive impact on intention to buy organic products in the research by Kavaliauskė and Ubartaitė (2014).

“Production of ecological products is more expensive compared to ecological products.” (Int 8, IGR)

“I think that ecological products should be more expensive, because ecological farms are supervised by various agencies, have commitments to consumers, other institutions which gave the status of ecological farm.” (Int 18, JUA)

“Of course, ecological products are more expensive. But you can look for such kind of products and buy where you trust [...] where you know how the animals were raised.” (Int 16, STA)

“Ecological products are more expensive. I think if I was sure that the product is ecological, then the price would be justified. Because it is much more expensive for a granny to raise chickens and produce eggs compared to big farms. But I am not sure whether their price should be bigger by 20% or even twice than that of usual products.” (Int 11, TAM)

“I think ecological products are more expensive, but I cannot justify why. I guess that it is more difficult to produce things, there is no mass production, but I have never really searched for an answer.” (Int 5, GIB)

Other respondents stated that paying a higher price for ecological products is worth in the case of certified products, products that are very important for a person or due to higher quality of certain ecological products as compared to usual products. The same finding was developed by Zhen and Mansori (2012), who stated that the importance of price to a consumer very much depends on the value the consumer perceives to be getting from the product he or she buys. However, the respondents of the interviews indicated

that in the remaining cases higher prices of ecological products are not justified and are not worth paying. Various researchers like Zanoli, Naspetti (2002), Verhoef (2005), Padel, Foster (2005), and Hughner (2007) stated the same - that the higher price of ecological products is one of the main reasons forcing consumers to refuse to buy these products.

“I have an impression that ecological products are more expensive. [...] If a product has a certificate, it is more expensive. But I think ecological products should not be more expensive in all cases, because if natural products are sold in the market, they should not be more expensive.” (Int 2, ANG)

“The price of ecological products is usually higher compared to that of usual products. For some products it is justified. For example, I find it important not to use sugar. I know that some dried fruits contain added sugar, while ecological do not. So then I buy ecological dried fruits for the price that is set. But if I use certain products rarely, or if they are that necessary, then I am not willing to pay a higher price.” (Int 13, MAB)

“Ecological products cost two or even three times more, and although they have less chemical materials, the price difference is too big for me to buy them. I sometimes buy them, when I find products of a better quality, but not because of ecology; for example, dried fruits, oatmeal. However, if my financial situation did not restrict me, I would buy more ecological products because their quality is higher.” (Int 3, SAT)

“If ecological products are really grown or produced as stated, then the prices should be as they are, because it is really more difficult to produce in such a way. However, the prices should not be that much higher than compared to usual products. Now they are too high, exaggerated. If the prices were lower, people would go to ecological products sections at the supermarkets.” (Int 12, IRB)

Finally, a part of the respondents stated that it is not worth to pay higher prices because they do not trust ecological products or think that usual products

are good enough and there is no need to buy ecological products. This confirms the findings of Briz and Ward (2009), who determined that people tend to buy less ecological products, if the price is relatively high and higher than that of usual products

“If a product is labelled as ecological, it is immediately more expensive. If a radish grows without additives, so why it should be more expensive? It should be of the same price. However, I often hear that some people can say that anything is ecological in order to sell it for a bigger price.” (Int 14, JOM)

“It would be good to use ecological products, but when you see their price, which is much higher, you think about the actual difference of ecological products. Society is in constant progress, moving forward, so maybe you eat not fully healthy food, but it is not so bad that you could not eat it.” (Int 7, TOG)

Therefore, in conclusion it can be stated that the role of price as one of the possible factors that influence green consumption is ambiguous, depending on how a consumer is involved in ecological issues and green ideas, and on what his or her financial situation is. Moreover, if purchasing more expensive green products conflicts with one's core values, in such cases consumers, according to Black, Cherrier (2010), can choose consumption reduction instead.

Trust in product quality

During the interviews, respondents put a lot of emphasis on trust in ecological products. They either trusted or distrusted the quality of ecological products, and either trusted or distrusted the source of ecological products. The respondents stressed that distrust in that they were really buying ecological products and that these were really better than the usual ones was one of the main limiting factors for purchase of ecological products. Chen (2013) also stressed that characteristics of green products and the communication about them has influence on green consumption.

“If it is a fact that a product is ecological, then its quality is really better.” (Int 1, AIG)

“I cannot know that, for example, salads are ecological, but when I can check the composition, I see that it is different.” (Int 8, IGR)

“It’s not like I hear “ecological” and immediately believe it, there are many discussions, you have to analyse in more detail what is ecological, if it is how I understand it. Maybe product is just grown in an environmentally friendly way, but its composition will be the same as that of the one grown in environmentally unfriendly way.” (Int 13, MAB)

The respondents indicated that they perceived the quality of products based on their experience and understanding what it is, which might differ among different people. For some it is related to how the product was grown in the past, how it was prepared; for others – how healthy the product was, how it fulfilled the purpose it was bought for.

“I remember from my parents and their neighbours how they grew vegetables in the garden, they say these vegetables are healthier just because they are not covered with protective wax. My parents sprayed apples against pests, because without this they would have had no apples. [...] so when a product is sold in the market, it does not have less nitrates than the same product from the shop.” (Int 10, ARK)

“The quality of food products is their visual information. Since we used to grow vegetables in the village, I know that if they look big and beautiful, then a lot of fertilizers were used. So I usually choose middle sized products.” (Int 7, TOG)

“With food it is very important for me that it would be grown and delivered not from far away, because I think the food quality depends on that [...] You have to consume products when they are ripe. Also, I pay a lot of attention to the food shelf life period [...] it should be as short as possible. When I have time, I produce some of the products sold in shops by myself. For example, yogurt - it should be suitable for

consumption for three days, but when you buy yogurt, its shelf life is at least ten days. It means it has some additives, which change the composition [...]. This is my understanding of food. I want it to be as natural as possible. [...] If I take a fruit, and it is fresh after one and a half year, it means something is wrong with it, it does not happen like this in nature.” (Int 19, RAT)

“I notice bio products, they are usually suitable to use only for several days [...] however, I see no reason to buy a product which is suitable to consume for three weeks, because it means that it contains additives, and I, for example, plan to eat the product today or tomorrow.” (Int 6, ROT)

“I try to buy yogurt without sugar; black bread instead of white, that contains sugar. I make sure that ketchup is made from tomatoes, not from starch. I care not that much about bio, but more about the quality.” (Int 11, TAM)

“I mainly buy Lithuanian products, never look at discounted products, because I care about quality. I look at the composition of products, see what percentage of fat they contain. I choose more expensive, but better products.” (Int 16, STA)

“My wife cares about ecology a lot. I am concerned about the product being good: vegetables, avocados, bananas, salads, Greek yogurt, because I do sports. I am more interested in the nutritional value of the product, while my wife looks at the labels. For example, I bought live salmon, and my wife did not want to eat it, she thinks salmon is not safe. My wife buys ecological porridges, but I think we could buy usual porridges, because we have to eat not ecological porridges, but more vegetables. So my wife buys good (ecological) products, whereas I want to change the assortment of the products we buy.” (Int 11, TAM)

“When we talk about cleaning products [...] I think the rise of popularity of such products is a consequence of people’s laziness, because the composition of such product is easily available to every one

of us: baking soda, ammonia, etc. Only the proportions differ. [...] In general, there cannot be ecological cleaning agents, because their purpose is to destroy. If the materials, ingredients used for producing them are natural, derived from nature, so why I cannot take it from there, why should I have to wait until it is delivered to the shopping centre. [...] Also I think the need for such cleanness are create by the market as an additional trigger for demand.” (Int 19, RAT)

In conclusion, it can be stated that the respondents lack trust in ecological products' quality, unless they can check the composition or grow / make products by themselves. Therefore, just some communication and labelling stating that a product is ecological is not enough for a consumer to choose this product and to believe that it is of better quality; it is also very important to know where this product comes from, where it was grown or where it was produced.

Trust in product source

The respondents indicated that they have the most trust when they grow ecological products by themselves or get / buy them from relatives or people they already know:

“We get part of our products from parents [...] I think these products are better, because parent grew them with love. You can see all the process, see that no fertilizers were used, no pesticides were sprayed.” (Int 8, IGR)

“If products are grown by my grandmother or my family, I associate them with ecology, because it is close environment, you know what the grandmother used, whether she used fertilizers or not, because she tells you everything. You get a lot of information without asking, because she talks about that a lot.” (Int 15, JUS)

“I do not trust the indication “ecological farm”, because I do not know how things are grown there. But we have relatives in the village, whom we get products from, or buy them from their neighbours. My brother

lives in the village, where he keeps rabbits and chicken. His wife makes cheese and cottage cheese and we eat it.” (Int 16, STA)

“Ecological food for me is the one I perceive as such. Firstly, part of the food I use cannot be labelled because I buy it directly from producers, from farmers. Part of the food I grow by myself. I do not know if it is ecological, but for me it is healthy. Because what is labelled as ecological and what is in fact ecological might be two different things for different people.” (Int 19, RAT)

One more characteristic that some of the respondents mentioned as trustful is the Lithuanian origin of the products. However, several other respondents, on the contrary, indicated that the Lithuanian product origin of an ecological product is not trustworthy.

“I often look for Lithuanian products, because I want to support local producers. For example, I think Lithuanian dairy products are better. I think that Lithuanian producers who sell products in the Lithuanian market use less additives compared to the Polish producers whose products are not so fresh.” (Int 16, STA)

“I think we have to support the Lithuanian economy, so I try to buy from local producers. Also it is almost ecology, because you do not have to transport products far and thus use less petrol.” (Int 7, TOG)

“When food is concerned, I do not try to choose ecological products produced in Lithuania, because I do not believe in ecology in Lithuania, because inhibitors, pesticides, and herbicides only recently became quite affordable, before that they were too expensive for many of the farmers. I know that ecological farms do not comply with the requirements, therefore, I do not buy ecological products.” (Int 9, EDG)

“I don’t always always have a positive opinion about ecological products, because I have relatives who worked in a laboratory analysing these products and providing ecological certificates. Often farmers stated that a product is ecological, but the analysis showed differently. So people try to make ecological products but do not follow

the philosophy of ecology. Therefore, I do not trust people, the structure, and the system in general, because even certificates do not guarantee 100% of ecology.” (Int 15, JUS)

Very different opinions emerged among the respondents about the markets and products they sell. Even if the respondents were purchasing products there, not all of them were confident that they really were buying ecological products.

“I very rarely buy products which are labelled with “bio”. I go to the market and buy salad, tomatoes and the rest of the products from local women.” (Int 5, GIB)

“Everything is 1.5 – 2 times more expensive in ecological markets. But the question of trust arises – I do not want to believe that the person, who sells cheese at this market, goes to supermarket, buys cheese there and later resells it.” (Int 6, ROT)

“At the beginning we bought rabbits, cereal for porridge from ecological shops. But I am not fascinated with these shops, I think they do differ a lot. Now we go to ecological markets, we don’t buy all the products there, only bread, fruit, meat products, because we think they are better there.” (Int 11, TAM)

“A market is a place with limited trustworthiness, because in media you hear that people may sell anything in markets, and not always of best quality. You might think products are better there, but at the same time there is no way to know who controls the quality there.” (Int 6, ROT)

“I avoid buying from unofficial sellers, because, for example, I do not know for how long were the eggs exposed there.” (Int 16, STA)

Green practices

The respondents of the interviews had to fill in a form about their green practices (based on the scale developed by Huneke, 2005). The questions varied from purchasing of ecological or environmentally friendly products to recycling, composting, or even avoiding purchases.

Therefore, the most important finding is that 16 out of 20 respondents stated that they recycled, and even 13 of them did composting:

“We have been recycling for a very long time. However, I noticed that the garbage truck spills all the assorted waste into the same space. Or during the weekend different garbage trucks drive around our neighbourhood. So where is ecology in this case?” (Int 6, ROT)

It was already mentioned previously, that the respondents strongly avoid advertising, and the green practices scale revealed that 16 of the 20 respondents really do that.

What is more, 11 out of 20 respondents at least sometimes make presents by themselves instead of buying them:

“I respect people who can make something by themselves.” (Int 19, RAT)

Regarding purchasing practices, 16 out of 20 respondents stated that they were buying locally grown products, 12 out of 20 respondents were buying environmentally friendly products, 16 out of 20 respondents were buying from local merchants, but only 9 out of 20 stated that they were buying ecological food. This can be explained by the fact that the respondents' understanding of ecological food was mainly limited to the food grown by themselves or by close people in the countryside, therefore purchase of ecological food in general can be lower compared to consumption of ecological food.

However, green practices were quite strong among the respondents, especially in the case of limiting car use (15 out of 20), limiting of TV watching (13 out of 20), and what was expressed very intensively – avoiding impulse purchases (17 out of 20).

The results of the green practices questionnaire confirmed the findings of Cornelissen et al (2008) who stated that at first it is difficult for people to identify their own behaviour, some experiences or practices such as green behaviour, and only with the help from their surrounding environment they can be convinced of already having green behaviour experience, which encourages

them to further intensify this behaviour and make it a daily habit. Also, it is obvious that the respondents of the interviews had various practices that were related to voluntary simplification of their lives, like limiting car use, or limiting television, or avoiding impulse purchases, and this is in line with findings of Black, Cherrier (2010), who state that the wide range of anti-consumption possibilities allows consumers to express themselves mostly without any meaningful compromises, whereas when practicing green consumption consumers are required to make compromises.

Consumption level

Respondents of the interviews were also asked about their consumption level. Could they evaluate how much they, their family consume? Is it more or less if compared to others? Has their consumption behaviour changed during the recent years? If yes, what exactly has changed?

The results showed that a big part of the respondents tried to reduce consumption and saw no value or satisfaction in high level of consumption:

“I try to reduce consumption, consume all that is in my fridge and not to throw away anything. I try to think before buying. [...] In my case this reduction of consumption is ideological, especially when concerning clothing. Even if I earned a million, in the case of clothing nothing would change. For me the following is important: functionality, simplicity and not to stand out from the surrounding people.” (Int 2, ANG)

“I do not see any reason to consume much. What is the purpose of buying a new additional product that has the same function? Just to have a new one? [...] I sometimes watch TV when I visit somebody. So when you watch TV constantly, you get used to it, but when you watch it very rarely, then you understand how much advertising there is, and that some people understand motivating economy as increasing consumption.” (Int 9, EDG)

“Our consumption level is already lower than average, because I really do not like to buy unnecessary things. [...] I think everyone in my

environment is like this from birth. My mother is like this, my brother also will think 20 times before buying. My brother even does not have a vase, because you use it for flowers only 4 times per year and the rest of the time it will just use space. I even do not have such kind of friends who like to buy.” (Int 4, INM)

“We buy so that we would not have to throw anything. We prepare food just enough to sonume everything”. (Int 18, JUA)

“In comparison to an average person, we live much more ecologically, compared to standard ladies who buy a lot of things, including loads of cosmetics. We do not consume much; do not buy a lot of clothes, use very little cosmetics.” (Int 13, MAB)

“I try not to buy anything that I do not need. In cases where I need something (a coat, a backpack, or any stuff that lasts for a long time) I firstly ask if anybody else has something he or she does not need, especially with things for children. Everything comes and everything goes. I developed this anti-consumption approach because consumption does not make me happy. I look for used things, because I do not need anything new. I think it is a part of ecology. [...] things can last for much longer then we think [...] we could share everything we do not need.” (Int 5, GIB)

“We almost do not throw anything. Why buy something if you might not need it. If you will need something, you will buy it then. [...] There is no food or other stuff that you could not live without for several days. [...] In general I like when things can be used for long time.” (Int 19, RAT)

“I think I consume less than others. I become very unhappy when I hear people speaking about promotion of consumption. (EU example). Some talk about saving, others – about increasing consumption. I do not consume much, I cannot throw food away, I’d rather buy less. Maybe it is related to how I was brought up. If food is on the table, you have to eat it. I think people live too good if they throw things away. Also, I do not like the quality of clothing now, things last one season at most. I

would like to buy one skirt and wear it for at least 5 years. This is how I understand ecology.” (Int 3, SAT)

“We do not throw away anything, because I grew up with my grandparents, who never threw away things. We have quite a luxurious choice now (salmon, vegetables, etc.), in the past we never even thought of such food. [...] Also, I like to wear clothes for a long time. When I buy a certain thing, I want to use it for as long as possible.” (Int 11, TAM)

“Maybe I am an exception, because others try to consume as much as possible, but I try to consume just as much as I need, so that I could throw away very little. Therefore, it is better to buy products of higher quality, but to buy less in general. I think living in Germany had some influence on that. For example, my brother buys a lot, and throws away many things. He is from the society of consumption [...] My willingness not to purchase and consume things is more ideological, not based on financial reasons.” (Int 7, TOG)

Therefore, it can be stated that anti-consumption practices are quite common among the respondents of the interviews, including not only consumption reduction, but also reuse and sharing practices.

Products

One of the very important aspects of the interviews was to determine product categories in which the respondents most often choose ecological products instead of usual products. The questionnaire of product categories consisted of 60 product categories from such products groups as: dairy, groceries, bread, meat, vegetables and fruits, food for children, drinks, body care, hair care, decorative cosmetics, hygiene and cosmetics for children, home care, clothes, toys. The respondents had to evaluate how many of products that they buy from each product group they perceive as being ecological (from 1 – “usual”, not ecological products to 10 – ecological products). If the respondents chose numbers from 7 to 10, then the product was evaluated as

being ecological, but if the respondents chose numbers from 5 to 6, the product was evaluated as partially (50/50) ecological. Such distinction was important because during the interviews the respondents often mentioned that if they grew products by themselves or receives them from their relatives they perceived them as being ecological, but they had an opportunity to acquire such products for only half a year. For the rest half of the year they bought usual products from the shops and thus they chose the evaluation of 5 or 6 points. Therefore, it is also important to evaluate such cases.

Table 13 presents the product categories, which were mentioned among ecological products most often. These were 5: eggs, potatoes, fresh meat, soap and detergent. Eggs, potatoes, and fresh meat fall into the food category, whereas soap and detergent fall into the category of hygiene products. However, it should be pointed out that food products were mentioned as fully or partially ecological much more often compared to hygiene or cosmetics products, and especially various vegetables and fruits (not only potatoes, but also carrots, apples, etc.). Whereas fresh meat and meat products had very different evaluations, either as very important to being ecological or being not important at all.

Table 13. Product categories of ecological products

PRODUCT	Eco	50/50
Eggs	13	4
Potatoes	12	3
Fresh meat	10	5
Soap	8	4
Detergent	8	3

Therefore, based on this qualitative research results it was decided to choose one product for the quantitative research - green detergent.

So it can be concluded that during the qualitative research the respondents revealed that the most appropriate and acceptable term is “ecological”, but in general they associate ecology mainly with food or environmentally conscious actions (no littering and similar). It was found that the respondents perceived

ecology as a social trend, mainly influenced by the media. The respondents expressed only some consciousness about the local environment, however, they did show strong application of environmental practises. Whereas, health consciousness was heavily related to healthy food and active lifestyle. What is more, influence from close people and community was indicated as being the most important because the respondents trusted it. In the case of influence from media and advertising, the respondents showed reluctance towards it due to low trust. In the case of green products availability, the respondents with previous experience in green products purchase indicated that green products are sufficiently available, even though some additional effort is required to purchase them. Whereas people without previous green products purchase experience stated that green products assortment is small or that they grow these products by themselves. The price of green products was indicated as high by all the interview respondents, even though some perceived higher prices of green products as justified, whereas others indicated that the price should be even lower as compared to usual products. But in general, the respondents indicated the price of green products as limiting their purchase capabilities. In the case of trust, the respondents indicated that trustworthiness of product composition and product source are the most important factors. The respondents in general did not trust green products producers, therefore they preferred ecological products grown or produced by themselves or by close people. Finally, in the case of green practices, the respondents showed high level of environmental behaviour practices (recycling, composting) and life simplification practices (avoiding impulse purchases, limiting TV and car use). This shows attitude and behaviour gap, as the respondents expressed only a low level of environmental consciousness, but, at the same time, quite a high level of environmentally oriented practices. In the case of products, food and hygiene products were found being among the green products that were most often used by the interview participants.

Overall, the qualitative research results will be further tested in the quantitative research and later compared with the survey results.

6. Results of quantitative research

6.1. Factor analysis

In this chapter the results of the quantitative research will be analysed by applying various statistical methods in order to justify the research model presented in Figure 6 and to test the hypotheses presented in chapter 4.2.

In addition to the reliability analysis of the survey instrument, an exploratory factor analysis was carried out. The factor analysis was used to measure the internal consistency of the scales and to determine how the variables in the research model should be rearranged if necessary. Therefore, two separate factor analyses were performed for the scales of independent and dependant variables. The factor analysis for independent variables is presented in Annex 5 (Table 68 and Table 72) and the factor analysis for dependant variables is presented in Annex 5 (Table 76).

The factor analysis was performed by using the Varimax rotation method and supressing small loading coefficients by 0.3. This allows seeing only larger loadings and makes the interpretation of the factor analysis easier. The number of independent variables following the factor analysis was fixed at 13 while explaining 65 % of the variance (Annex 5, Table 71). The number of dependant variables was fixed to 3 following the factor analysis and explaining 81 % of the variance (Annex 5, Table 75).

The factor analysis revealed that the number of statements in the variable “environmental consciousness” has to be reduced from 15 to 11 because their loading was lower than 0.3 or they completely fell out of the consistency of the variables. Also, “environmental consciousness” broke down into two variables: environmental consciousness (5 statements) and environmental anti-consciousness (6 statements) with statements expressing an opposite attitude towards the environment (Annex 5, Table 68 and Table 72). “Health consciousness” was reduced to 5 statements, by eliminating the statement “I take responsibility for the state of my health”, as it’s loading was

very low (Annex 5, Table 68 and Table 72).

The number of statements in the “Green practices” variable was reduced from 21 to 17, and it was divided into 5 variables, such as Green purchase practices (4 statements), Life simplification practices (5 statements), Being socially active (4 statements), Limiting exposure to advertising (2 statements), Environmentally conscious behaviour (2 statements).

The variable “influence from close people” was found to be very consistent by the factor analysis, therefore all 5 statements were left for the further results analysis. Whereas in the case of the “influence from advertising” variable, it was found that it consists of two variables “noticing of advertising” (4 statements) and “importance of advertising” (4 statements). So it was decided that if advertising is already important for the consumer then he or she should have already noticed it, therefore, in order to simplify the analysis it was decided to leave only 4 statements about “importance of advertising” (Annex 5, Table 68 and Table 72).

In the case of “perceived higher green products price” one statement was eliminated (“Overall the price of the green products is reasonable”), as it had very low loading, therefore “perceived higher green products price” variable was left with 2 statements for further analysis (Annex 5, Table 68 and Table 72). Whereas other two variables “perceived availability of green detergent” and “trust in green detergent characteristics” were left with 5 and 4 statements respectively, because the loadings of the statements were found to be very high (from 0.590 to 0.898) (Annex 5, Table 72).

The dependant variables fell into 3 factors: intention to purchase and consume green detergent (2 statements), intention to purchase and consume usual detergent (2 statements) and intention to reduce detergent (5 statements), with very high loadings from 0.632 to 0.937 (Annex 5, Table 72).

Additionally, it was decided to calculate the reliability of the variables after modifications according to the factor analysis by measuring the Cronbach alpha statistics (Table 14).

Table 14. Cronbach alpha of the updated variables

Scale	No. of Items	Cronbach's Alpha
Environmental consciousness	5	.702
Environmental anti-consciousness	6	.769
Health consciousness	5	.853
Green practices:	17	.785
Green purchase practices	4	.837
Life simplification practices	5	.629
Being socially active	4	.645
Limiting exposure to advertising	2	.521
Environmentally conscious behaviour	2	.522
Influence from close people	5	.917
Influence from advertising	4	.910
Perceived higher green products price	2	.592
Perceived availability of green detergent	5	.895
Trust in green detergent characteristics	4	.926
Intention to purchase and consume green detergent	2	.966
Intention to purchase and consume usual detergent	2	.938
Intention to reduce detergent	5	.884

It was found that the Cronbach alpha of the variables is very high (from .629 to .966), except for three variables (“Limiting exposure to advertising”, “Environmentally conscious behaviour” and “Perceived higher green products price”), which had the Cronbach alpha of .521 - .592 (Table 14). These lower Cronbach alphas could be influenced by the fact that these variables each consisted only of 2 statements.

In the next chapter, each of the factors blocks (according to the research model) is analysed in greater detail.

6.2. Personal characteristics

Three personal characteristics were analysed in the research:

- 1) Environmental consciousness
- 2) Environmental anti-consciousness
- 3) Health consciousness

The means of these two factors are presented in Table 15. From the results it is obvious that the respondents were the most concerned about the environment (M=5.11) and their health (M=5.09). These findings support the results of Lee (2008) and Lindeman with Väänänen (2000) who stated that concerns about environmental problems had the greatest and most important influence on the choice of organic products. Same is with the results of Kavaliauskė, Ubartaitė, 2014; Hughner, 2007; Rembiakowska, 2007; Verhoef, 2005 and others, who also found that in most cases consumers prefer organic products due to high concerns about their health.

Table 15. Means of personal characteristics

Descriptive Statistics			
	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Environmental consciousness	438	5.1160	1.03666
Environmental anti-consciousness	438	3.5502	1.08951
Health consciousness	438	5.0927	1.07012
Valid N (listwise)	438		

After looking in detail at the statements about **environmental consciousness and anti-consciousness** (Table 16), it can be stated that the respondents agreed the most that “Humans are severely abusing the environment” (M=5.85) which shows that the respondents are respecting the environment they are living in, and this is in line with the least supported statement that „Humans were meant to rule over the rest of nature“ (M=2.88). This may be interpreted in a way that the respondents think that humans have no right to rule the nature due to their superiority.

Table 16. Means of statements of environmental consciousness and anti-consciousness constructs

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
ENVIRONMENTAL CONSCIOUSNESS:			
We are approaching the limit of the number of people the earth can support	438	4.25	1.750
Humans are severely abusing the environment	438	5.85	1.400

The earth is like a spaceship with very limited room and resources	438	4.84	1.553
The balance of nature is very delicate and easily upset	438	5.42	1.470
If things continue on their present course, we will soon experience a major ecological catastrophe	438	5.21	1.478
ENVIRONMENTAL ANTI-CONSCIOUSNESS:			
Humans have the right to modify the natural environment to suit their needs	438	3.71	1.642
Human ingenuity will ensure that we do NOT make the earth unliveable	438	4.46	1.587
The balance of nature is strong enough to cope with the impacts of modern industrial nations	438	3.26	1.548
The so-called “ecological crisis” facing humankind has been greatly exaggerated	438	3.25	1.606
Humans were meant to rule over the rest of nature	438	2.88	1.661
Humans will eventually learn enough about how nature works to be able to control it	438	3.74	1.550
Valid N (listwise)	438		

The mean of **health consciousness** was similar compared to environmental consciousness, however, the respondents partially agreed with 4 of 5 statements, and 1 statement (“I'm aware of the state of my health as I go through the day”) was evaluated even higher (Table 17) with M=5.76. Therefore, it can be concluded that the respondents were really conscious about their health.

Table 17. Means of statements of health consciousness construct

Descriptive Statistics			
	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
I reflect about my health a lot	438	5.16	1.403
I'm very self-conscious about my health	438	4.72	1.363
I'm alert to changes in my health	438	5.11	1.344
I'm usually aware of my health	438	4.71	1.417
I'm aware of the state of my health as I go through the day	438	5.76	1.205
Valid N (listwise)	438		

Further, the comparison of the respondents who previously have and have not used green detergent was carried out (Table 18). It was found that statistically significant differences between the respondents who previously have and have not used green detergent exist in the case of health consciousness ($F=17.032$, $Sig=.000$) (Annex 5, Table 77). Therefore, it can be

concluded that consumers who have tried green detergent previously are much more concerned about their health.

Table 18. Means of personal characteristics constructs and previous experience with green detergent

Have you ever used green detergent?		Environmental consciousness	Environmental anti-consciousness	Health consciousness
Yes	Mean	5.2009	3.5257	5.2925
	N	227	227	227
	Std. Deviation	.95575	1.07919	1.03140
No	Mean	5.0246	3.5766	4.8777
	N	211	211	211
	Std. Deviation	1.11225	1.10245	1.07173
Total	Mean	5.1160	3.5502	5.0927
	N	438	438	438
	Std. Deviation	1.03666	1.08951	1.07012

Further, it was decided to analyse correlations between the constructs analysed in this research (Table 19). In the case of environmental consciousness and anti-consciousness, an average significant but negative correlation was found ($p < 0.01$, Pearson's $r = -0.343$). This can be explained by the fact that these constructs originated from a single scale and were divided expressly for their opposite statements regarding the environment.

Table 19. Correlations among the constructs

		Environmental consciousness	Environmental anti-consciousness	Health consciousness
Environmental consciousness	Pearson Correlation	1	-.343**	.230**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000
	N	438	438	438
Environmental anti-consciousness	Pearson Correlation	-.343**	1	.084
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.080
	N	438	438	438
Health consciousness	Pearson Correlation	.230**	.084	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.080	
	N	438	438	438

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Therefore, it can be concluded that in the case of personal characteristics, health consciousness was the most common for the consumers with previous experience in green products purchase. This is in line with findings of Kavaliauskė, Ubartaitė (2014), Hughner (2007), Rembiakowska (2007), Verhoef (2005) and others who also found that in most cases consumers prefer organic products due to high concerns about their health. Although the respondents were partially concerned about certain issues of the environment, their attitude did not differ according to their previous experience with purchase of green products. The respondents believed that humans are severely abusing the environment and that the balance of nature is very delicate and easily upset, therefore an eco-crisis is possible. These findings support Abdul-Muhmin (2007) and Follows and Jobber (2000), who emphasized that environmental concern is about an attitude towards the perceived seriousness of threats to local and global environment, but contradict the findings of Lee (2008) and Lindeman with Väänänen (2000) who stated that concerns about environmental problems have the greatest and most important influence on the choice of organic products.

6.3. Green practices

After the factor analysis, **green practices** construct remained containing 17 statements. So when evaluated in general, it had the mean of 4.06 (Table 20). Green practices construct consisted of 5 factors:

- 1) Green purchase practices;
- 2) Life simplification practices;
- 3) Being socially active;
- 4) Limiting exposure to advertising;
- 5) Environmentally conscious behaviour.

Table 20. Means of green practices

Descriptive Statistics			
	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Green practices:	438	4.0659	.85024
Green purchase practices	438	4.5303	1.24183
Life simplification practices	438	3.1726	1.18834
Being socially active	438	4.2997	1.22508
Limiting exposure to advertising	438	4.9269	1.44595
Environmentally conscious behaviour	438	4.0422	1.76928
Valid N (listwise)	438		

It can be seen in Table 21 that the respondents partially agree that they limit their exposure to any forms of advertising (M=4.92), also almost partially agree that they purchase green or local products (M=4.53), are socially active (M=4.29). However, they neither agree, neither disagree that they act in an environmentally conscious way (M=4.04), although respondents indicate that they are likely to recycle (M=4.57), but not very likely to compost (M=3.52). This fact can be determined by the dwelling conditions (not possible to compost while living in an apartment). What is more, the respondents partially disagree that they carry out actions of life simplification (M=3.17), especially eating a vegetarian diet (M=2.26) and living in co-housing (M=2.27). Respondents' resistance to advertising supports the results of Rahbar, Wahid (2011), who stated that advertising is not always positively perceived by the consumers.

Table 21. Means of green practices construct statements

Descriptive Statistics			
	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
GREEN PURCHASE PRACTICES:			
I buy locally grown produce	438	4.82	1.446
I buy environmentally friendly products	438	4.58	1.470
I buy from socially responsible producers	438	4.08	1.552
I buy from local merchants	438	4.64	1.589
LIFE SIMPLIFICATION PRACTICES:			
I limit/eliminate TV	438	4.26	2.120
I limit car use	438	3.96	2.031

I make rather than buy gifts	438	3.12	1.755
I eat a vegetarian diet	438	2.26	1.619
I live in co-housing	438	2.27	1.796
BEING SOCIALLY ACTIVE:			
I work at a satisfying job	438	4.63	1.818
I am active in the community	438	4.19	1.675
I am politically active	438	3.56	1.823
I am friends with neighbours	438	4.81	1.721
LIMITING EXPOSURE TO ADVERTISING:			
I limit my exposure to ads	438	4.86	1.744
I eliminate clutter	438	4.99	1.774
ENVIRONMENTALLY CONSCIOUS BEHAVIOUR:			
I compost	438	3.52	2.304
I recycle	438	4.57	1.986
Valid N (listwise)	438		

A further comparison of the respondents who previously have and have not used green detergent was carried out (Table 22). It was found that among the respondents who previously have and have not used green detergent statistically significant differences exist in the case of green purchase practices ($F=38.021$, $Sig=.000$), life simplification practices ($F=13.624$, $Sig=.000$), being socially active ($F=13.540$, $Sig=.000$), limiting exposure to advertising ($F=8.060$, $Sig=.005$) and environmentally conscious behaviour ($F=28.252$, $Sig=.000$) (Annex 5, Table 77). Therefore, it can be concluded that consumers who have tried green detergent previously report green purchase practices and environmentally conscious and socially active behaviour, and in general are more eager to limit their exposure to advertising and to simplify their lifestyle (Annex 5, Table 77). These findings support the ideas of Cherrier et al (2011) and Autio et al (2009) who stated that green consumer behaviour consists not only of green purchasing, but also of other green practices related to voluntary simplification, and that green consumers can have a critical approach towards advertising.

Table 22. Means of green practices factors and previous experience with green detergent

Have you ever used green detergent?		Green purchase practices	Life simplification practices	Being socially active	Limiting exposure to advertising	Environmentally conscious behaviour
Yes	Mean	4.8689	3.3718	4.5044	5.1145	4.4626
	N	227	227	227	227	227
	Std. Deviation	1.13407	1.17883	1.18689	1.39535	1.74786
No	Mean	4.1659	2.9583	4.0794	4.7251	3.5900
	N	211	211	211	211	211
	Std. Deviation	1.25204	1.16364	1.23005	1.47528	1.68224
Total	Mean	4.5303	3.1726	4.2997	4.9269	4.0422
	N	438	438	438	438	438
	Std. Deviation	1.24183	1.18834	1.22508	1.44595	1.76928

Further, it was decided to analyse correlations between the constructs analysed in this research (Table 23). It was found that a correlation exists between all the factors of green practices, however, the strongest positive significant correlation exists between purchase of green products and life simplification ($p < 0.01$, Pearson's $r = 0.389$), environmental behaviour ($p < 0.01$, Pearson's $r = 0.348$), social life ($p < 0.01$, Pearson's $r = 0.324$). This shows that the respondents who stated that they buy green products (locally grown products, from socially responsible producers, environmentally friendly products, etc.) tend to live in a simpler way (limit TV and car use) and at the same time act in a more environmental way (recycle, compost, etc.) also live a more active social life (being active in community, working satisfying job, being friends with the neighbours, etc.). However, also an only weak positive significant correlation was found between limiting of advertisement and one other construct – life simplification practices ($p < 0.01$, Pearson's $r = 0.169$), which shows that people who limit their exposure to advertising also slightly limit other aspects of their lifestyle.

Table 23. Correlations among the constructs

		Green purchase practices	Life simplification practices	Being socially active	Limiting exposure to advertising	Environmentally conscious behaviour
Green purchase practices	Pearson Correlation	1	.389**	.324**	.304**	.348**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	438	438	438	438	438
Life simplification practices	Pearson Correlation	.389**	1	.225**	.169**	.290**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.000	.000
	N	438	438	438	438	438
Being socially active	Pearson Correlation	.324**	.225**	1	.091	.236**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000		.057	.000
	N	438	438	438	438	438
Limiting exposure to advertising	Pearson Correlation	.304**	.169**	.091	1	.121*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.057		.011
	N	438	438	438	438	438
Environmentally conscious behaviour	Pearson Correlation	.348**	.290**	.236**	.121*	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.011	
	N	438	438	438	438	438
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).						
*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).						

Therefore, it can be concluded that the respondents who had previous green products purchase experience revealed the continuity of this green behaviour together with environmentally friendly behaviour, but also expressed quite a high limitation of advertising. However, it was found that life simplification practices (especially making rather than buying gifts, eating vegetarian diet and living in co-housing) were not very common among the

respondents, but these actions are just a part of green practices related to voluntary simplicity, according to Humphery (2013) and Huneke (2005), whereas other forms of green practices as indicated previously were more common among the respondents.

6.4. Society pressure

In the case of pressure from the society, two factors were evaluated: influence from close people and influence from advertising. The results showed that the respondents neither do nor do not discuss, share with or learn from close people about green products, as the mean of pressure from society construct was 3.5 (Table 24). This means that the topics about ecology and green products are not very common among them. The respondents only partially disagreed with one statement with the mean of 3.08, that they went shopping for green products with close people very often (Table 25).

Table 24. Means of society pressure constructs

Construct	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Influence from close people	438	3.5329	1.56072
Influence from advertising	438	3.8213	1.55272

Influence from advertising was evaluated slightly more positively, but the respondents neither agreed, nor disagreed with all 4 statements (Table 25).

Table 25. Means of influence from close people and influence from advertising statements

Statement	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
INFLUENCE FROM CLOSE PEOPLE			
I have learned a lot about green issues from close people	438	3.71	1.813
I have discussed a lot with close people about green issues/ products	438	3.60	1.748
Close people very often have recommended green products to me	438	3.64	1.850

I have gone shopping for green products with close people very often	438	3.08	1.705
Close people very often have shared green product experiences and information with me	438	3.64	1.885
INFLUENCE FROM ADVERTISING			
Information (articles, shows) about green products in media is important to me while deciding to purchase green products	438	3.84	1.705
Advertising of green products in points of sales (separate shelves for green products, eco brands, environmentally friendly packages, etc.) is important to me while deciding to purchase green products	438	3.88	1.765
Advertising of green products in media is important to me while deciding to purchase green products	438	3.50	1.687
Eco-labelling of green products is important to me while deciding to purchase green products	438	4.06	1.839

Therefore, it was decided to analyse the pressure from close people by comparing the answers of the respondents who have and have not used green detergent (Table 26). Results show that the respondents who have used green detergent neither agree, nor disagree that close people make influence on them, but those respondents who have not used green detergent at least partially disagree about the influence from close people, with the means respectively 3.87 and 3.16, which, according to an independent sample t test (Annex 5, Table 78), are significantly different with $t=4.853$ ($p<0.05$).

Table 26. Means of influence from close people and from advertising for the respondents who have and have not used green detergent

Have you ever used green detergent?		Influence from close people	Influence from advertising
Yes	Mean	3.8731	4.1355
	N	227	227
	Std. Deviation	1.53937	1.49929
No	Mean	3.1668	3.4834
	N	211	211
	Std. Deviation	1.50296	1.54159
Total	Mean	3.5329	3.8213
	N	438	438
	Std. Deviation	1.56072	1.55272

Whereas in the case of influence from advertising, the mean of the construct was 3.82 (Table 26), which also shows that the respondents neither do, nor do not experience influence from advertising of green products. Therefore, it was decided to analyse the pressure from advertising by comparing the means of the respondents who have and have not used green detergent. The results show that the respondents who have used green detergent neither agree, nor disagree that advertising makes influence on them, but those respondents who have not used green detergent partially disagree about the influence from advertising, with the means respectively 4.13 and 3.48, which according to an independent sample t test (Annex 5, Table 78), are significantly different with $t=4.486$ ($p<0.05$).

Additionally, it was decided to check correlations between constructs of influence from the society (Table 27). It was found that a strong positive correlation exists between influence from close people and influence from advertising ($p<0.01$, Pearson's $r=0.517$). Therefore, it can be stated that the respondents who are influenced by close people about the issues related to green products are also usually influenced by green advertising.

Table 27. Correlations between the factors of social pressure

		Influence from close people	Influence from advertising
Influence from close people	Pearson Correlation	1	.517**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	438	438
Influence from advertising	Pearson Correlation	.517**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	438	438
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).			

Therefore, it can be concluded that low means of influence from close people on the respondents in this research slightly contradicts with the findings of Brace-Govan, 2012; Goldstein et al, 2008; Cherrier, 2007 and others, who found that influence from various close groups exists. However, the situation

with influence from advertising is more in line with findings of D'Souza et al (2006), who revealed that even though consumers notice green advertising, they do not find green ads convincing enough, and confirm the findings of Kavaliauskė, Vaskiv and Šeimienė (2013) that eco-labels alone cannot determine green purchase as other product aspects are more important. However, green advertising also usually influences people who are influenced by close people about the issues related to green products, so general resistance to any influence about green products from the society might cause this low influence from both sources.

6.5. Perceived product accessibility

In the case of perceived product accessibility, three aspects were evaluated: perceived higher price of green products, perceived availability of green detergent and trust in green detergent characteristics. The means of the constructs are presented in Table 28.

Table 28. Means of perceived product accessibility constructs

Descriptive Statistics			
	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Perceived higher price of green products	438	5.6941	1.21772
Perceived availability of green detergent	438	4.3023	1.37960
Trust in green detergent characteristics	438	4.3019	1.43858

The results show that the highest means are those of perceived higher price of green products $M=5.69$, however, after thoroughly looking at the statements, it was found that the respondents agreed that prices of green products were high ($M=6.19$), whereas only partially agreed that the prices were important in choosing green products ($M=5.20$). Whereas in the case of perceived availability for green detergent and trust in green detergent characteristics, the respondents neither agreed, nor disagreed, with the means respectively 4.30 and 4.30 (Table 29).

Table 29. Means of statements of perceived higher price of green products construct

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
The prices of green products are high	438	6.19	1.167
Price is the most important factor when it comes to purchasing green products	438	5.20	1.678

Therefore, it was decided to analyse perceived higher price of green products by comparing the means of the respondents who have and have not used green detergent (Annex 5, Table 80). Results show that there is no significant difference in perceived higher price of green products among the respondents who have and who have not used green detergent $t=-1.419$ ($p>0.05$).

As it was indicated previously in Table 28, in the case of **perceived product availability** for green detergent, the respondents neither agreed, nor disagreed that green detergent was available with the mean of 4.3. Therefore, it was decided to look into the statements of perceived product availability construct in more detail (Table 30).

It was found that in the case of perceived availability of green detergent, the respondents partially agreed with two statements: that green detergent that does not irritate the skin and green detergent that has no smell were always sufficiently available (with the means respectively 4.66 and 4.63). These are the qualities of the detergents that usually irritate people and where green detergent is more advanced compared to usual detergent. However, the respondents almost the same (with the means respectively 4.26 and 4.43) evaluated such aspects as the ability to wash dirt, stains, and pollution of environment because green detergents do not have chemicals in their composition, which means that they are not as effective as chemical detergents. Whereas it is a very complicated task for an average person to evaluate whether green detergent pollutes or does not pollute the environment. Nevertheless, it is important that the respondents partially disagreed (with the

mean of 3.53) that it is possible to get green detergent for a reasonable price. This result is in line with the overall evaluation of green product prices presented in Table 29.

Table 30. Means of statements of perceived green detergent availability construct

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Green detergent that washes dirt and stains well is always sufficiently available	438	4.26	1.687
Green detergent that does not irritate the skin is always sufficiently available	438	4.66	1.640
Green detergent that has no smell is always sufficiently available	438	4.63	1.638
Green detergent that does not pollute the environment is always sufficiently available	438	4.43	1.609
Green detergent that has a reasonable price is always sufficiently available	438	3.53	1.641

However, when the answers of the respondents were compared according to their experience in using green detergent (Table 31), it was found that a significant difference existed between the respondents who had used and who had not used green detergent previously, $t=9.674$ ($p<0.05$) (Annex 5, Table 81). The respondents who had used green detergent previously partially agreed it was available ($M=4.86$), whereas those respondents who have not used green detergent previously, neither agreed, nor disagreed that green detergent was available ($M=3.70$).

Table 31. Means of perceived green detergent availability construct based on respondents experience

Have you ever used green detergent?		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Perceived product availability of green detergent	Yes	227	4.8608	1.21568	.08069
	No	211	3.7014	1.29238	.08897

As it was indicated previously in Table 28, in the case of **trust in green**

detergent characteristics, the respondents neither agreed, nor disagreed that they trusted the quality of green detergent with the mean of 4.30. Therefore, it was decided to look into the statements of trust in green detergent characteristics construct in more detail. It was found that the respondents partially agreed only that green detergent had the characteristics usual to green products (M=4.59) (Annex 5, Table 82). When the answers of the respondents were compared according to their experience in using green detergent (Table 32), it was found that a significant difference existed between the respondents who had used and who had not used green detergent previously, $t=7.793$ ($p<0.05$) (Annex 5, Table 81). The respondents who had used green detergent previously partially trusted green detergent characteristics (M=4.78), whereas those who had not used green detergent previously, neither trusted, nor distrusted them (M=3.78).

Table 32. Means of trust in green detergent characteristics construct based on respondents experience

Have you ever used green detergent?		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Trust in green detergent characteristics	Yes	227	4.7863	1.32645	.08804
	No	211	3.7808	1.37352	.09456

Additionally, it was decided to check correlations between constructs of perceived product accessibility (Table 33). It was found that strong positive correlation exists between trust in characteristics and perceived availability of green detergent ($p<0.01$, Pearson's $r=0.586$). Therefore, it can be stated that the more a person trusts the quality of green detergent the more he or she perceived it as being available. However, no significant correlation was found between the trust in green detergent characteristics and perceived higher price, as well as perceived availability of green detergent and perceived higher price.

Table 33. Correlations among the factors of perceived product accessibility

Correlations				
		Perceived higher price of green products	Perceived availability of green detergent	Trust in green detergent characteristics
Perceived higher price of green products	Pearson Correlation	1	-.026	-.012
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.589	.795
	N	438	438	438
Perceived availability of green detergent	Pearson Correlation	-.026	1	.586**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.589		.000
	N	438	438	438
Trust in green detergent characteristics	Pearson Correlation	-.012	.586**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.795	.000	
	N	438	438	438
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).				

Therefore, it can be concluded that the results about the perceived higher prices of green products are in line with findings of various authors, like Briz and Ward (2009), Hughner (2007), Verhoef (2005), Padel and Foster (2005), and Zanoli and Naspetti (2002), who all found that the higher price of green products is one of the main reasons forcing consumers to refuse to buy green products or to buy them the less frequently. However, as Kavaliauskė and Uždavinytė (2013) also found in their research, although the price was perceived by the respondents as being important for intention to purchase green products, it was not perceived as the most important factor. The importance of perceived product availability and product characteristics was confirmed, as Chen (2013), Rimal et al (2005) and other researchers previously found it. In addition, it was found that the more a person trusts the quality of green products the more he or she perceives them as being available.

6.6. Other correlations between the factors

It was decided to analyse correlations between different factors of personal characteristics, green practices, influence from the society and perceived product accessibility in order to determine what additional relations between factors exist. It was found that most of the personal characteristics factors had at least some correlation with the factors of the society influence, as well as two factors of perceived product accessibility (perceived availability and trust in green detergent) (Annex 5, Table 83).

The results of the correlation analysis showed that environmental consciousness has positive weak correlation with influence from close people ($p < 0.01$, Pearson's $r = 0.195$) and influence from advertising ($p < 0.01$, Pearson's $r = 0.181$). This means that people who tend to experience influence from the society are more environmentally conscious. In addition, a positive weak correlation was found with trust in green detergent characteristics ($p < 0.01$, Pearson's $r = 0.172$). This shows that people who are more environmentally conscious tend to trust in green products more. This confirms the findings of Barber et al (2010), who explained that the attitude towards green issues and products is very much influenced by the objective environmental knowledge.

Furthermore, the correlation analysis revealed that health consciousness has a positive weak correlation with influence from close people ($p < 0.01$, Pearson's $r = 0.301$) and influence from advertising ($p < 0.01$, Pearson's $r = 0.261$). This means that people who tend to experience influence from the society, are more health conscious. In addition, a positive weak correlation was found between health consciousness and perceived availability of green detergent ($p < 0.01$, Pearson's $r = 0.199$) as well as trust in green detergent characteristics ($p < 0.01$, Pearson's $r = 0.242$). This shows that people who are more health conscious tend to perceive green products as more available and trustful. This confirms the findings of Kavaliauskė and Ubartaitė (2014), Rembiakowska (2007), Maynard and Franklin (2003), Łatacz-Lohmann and Foster (1997), Davies et al (1995) and others who confirmed the importance of health in green products purchasing.

What is more, it was found that the respondents who stated that they were buying green products (locally grown products, products from socially responsible producers, environmentally friendly products, etc.) tended to be more health conscious, as an average positive significant correlation was found between these constructs ($p < 0.01$, Pearson's $r = 0.369$). One more aspect that is also very interesting was found - only a very weak significant correlation exists between environmental consciousness and actual environmental behaviour (recycling and composting) ($p < 0.05$, Pearson's $r = 0.120$). This fact shows that in the case of respondents in Lithuania, actual environmental behaviour is not related to people's attitude towards local and global environment and that it is influenced by other factors.

It was found that an average positive correlation exists between green purchase practices and influence from close people as well as influence from advertising, respectively ($p < 0.01$, Pearson's $r = 0.436$ and Pearson's $r = 0.410$). This means that people who actually buy and consume green products tend to be more influenced by both close people and advertising. These findings support the results of Brace-Govan, 2012; Goldstein et al, 2008; Cherrier, 2007 and others, who found that influence from various close groups exists and encourages people to consumer green products.

What is more, a weak positive correlation was found between green purchase practices and trust in green detergent characteristics ($p < 0.01$, Pearson's $r = 0.333$) as well as perception of green detergent availability ($p < 0.01$, Pearson's $r = 0.205$). Therefore, if a person purchases and consumes green products he or she perceives these products as more trustworthy and available.

Humphery (2013) and Huneke (2005) stated that life simplification is also a part of green behaviour, and during this research it was found that life simplification practices have weak positive correlations with trust in green detergent characteristics ($p < 0.01$, Pearson's $r = 0.223$) and perception of green detergent availability ($p < 0.01$, Pearson's $r = 0.139$).

What is more, environmentally conscious behaviour had a positive weak correlation with both influence from close people and influence from

advertising, respectively ($p < 0.01$, Pearson's $r = 0.299$ and Pearson's $r = 0.311$), as well as trust in green detergent characteristics ($p < 0.01$, Pearson's $r = 0.218$) and perception of green detergent availability ($p < 0.01$, Pearson's $r = 0.185$). These results show that green behaviour is not only related to purchasing, but also to other forms of environmentally conscious behaviour (recycling, composting). So the more a consumer is used to environmentally conscious behaviour, the more he or she is influenced by the society, but also the more he or she perceives green detergent as available and trustworthy. This confirms the findings of Spangenberg and Lorek (2002), who stressed that green behaviour might consist not only from purchasing, but also from other green activities, and depends a lot on people's priorities in life. Also, these results are in line with the research by Cornelissen et al (2008), who found that society pressure helps people to realize that their behaviour is already green.

Finally, the results of correlation analysis showed that influence from close people and influence from advertising have a positive weak correlation with both perceived availability of green detergent ($p < 0.01$, respectively Pearson's $r = 0.156$ and Pearson's $r = 0.189$) and trust in green detergent characteristics ($p < 0.01$, respectively Pearson's $r = 0.327$ and Pearson's $r = 0.367$). This means that the more a person feels the influence from the society, the more he or she trusts in green detergent and perceives it as being available. This is in line with the findings of Barber, Taylor, Strick (2010), Dolnicar, Leisch (2007) and other authors who stated that green marketing activities are effective to some extent, as well as the findings of Brace-Govan (2012), Goldstein et al (2008), Cherrier (2007) and others, who claimed that influence from various close groups exists.

6.7. Intention to purchase, consume and actual behaviour

In this chapter intention to purchase green detergent and actual green detergent purchase experience are analysed.

First of all, it was important to find out about the actual respondents'

experiences regarding detergent purchase and consumption. One of the very important aspects when analysing the example of a certain product (in this dissertation –detergent) is the frequency of the product use. Therefore, the respondents were asked about how often they washed their clothes to find out how intensively they might use any kind of detergent. The results revealed that almost 75% (N=328) of the respondents washed their clothes quite often, which is from 1 to 3 times per week. 17.4% (N=76) of the respondents washed their clothes from 4 to 7 times per week and only 7.8% (N=34) wash their clothes once per two weeks or even more rarely (Annex 5, Table 84). Therefore, it can be concluded that detergent as a product is a very important part of the respondents' products they purchase and consume every week.

What is more, the respondents were asked if they had ever used green detergent and the definition of green detergent was provided for them to understand what it was (as they might have had a different understanding what „green“ is). Green detergent was described as washing powder, washing liquid, washing tablets, etc., which are made of natural ingredients, do not pollute environment, etc. The results show that more than a half of the respondents (51.8%, N=227) had used green detergent at least once in their life, but 48.2% (N=211) had never tried green detergent before (Table 34).

Table 34. Usage of green detergent (at least once)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	227	51.8	51.8	51.8
	No	211	48.2	48.2	100.0
	Total	438	100.0	100.0	

However, it was also important to find out where/how the respondents acquired detergent the most often, which shows the most common place they acquired it from, but also one more question was asked – to indicate all the options where they had acquired detergent before (Table 35).

Table 35. All possible ways to acquire detergent

	The most often way to acquire detergent	The way to acquire detergent any time before
Produce by myself	3	5
Get for free from my family members, relatives, acquaintances	30	49
Purchase from my family members, relatives, acquaintances	17	29
Purchase in ecological markets	7	12
Purchase in usual markets	13	14
Purchase in ecological shops	38	49
Purchase in usual shops	279	304
Purchase usual shops but green products department	51	63
Total	438	-

It was found (Table 35) that most often consumers bought detergent in usual shops (63,7%, N=279) as their first choice, even more respondents bought detergents in shops as one of the options to acquire detergent (69,4%, N=304). However, even 11.6% (N=51) of the respondents most often acquired green detergent in usual shops but green products sections, while additional 2.7% (N=12) of the respondents did it from time to time. What is more, 8.7% (N=38) of the respondents acquires the detergent in ecological shops or 1.6% (N=7) in ecological markets as their main choice, with additional 2.5% (N=11) and 1.2% (N=5) doing that from time to time. So in general as many as 21.9% (N=96) of the respondents most often bought green detergent, with additional 6.4 % (N=28) doing that from time to time. Compared to the fact that 51.8% (N=227) of the respondents had used green detergent at least once in their life (Table 34), it means that more than half of them still used it more often or most of the time. It is important to mention that 7.5% (N=33) of the respondents never bought detergent by themselves, because they either produced it on their own or got for free from their family members, relatives, acquaintances. Even though to a very small extent but still 1.14% (N=5) of the respondents had tried to produce detergent by themselves, which shows that some minor cases of voluntary simplicity and anti-consumption existed among the respondents.

Furthermore, respondents' intention to purchase and consume detergent during an upcoming period of 6 months was analysed (Table 36). The respondents partially agreed that they intended to purchase and consume usual detergent (M=5.27, separately statements respectively M=5.12 and M=5.27), but partially disagreed that they intended to purchase and consume green detergent during the next 6 months (M=3.60, separately statements respectively 3.55 and 3.65). What is more, the respondents partially disagreed that they intended to reduce detergent purchase and consumption (M=2.99), and partially disagreed that they intended to reduce the amount of detergent purchased and consumed (respectively M=3.34 and M=3.42) or wash clothes more rarely (M=2.66). But the respondents disagreed that they intended to use washing solutions that did not require any detergent (2.33).

Table 36. Intention to purchase and consume detergent during the next 6 months

Descriptive Statistics			
	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Intention to purchase and consume green detergent	438	3.60	2.09
During the next 6 months I intend to purchase green detergent	438	3.55	2.133
During the next 6 months I intend to consume green detergent	438	3.65	2.118
Intention to purchase and consume usual detergent	438	5.19	1.84
During the next 6 months I intend to purchase usual detergent	438	5.12	1.926
During the next 6 months I intend to consume usual detergent	438	5.27	1.873
Intention to reduce purchase and consumption of any detergent	438	2.99	1.507
During the next 6 months I intend to purchase smaller amount of detergent	438	3.34	1.941
During the next 6 months I intend to consume smaller amount of detergent	438	3.42	1.935
During the next 6 months I intend to wash clothes more rarely	438	2.66	1.736
During the next 6 months I intend to use smaller amount of detergent every time I wash clothes	438	3.19	1.834
During the next 6 months I intend to use washing solutions that do not require any detergent	438	2.33	1.664
Valid N (listwise)	438		

Therefore, it was decided to analyse the purchase and consumption intentions among the respondents who currently were buying green detergent in ecological markets, ecological shops, usual shops but green products sections and usual shops in order to compare the actual purchase and consumption behaviour with intentions to proceed with such behaviour and to determine whether the gap between behavioural intentions and actual behaviour existed, especially in the case of green detergent purchase and consumption.

It was found that the respondents who purchased detergent in ecological markets (Annex 5, Table 85) partially agreed that during the next 6 months they intended to purchase (M=4.67) and consume (M=4.92) green detergent, but a significant difference in the means exists only in the case of consumption intention $t=-2.198$ ($p<0.05$) (Annex 5, Table 86). Also, the respondents who purchased detergent in ecological markets partially agreed that they intended to reduce the usage of detergent by purchasing (M=4.50) and consuming (M=4.58) smaller amounts of detergent and using smaller amounts of detergent every time they washed clothes (M=4.67), but only the last mentioned difference in the means was found significant $t=-2.574$ ($p<0.05$) (Annex 5, Table 86). Also the respondents who purchased detergent in ecological markets neither agreed, nor disagreed that they intended to use washing solutions that do not require any detergent (M=3.67), which means that they considered this option from time to time, and this difference in the means was found significant $t=-2.335$ ($p<0.05$) (Annex 5, Table 86).

In the case of ecological shops, it was found that the respondents who purchased detergent in ecological shops (Annex 5, Table 87) partially agreed that during the next 6 months they intended to purchase (M=5.10) and consume (M=5.20) green detergent, with a significant difference in the means respectively $t=-5.778$ ($p<0.05$) and $t=-6.540$ ($p<0.05$) (Annex 5, Table 88).

Furthermore, it was found that the respondents who purchased detergent in usual shops but green products sections (Annex 5, Table 89) partially agreed that during the next 6 months they intended to purchase (M=4.44) and

consume ($M=4.63$) green detergent, with significant difference in the means respectively $t=-3.609$ ($p<0.05$) and $t=-4.056$ ($p<0.05$) (Annex 5, Table 90). Also the respondents who purchased detergent in usual shops but green products sections neither agreed, nor disagreed that they intended to purchase smaller amounts of detergent ($M=3.87$) and intended to use smaller amounts of detergent every time they washed clothes ($M=3.71$), which means that they considered this option from time to time, and this difference in the means was found significant respectively $t=-2.293$ ($p<0.05$) and $t=-2.387$ ($p<0.05$) (Annex 5, Table 90).

As it was indicated previously, in the case of detergent acquisition the most of the respondents indicated that they purchased detergent in usual shops ($N= 304$), therefore it was decided to compare these respondents with the remaining portion. The results revealed that a significant difference existed in intention to purchase and consume green detergent (Annex 5, Table 91 and Table 92), with respectively $M=3.09$ ($t=6.974$, $p<0.05$) and $M=3.17$ ($t=7.463$, $p<0.05$) for those who purchased detergent in usual shops, and $M=4.60$ and $M=4.74$ for the remaining portion. In addition, a significant difference exists in intention to consume smaller amounts of detergent, with $M=3.28$ ($t=2.391$, $p<0.05$) for those who purchased detergent in usual shops, and $M=3.75$ for the remaining portion.

Therefore, on the basis of the results discussed above it can be concluded that the respondents who were used to purchasing detergent in ecological markets, ecological shops, or sections of green products in usual shops are willing to behave in the same way further in the future. This confirms that the gap between purchase intention and actual behaviour does not exist with such products as household goods (in this case detergent), neither in the case of green, and neither in the case of usual detergent. What is more, the results above show that the respondents who purchased detergent in usual shops were less willing to engage in purchase and consumption reduction of detergent compared to the respondents who purchased detergent in other types of locations.

Furthermore, it was decided to calculate the correlations between the constructs of purchase, consumption and reduction intentions. Table 37 shows that a significant average negative correlation exists between intention to purchase and consume green detergent and to purchase and consume usual detergent ($p < 0.01$, Pearson's $r = -0.456$). This means that mostly different people intend to consume either green, or usual detergent. However, those respondents who intended to purchase and consume green detergent were more willing to reduce purchase and consumption of detergent with a significant weak but positive correlation between these factors ($p < 0.01$, Pearson's $r = 0.316$). And on the contrary, those respondents who intended to purchase and consume usual detergent were not willing to reduce purchase and consumption of detergent with a significant weak negative correlation between these factors ($p < 0.01$, Pearson's $r = -0.117$).

Table 37. Correlations between the factors of intentions to purchase, consume or reduce detergent

		Intention to purchase and consume green detergent	Intention to purchase and consume usual detergent	Intention to reduce purchase and consumption of any detergent
Intention to purchase and consume green detergent	Pearson Correlation	1	-.456**	.316**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000
	N	438	438	438
Intention to purchase and consume usual detergent	Pearson Correlation	-.456**	1	-.117*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.014
	N	438	438	438
Intention to reduce purchase and consumption of any detergent	Pearson Correlation	.316**	-.117*	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.014	
	N	438	438	438
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).				
*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).				

What is more, it was very important to determine whether a consistency

in purchase and consumption of any type of detergent existed. Therefore, the correlations between the statements about green and usual detergent purchase, consumption and reduction were calculated (Table 38).

Table 38. Correlations between intentions to purchase, consume or reduce detergent

		During the next 6 months I intend to								
		purchase green detergent	consume green detergent	purchase usual detergent	consume usual detergent	purchase smaller amount of detergent	consume smaller amount of detergent	intend to wash clothes more rarely	use smaller amount of detergent during every time I wash clothes	use washing solutions that do not require any detergent
During the next 6 months I intend to purchase green detergent	Pearson Correlation	1	.934**	-.388**	-.463**	.234**	.287**	.182**	.285**	.313**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	438	438	438	438	438	438	438	438	438
consume green detergent	Pearson Correlation	.934**	1	-.422**	-.471**	.230**	.285**	.198**	.285**	.274**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	438	438	438	438	438	438	438	438	438
purchase usual detergent	Pearson Correlation	-.388**	-.422**	1	.883**	.021	-.016	-.129**	-.093	-.206**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000		.000	.659	.740	.007	.052	.000
	N	438	438	438	438	438	438	438	438	438
consume usual detergent	Pearson Correlation	-.463**	-.471**	.883**	1	-.010	-.051	-.147**	-.119*	-.240**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000		.836	.282	.002	.012	.000
	N	438	438	438	438	438	438	438	438	438
purchase smaller amount of detergent	Pearson Correlation	.234**	.230**	.021	-.010	1	.868**	.584**	.650**	.409**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.659	.836		.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	438	438	438	438	438	438	438	438	438
consume smaller amount of detergent	Pearson Correlation	.287**	.285**	-.016	-.051	.868**	1	.630**	.760**	.446**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.740	.282	.000		.000	.000	.000
	N	438	438	438	438	438	438	438	438	438

wash clothes more rarely	Pearson Correlation	.182**	.198**	-.129**	-.147**	.584**	.630**	1	.652**	.508**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.007	.002	.000	.000		.000	.000
	N	438	438	438	438	438	438	438	438	438
use smaller amount of detergent every time I wash clothes	Pearson Correlation	.285**	.285**	-.093	-.119*	.650**	.760**	.652**	1	.474**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.052	.012	.000	.000	.000		.000
	N	438	438	438	438	438	438	438	438	438
use washing solutions that do not require any detergent	Pearson Correlation	.313**	.274**	-.206**	-.240**	.409**	.446**	.508**	.474**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	
	N	438	438	438	438	438	438	438	438	438
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).										
*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).										

It was found that a very strong positive correlation exists between intention to purchase and intention to consume green detergent during the next 6 months ($p < 0.01$, Pearson's $r = 0.934$). In addition, a very strong correlation was found between intention to purchase and intention to consume usual detergent during the next 6 months ($p < 0.01$, Pearson's $r = 0.883$). This means that almost all consumers who consumed either green, or usual detergent usually purchased it and did not acquire it in any other ways.

What is more, an average but negative correlation was found between intention to purchase green detergent and intention to purchase usual detergent ($p < 0.01$, Pearson's $r = -0.388$), as well as intention to consume green and usual detergent ($p < 0.01$, Pearson's $r = -0.471$). These results show that consumers who intended to purchase and consume green detergent were not willing to purchase and consume usual detergent and vice versa.

In the case of intention to purchase and consume smaller amounts of detergent during the next 6 months, a very strong positive correlation was also found ($p < 0.01$, Pearson's $r = 0.869$). Also strong positive correlations were found between intention to purchase smaller amounts of detergent and intention to wash

clothes more rarely ($p < 0.01$, Pearson's $r = 0.584$), intention to use smaller amounts of detergent every time the respondent washed clothes ($p < 0.01$, Pearson's $r = 0.650$), and intention to use washing solutions that do not require any detergent ($p < 0.01$, Pearson's $r = 0.409$) during the next 6 months. A very similar situation, but with even stronger than average positive correlations was found between intention to consume smaller amounts of detergent and intention to wash clothes more rarely ($p < 0.01$, Pearson's $r = 0.630$), intention to use smaller amount of detergent every time the respondent washed clothes ($p < 0.01$, Pearson's $r = 0.760$), and intention to use washing solutions that do not require any detergent ($p < 0.01$, Pearson's $r = 0.446$) during the next 6 months. These results reveal that the forms of purchase and consumption reduction of detergent selected for the research based on literature review and qualitative research, were selected correctly, as the respondents who intended to reduce purchase and consumption of detergent most likely intended to use smaller amounts of detergent every time they washed clothes, intended to wash clothes more rarely or intended to use washing solutions that do not require any detergent.

What is more, the respondents who intended to purchase and consume green detergent during the next 6 months were much more willing to reduce purchase and consumption of detergent in general, with weak, but positive correlations, respectively ($p < 0.01$, Pearson's $r = 0.234$; $p < 0.01$, Pearson's $r = 0.285$), as well as to engage in other consumption reduction practises, especially intention to use washing solutions that do not require any detergent ($p < 0.01$, Pearson's $r = 0.313$; $p < 0.05$, Pearson's $r = 0.274$) during the next 6 months.

In the case of the respondents who purchased and consumed usual detergent no significant correlation was found with intention to reduce purchasing and consumption of detergent. However, a weak significant negative correlation was found between intention to purchase and consume usual detergent and intention to wash clothes more rarely (respectively: $p < 0.01$, Pearson's $r = -0.129$; $p < 0.01$, Pearson's $r = -0.147$) or to use washing solutions that do not require any detergent (respectively: $p < 0.01$, Pearson's $r = -0.206$; $p < 0.01$, Pearson's $r = -0.240$) during the next 6 months. These results show that people who intend to purchase

and consume green detergent are much more eager to reduce their consumption, potentially because of the similar reasons that encourage green consumption and consumption reduction. However, consumers who intend to purchase and consume usual detergent are not willing to reduce their consumption and are not considering any such practises.

What is more, the same people who are used to purchasing green detergent at the same time consider buying and using smaller amount of detergent at least to some extent, which shows their environmental concern and willingness to reduce consumption and confirms the theoretical suggestions that consumption of green products can be determined by similar factors as consumption reduction. However, the respondents who intend to purchase and consume usual detergent are not willing to engage in consumption reduction practises and do not consider alternative forms of washing solutions.

6.8. Differences according to demographics

Although various researchers determined that such demographic variables as income, education and age cannot predict green consumer behaviour alone (Barber, Taylor, Strick, 2010) and have to be analysed in relation to other factors, it was decided to analyse the results of this research based on demographics.

Studies about the influence of **age** on green consumer behaviour showed that the age effect is small (Pickett-Baker, Ozaki 2008), but the older the user is, the less likely he or she is to become a green consumer (Kavaliauskė, Ubartaitė, 2014; Barber et al, 2010). Very interesting results were found in the case of environmental anti consciousness and environmentally conscious behaviour, where a significant difference was found among age groups, with older respondents being more environmentally anti conscious and expressing stronger environmentally conscious behaviour practices at the same time ($p < 0.05$; Annex 5, Table 93, Fig. 14, Fig. 16). These findings confirm the previous findings that the attitude towards environmental consciousness and actual environmentally

conscious behaviour do not necessarily go in line. Whereas, life simplification practices were significantly higher in the case of younger age groups ($p < 0.05$; Annex 5, Table 93, Fig. 15). What is more, older age groups stressed more significant influence from close people ($p < 0.05$; Annex 5, Table 93, Fig. 17). At the same time older age groups trusted the characteristics of green detergent more, while perceiving it as being more expensive ($p < 0.05$; Annex 5, Table 93, Fig. 18). A very interesting finding was that the youngest age group (18-29) and the oldest age group (>50 years old) expressed a similar intention level to reduce purchase and consumption of detergent and it was significantly different from other age groups ($p < 0.05$; Annex 5, Table 93, Fig. 20).

In the case of **gender**, many more significant differences between men and women were found during this research. Women expressed significantly higher environmental consciousness, health consciousness, green purchase practices, life simplification practices, perceived influence from advertising, and perceived green detergent availability ($p < 0.05$; Annex 5, Table 94, Fig. 21, Fig. 23, Fig. 24, Fig. 25, Fig. 26, Fig. 27), whereas men expressed significantly higher environmental anti-consciousness ($p < 0.05$; Annex 5, Table 94, Fig. 22). This means that women are more environmentally and health conscious. In addition, women more actively practice life simplification, but also are more influenced by the society in the case of green products (significantly only in the case of advertising). Women perceive green products as more available and actually buy them more often. Different researchers already have presented contradictory results in the case of relation between green consumption and gender. Some of them have found that women are more likely to be green consumers (Diamantopoulos et al, 2003; Zelezny et al, 2000), while other studies found that men are more likely to be green consumers (Mostafa, 2007). These results can be explained by the unevenness of the consumers' surveyed and the cultural differences influenced by their place of residence.

In the case of respondents' differences according to **education**, no significant differences in means were found (Annex 5, Table 95), however, from methodological aspect it might have been caused by the fact that 68.5 %

of the respondents had a higher education degree.

In the case of **income**, only two significant differences were found among different income groups. It is quite obvious that respondents with higher income for one family member did not perceive the prices of green products as high ($p < 0.05$; Annex 5, Table 96, Fig. 29). However, at the same time respondents with higher income expressed significantly lower environmentally conscious behaviour compared to respondents with lower income ($p < 0.05$; Annex 5, Table 96, Fig. 28).

Therefore, it can be concluded that some differences exist based on demographics, however, they are mainly related to different age and gender of consumers.

6.9. Testing of hypothesis

In this chapter, the testing of hypotheses, which were developed based on literature analysis, is presented. Hypothesis testing was done by using regression analysis. Out of 21 hypotheses 14 were confirmed and 7 hypotheses could not be confirmed. For each behavioural situation (intention to purchase and consume green detergent, intention to purchase and consume usual detergent, and intention to reduce purchase and consumption of detergent) separate research models were composed (Fig. 8, 9 and 10)

In order to analyse what impact the factors of personal characteristics have on **intention to purchase and consume green detergent** (Fig. 8), regression analysis was carried out.

Two regression models were composed. The first model with an equation consisting of 14 elements (intention to purchase and consume green detergent (IPCGD) and 13 factors: environmental consciousness (EC), environmental anti-consciousness (EAC), health consciousness (HC), green purchase practices (GPP), life simplification practices (LSP), being socially active (BSA), limiting exposure to advertising (LEA), environmentally conscious behaviour (ECB), influence from close people (ICP), influence from

advertising (IA), perceived higher price of green products (PHP), perceived availability of green detergent (PA) and trust in green detergent characteristics (TC)) is appropriate as ANOVA's $p < 0.05$. 49.6% of the response variable variation is explained by the linear model ($R^2 = 0.496$). However, t-test showed that environmental consciousness, environmental anti-consciousness, health consciousness, green purchase practices, life simplification practices, being socially active, limiting exposure to advertising are not suitable for explaining the impact on the intention to purchase and consume green detergent (t-test, $p > 0.05$). Therefore, these elements were removed from the model.

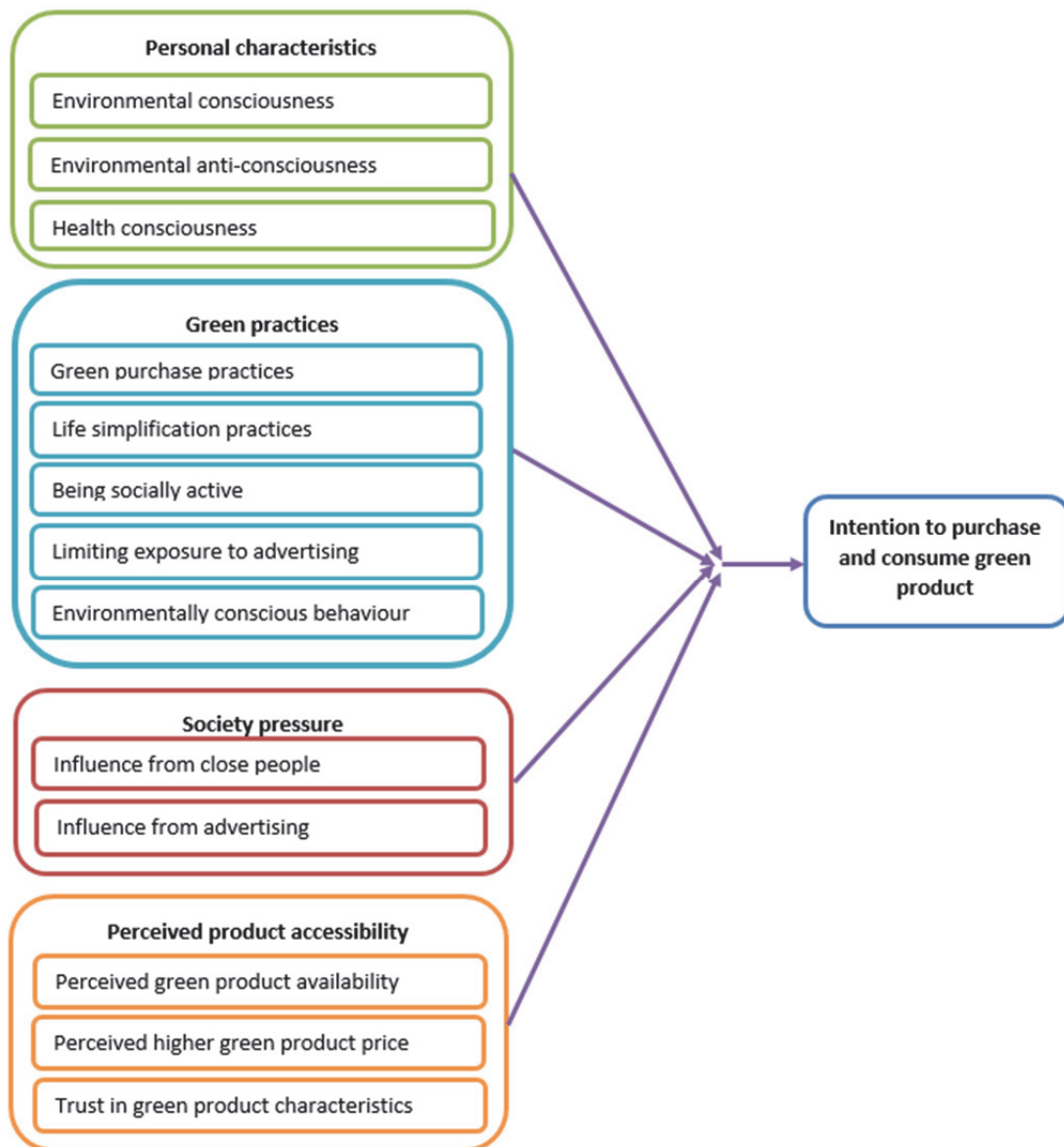


Figure 8. Model of intention to purchase and consume green detergent

Regression model of intention to purchase and consume green detergent and 13 factors

Table 39. Regression model summary^b of intention to purchase and consume green detergent and 13 factors

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.715 ^a	.511	.496	1.48383	2.086

a. Predictors: (Constant), Trust in green detergent characteristics, Perceived higher price of green products, Limiting exposure to advertising, Environmental anti-consciousness, Environmentally conscious behaviour, Being socially active, Life simplification practices, Health consciousness, Environmental consciousness, Influence from advertising, Perceived green detergent availability, Influence from close people, Green purchase practices

b. Dependent Variable: Intention to purchase and consume green detergent

Table 40. ANOVA^b of regression model of intention to purchase and consume green detergent and 13 factors

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	975.691	13	75.053	34.088	.000 ^a
	Residual	933.538	424	2.202		
	Total	1909.229	437			

a. Predictors: (Constant), Trust in green detergent characteristics, Perceived higher price of green products, Limiting exposure to advertising, Environmental anti-consciousness, Environmentally conscious behaviour, Being socially active, Life simplification practices, Health consciousness, Environmental consciousness, Influence from advertising, Perceived green detergent availability, Influence from close people, Green purchase practices

b. Dependent Variable: Intention to purchase and consume green detergent

Table 41. Coefficients^a of regression model of intention to purchase and consume green detergent and 13 factors

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	-1.721	.697		-2.469	.014
	Environmental consciousness	.075	.078	.037	.960	.338
	Environmental anti-consciousness	.114	.071	.059	1.597	.111
	Health consciousness	-.052	.077	-.027	-.680	.497
	Green purchase practices	.090	.076	.053	1.186	.236
	Life simplification practices	.083	.067	.047	1.233	.218
	Being socially active	-.120	.065	-.070	-1.852	.065
	Limiting exposure to advertising	.089	.053	.062	1.685	.093
	Environmentally conscious behaviour	.114	.045	.097	2.520	.012
	Influence from close people	.167	.058	.125	2.893	.004
	Influence from advertising	.257	.057	.191	4.483	.000
	Perceived higher price of green products	-.203	.061	-.118	-3.334	.001
	Perceived green detergent availability	.221	.064	.146	3.431	.001
Trust in green detergent characteristics	.553	.066	.381	8.346	.000	

a. Dependent Variable: Intention to purchase and consume green detergent

Table 42. Residuals statistics^a of regression model of intention to purchase and consume green detergent and 13 factors

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Predicted Value	-.3394	7.4165	3.6016	1.49422	438
Residual	-3.79179	5.03900	.00000	1.46159	438
Std. Predicted Value	-2.637	2.553	.000	1.000	438
Std. Residual	-2.555	3.396	.000	.985	438

a. Dependent Variable: Intention to purchase and consume green detergent

After the removal of these elements, a new model was composed. The remaining elements explain 48.8% of the variation ($R^2 = 0.488$) and all of them are suitable for explaining the impact on intention to purchase and consume green detergent (t-test, $p < 0.05$). Therefore, the regression equation is:

$$\text{IPCGD} = -1.915 + 3.059 \cdot \text{ECB} + 3.522 \cdot \text{ICP} + 4.530 \cdot \text{IA} - 3.102 \cdot \text{PHP} + 3.161 \cdot \text{PA} + 8.591 \cdot \text{TC}$$

The prerequisites of regression model existence were tested. No multicollinearity ($\text{VIF} < 4$) and autocorrelation (Durbin-Watson coefficient = 2.048) were found.

Regression model of intention to purchase and consume green detergent and 6 factors

Table 43. Regression model summary^b of intention to purchase and consume green detergent and 6 factors

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.704 ^a	.495	.488	1.49572	2.048

a. Predictors: (Constant), Trust in green detergent characteristics, Perceived higher price of green products, Environmentally conscious behaviour, Influence from close people, Influence from advertising, Perceived green detergent availability

b. Dependent Variable: Intention to purchase and consume green detergent

Table 44. ANOVA^b of regression model of intention to purchase and consume green detergent and 6 factors

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	945.011	6	157.502	70.402	.000 ^a
	Residual	964.218	431	2.237		
	Total	1909.229	437			

a. Predictors: (Constant), Trust in green detergent characteristics, Perceived higher price of green products, Environmentally conscious behaviour, Influence from close people, Influence from advertising, Perceived green detergent availability

b. Dependent Variable: Intention to purchase and consume green detergent

Table 45. Coefficients^a of regression model of intention to purchase and consume green detergent and 6 factors

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	-.861	.450		-1.915	.056
	Environmentally conscious behaviour	.133	.044	.113	3.059	.002
	Influence from close people	.194	.055	.145	3.522	.000
	Influence from advertising	.255	.056	.190	4.530	.000
	Perceived higher price of green products	-.182	.059	-.106	-3.102	.002
	Perceived green detergent availability	.203	.064	.134	3.161	.002
	Trust in green detergent characteristics	.564	.066	.388	8.581	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Intention to purchase and consume green detergent

Table 46. Residuals statistics^a of regression model of intention to purchase and consume green detergent and 6 factors

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Predicted Value	-.3773	7.2515	3.6016	1.47054	438
Residual	-3.91216	5.44538	.00000	1.48541	438
Std. Predicted Value	-2.706	2.482	.000	1.000	438
Std. Residual	-2.616	3.641	.000	.993	438

a. Dependent Variable: Intention to purchase and consume green detergent

It was found that none of the personal characteristics factors had influence on intention to purchase and consume green detergent. From green practices, only environmentally conscious behaviour practices had influence on intention to purchase and consume green detergent ($t=3.059$, $p<0.05$) (Table 45). However, both influence from close people and influence from advertising had a positive influence on intention to purchase and consume green detergent respectively $t=3.522$ and $t=4.530$, $p<0.05$) (Table 45). What is more, all three factors of perceived product accessibility had influence on intention to purchase and consume green detergent, although perception of higher green

products price had a negative influence ($t=-3.102$, $p<0.05$), whereas perception of green detergent availability and trust in green detergent characteristics both had a positive influence on intention to purchase and consume green detergent (respectively, $t=3.161$ and $t=8.581$, $p<0.05$). Therefore, nine hypotheses related to intention to purchase and consume green detergent were tested.

H2A: Health consciousness has a positive influence on intention to purchase and consume green products. - NOT CONFIRMED.

It was not confirmed that health consciousness has any influence on intention to purchase and consume green products (t -test $p > 0.05$) (Table 41). These results contradict to the findings of many researchers, like Bonn et al (2015), Kavaliauskė, Ubartaitė (2014), Hughner (2007), Rembiakowska (2007), Verhoef (2005), Franklin (2003), Magnusson et al (2003), Łatacz-Lohmann, Foster (1997), Davies et al (1995), who found that health factors influence consumers decision to choose green products. However, these results are in line with those of several other researchers, like Salleh et al (2010), Mihaelidou and Hassan (2008), Tarkianen and Sundqvist (2005) whose studies found no statistically significant link between health concerns and intention to buy green products.

H1: Health consciousness has a stronger influence on intention to purchase and consume green products than environmental consciousness does. – was NOT CONFIRMED.

The H1 hypothesis was not confirmed because neither health consciousness, nor environmental consciousness had any influence (t -test $p > 0.05$) on intention to purchase and consume green detergent (Table 41).

H3: Environmentally conscious behaviour practices have a stronger positive influence on intention to purchase and consume green products than environmental consciousness attitude does. – was CONFIRMED

Environmentally conscious behaviour had a positive influence on intention to purchase and consume green detergent, as $t=3.059$ ($p < 0.05$) (Table 45). Whereas no relations were found between environmental consciousness and intention to purchase and consume green detergent (t -test $p > 0.05$) (Table 45). These results contradict to the findings of many researchers

who found that environmental consciousness or concern has influence on intention to choose green products (Zhao et al (2014), Kavaliauskė, Uždavinytė (2013), Barber et al (2010), Lee (2008), Mostafa (2007), Finisterra do Paço, Raposo (2008), Abdul-Muhmin (2007), Gilg et al (2005), Dunlap et al (2000), Follows, Jobber (2000), Lindeman, Väänänen (2000), Stern (2000)). However, several authors have already revealed that previous environmentally conscious behaviour experience has a positive influence of future behaviour and intention to choose green products (Paco, Raposo (2009), Cornelissen et al (2008), Pickett-Baker, Ozaki (2008), Abdul-Muhmin (2007), but stated that this effect might be indirect. Whereas the findings of this research confirm that actual environmentally conscious behaviour is even more important than just environmentally orientated attitude, and has influence on intention to choose green detergent. This confirms the idea that green behaviour consists not only of purchase and consumption but also of recycling and composting.

H4A: Green purchase practices have a positive influence on intention to purchase and consume green products. – was NOT CONFIRMED

It was not confirmed that existing green purchase practices have any influence on intention to purchase and consume green products (t-test $p > 0.05$) (Table 41). However, in this research a broad attitude towards green purchase practices was applied, including not only purchase of environmentally friendly products, but also purchase from local producers, locally grown produce, and purchase from socially responsible producers. In addition, as was found in the qualitative research (chapter 5), the respondents might not understand these kind of products as green products. What is more, these results are in line with findings of Black, Cherrier (2010), who stated that in the practise of green consumption consumers are required to make more compromises than with other environmentally orientated actions. In addition, it means that green purchase practices are weak among the respondents. Klockner (2013) stated that only very often repeated behaviours become strong practices that have more influence on green purchase intentions. What is more, these findings confirm the results of Huneke (2005), where his respondents indicated consistency in green purchase behaviour as the most complicated process.

H5A: Influence from close people has a positive influence on intention to purchase and consume green products. – was CONFIRMED

Influence from close people had a positive influence on intention to purchase and consume green detergent, with $t=3.522$ ($p < 0.05$) (Table 45). These results confirm the findings of many researchers (Anantharaman, 2014; Brace-Govan, 2012; Goldstein et al, 2008; Cherrier, 2007; Moisander, 2007; Muniz and O'Guinn, 2001), who found that various influence groups have a huge impact on consumers and can lead them to choosing green products, because consumers tend to trust the groups they are connected to. However, it very much depends on the type of the society and people. The more people are oriented towards green behaviour, the more they influence others as well as both green purchase and consumption.

H6A: Influence from advertising has a positive influence on intention to purchase and consume green products. – was CONFIRMED

It was found that influence from advertising has a positive influence on intention to purchase and consume green detergent, with $t=4.530$ ($p < 0.05$) (Table 45) and this influence is even stronger than the influence from close people (Table 45). This confirms the findings of many researchers (Rademaker et al, 2015; Bonn et al, 2015; Kavaliauskė, Vaskiv, Šeimienė, 2013; Rahim et al, 2012; Leonidou, Leonidou 2010; Barber et al, 2010; Dolnicar, Leisch, 2007; D'Souza et al, 2006; Banerjee et al, 1995 and others), who stated that green advertising, including eco-labels, influence consumers intention to choose green products, but only if they trust them. Thus, in this research it was also found that influence from advertising has a positive weak correlation with trust in green detergent ($p<0.01$, Pearson's $r=0.367$). So it can be stated that even a relation between the influence of advertising and trust in green detergent exists.

H7A: Perceived higher green product price has a negative influence on intention to purchase and consume green products. – was CONFIRMED

The H7A hypothesis that perceived that higher green product price has a negative influence on intention to purchase and consume green products was confirmed, with $t=-3.102$ ($p < 0.05$) (Table 45). These results confirm the findings

of many researchers (Bonn et al, 2015; Uždavinytė, 2013; Zhen, Mansori, 2012; Briz, Ward, 2009; Hughner, 2007; Verhoef, 2005; Padel, Foster, 2005; Zanolli, Naspetti, 2002 and others), who found that price has a strong negative impact on green products purchase and forces consumers to buy usual products instead. In addition, these findings confirm the results of the qualitative research presented in chapter 5, where the respondents confirmed that the prices of green products were higher compared to those of usual products and prevented them from buying green products. Therefore, it can be predicted that if prices of green products were equal to the prices of usual products, intentions to purchase and consume green products could be higher.

H8A: Perceived green product availability has a positive influence on intention to purchase and consume green products. – was CONFIRMED

It was confirmed that intention to purchase and consume green products is positively influenced by the perceived green product availability, with $t=3.161$ ($p < 0.05$) (Table 45). Therefore, it can be stated that it is very important for products with certain green characteristics to be easily available for consumers to purchase, because it has a really strong influence on green products purchase and consumption. These results confirm the findings of other researchers like Dewald et al (2014), DePelsmacker et al (2007), Tarkiainen, Sundqvist (2005) and Peattie, Crane (2005), who stressed the importance of green product availability to its purchase and consumption. However, it should be pointed out that if green products are not available for the consumer it does not necessarily mean that he or she will buy usual products.

H9A: Trust in green product characteristics has a positive influence on intention to purchase and consume green products. – was CONFIRMED

Hypothesis H9A was confirmed, with $t=8.581$ ($p < 0.05$) (Table 45), stating that intention to purchase and consume green products is influenced (with the strongest influence) by consumer trust in green product characteristics. These results confirm the findings of other researchers (Chen et al, 2015; Bonn et al, 2015) that trust is a very important factor for purchasing green products. In

addition, these results are in line with the findings of the qualitative research presented in chapter 5, where the respondents confirmed that trust in green products was the most important factor for them to choose green products, and that the lack of trust mainly prevented them from buying green products and that they chose green products only from the sources they trusted.

In order to analyse what impact various factors have on **intention to purchase and consume usual detergent** (Fig. 9), a regression analysis was carried out. Two regression models were composed.

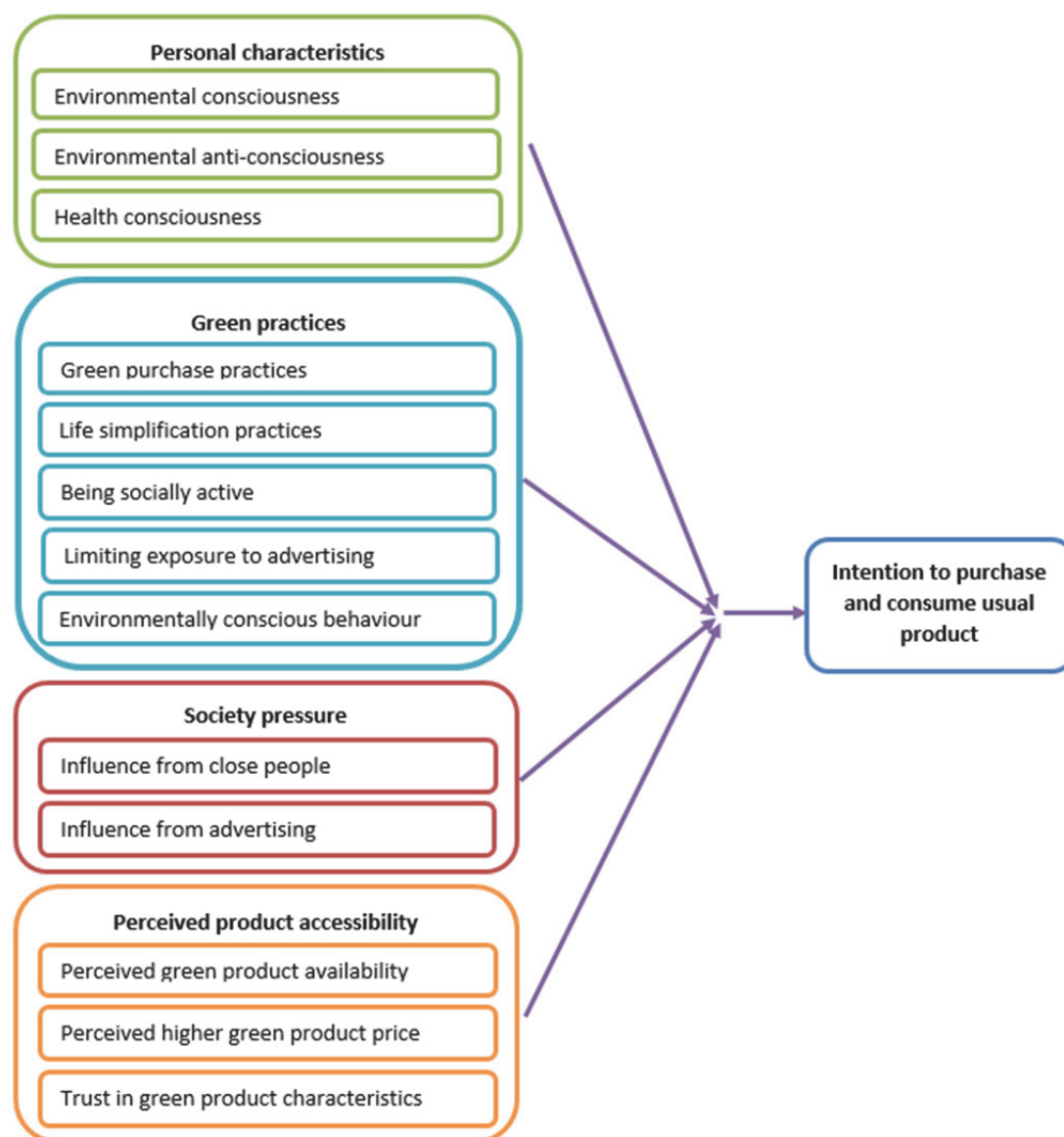


Figure 9. Model of intention to purchase and consume usual detergent

The first model with an equation consisting of 14 elements (intention to purchase and consume usual detergent (IPCUD) and 13 factors: environmental consciousness (EC), environmental anti consciousness (EAC), health consciousness (HC), green purchase practices (GPP), life simplification practices (LSP), being socially active (BSA), limiting exposure to advertising (LEA), environmentally conscious behaviour (ECB), influence from close people (ICP), influence from advertising (IA), perceived higher price of green products (PHP), perceived product availability of green detergent (PA) and trust in green detergent characteristics (TC)) is appropriate as ANOVA's $p < 0.05$. 14.5% of the response variable variation is explained by the linear model ($R^2 = 0.145$). However, t-test showed that environmental consciousness, environmental anti-consciousness, health consciousness, green purchase practices, life simplification practices, being socially active, limiting exposure to advertising, influence from advertising and perceived availability of green detergent are not suitable for explaining the impact on intention to purchase and consume usual detergent (t-test, $p > 0.05$). Therefore, these elements were removed from the model.

Regression model of intention to purchase and consume usual detergent and 13 factors

Table 47. Regression model summary^b of regression model of intention to purchase and consume usual detergent and 13 factors

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.413 ^a	.171	.145	1.70426	2.100

a. Predictors: (Constant), Trust in green detergent characteristics, Perceived higher price of green products, Limiting exposure to advertising, Environmental anti-consciousness, Environmentally conscious behaviour, Being socially active, Life simplification practices, Health consciousness, Environmental consciousness, Influence from advertising, Perceived green detergent availability, Influence from close people, Green purchase practices

b. Dependent Variable: Intention to purchase and consume usual detergent

Table 48. ANOVA^b of regression model on intention to purchase and consume usual detergent and 13 factors

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	253.154	13	19.473	6.705	.000 ^a
	Residual	1231.514	424	2.905		
	Total	1484.667	437			

a. Predictors: (Constant), Trust in green detergent characteristics, Perceived higher price of green products, Limiting exposure to advertising, Environmental anti-consciousness, Environmentally conscious behaviour, Being socially active, Life simplification practices, Health consciousness, Environmental consciousness, Influence from advertising, Perceived green detergent availability, Influence from close people, Green purchase practices

b. Dependent Variable: Intention to purchase and consume usual detergent

Table 49. Coefficients^a of regression model of intention to purchase and consume usual detergent and 13 factors

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	5.288	.800		6.606	.000
	Environmental consciousness	.036	.090	.020	.399	.690
	Environmental anti-consciousness	.100	.082	.059	1.220	.223
	Health consciousness	-.032	.088	-.019	-.363	.717
	Green purchase practices	.064	.087	.043	.740	.460
	Life simplification practices	-.156	.077	-.100	-2.022	.044
	Being socially active	.111	.075	.074	1.492	.136
	Limiting exposure to advertising	.080	.061	.063	1.313	.190
	Environmentally conscious behaviour	-.117	.052	-.113	-2.257	.025
	Influence from close people	-.200	.066	-.169	-3.009	.003
	Influence from advertising	.011	.066	.010	.173	.863
	Perceived higher price of green products	.219	.070	.145	3.124	.002
	Perceived green detergent availability	.007	.074	.005	.097	.923
	Trust in green detergent characteristics	-.296	.076	-.231	-3.893	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Intention to purchase and consume usual detergent

Table 50. Residuals statistics^a of regression model of intention to purchase and consume usual detergent and 13 factors

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Predicted Value	2.9547	8.2076	5.1975	.76112	438
Residual	-5.65202	3.39431	.00000	1.67872	438
Std. Predicted Value	-2.947	3.955	.000	1.000	438
Std. Residual	-3.316	1.992	.000	.985	438

a. Dependent Variable: Intention to purchase and consume usual detergent

After the removal of these elements, a new model was composed. The remaining elements explain 14.3% of the variation ($R^2 = 0.143$) and all of them are suitable for explaining the impact on intention to purchase and consume usual detergent (t-test $p < 0.05$). Therefore, the regression equation is:

$$\text{IPCUD} = 12.724 - 2.295 \cdot \text{ECB} - 2.902 \cdot \text{ICP} + 3.383 \cdot \text{PHP} - 4.937 \cdot \text{TC}$$

The prerequisites of the regression model existence were tested. No multicollinearity ($\text{VIF} < 4$) and autocorrelation (Durbin-Watson coefficient = 2.092) were found.

Regression model of intention to purchase and consume usual detergent and 4 factors

Table 51. Regression model summary^b of intention to purchase and consume usual detergent and 4 factors

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.389 ^a	.151	.143	1.70620	2.092

a. Predictors: (Constant), Trust in green detergent characteristics, Perceived higher price of green products, Environmentally conscious behaviour, Influence from close people

b. Dependent Variable: Intention to purchase and consume usual detergent

Table 52. ANOVA^b of regression model of intention to purchase and consume usual detergent and 4 factors

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	224.157	4	56.039	19.250	.000 ^a
	Residual	1260.510	433	2.911		
	Total	1484.667	437			

a. Predictors: (Constant), Trust in green detergent characteristics, Perceived higher price of green products, Environmentally conscious behaviour, Influence from close people

b. Dependent Variable: Intention to purchase and consume usual detergent

Table 53. Coefficients^a of regression model of intention to purchase and consume usual detergent and 4 factors

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	6.231	.490		12.724	.000
	Environmentally conscious behaviour	-.112	.049	-.107	-2.295	.022
	Influence from close people	-.166	.057	-.140	-2.902	.004
	Perceived higher price of green products	.227	.067	.150	3.383	.001
	Trust in green detergent characteristics	-.299	.061	-.233	-4.937	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Intention to purchase and consume usual detergent

Table 54. Residuals statistics^a of regression model of intention to purchase and consume usual detergent and 4 factors

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Predicted Value	3.2192	7.2417	5.1975	.71620	438
Residual	-5.48911	3.22630	.00000	1.69837	438
Std. Predicted Value	-2.762	2.854	.000	1.000	438
Std. Residual	-3.217	1.891	.000	.995	438

a. Dependent Variable: Intention to purchase and consume usual detergent

It was found that only the perceived higher price of green products has a positive influence on intention to purchase and consume usual detergent ($t=3.383$, $p<0.05$) (Table 53). Whereas other three factors: environmentally conscious behaviour, influence from close people and trust in green detergent characteristics had a negative influence on intention to purchase and consume usual detergent (respectively $t=-2.295$, $t=-2.902$, $t=-4.937$, $p<0.05$) (Table 53). Thus, seven hypotheses related to intention to purchase and consume usual detergent were tested.

H2B: Health consciousness has a negative influence on intention to purchase and consume usual products. – was NOT CONFIRMED

It was not confirmed that health consciousness has any influence on intention to purchase and consume usual products (t-test $p > 0.05$) (Table 49).

H4B: Environmentally conscious behaviour practices have a negative influence on intention to purchase and consume usual products. – was CONFIRMED

It was found that intention to purchase and consume usual products is negatively influenced by existing environmentally conscious behaviour practices. This means that people who actually recycle and compost are not willing to purchase and consume usual products, as $t=-2.295$ ($p < 0.05$) (Table 53). In addition, the idea that not only purchase and consumption of green products, but also environmentally conscious behaviour compose green behaviour is supported.

H5B: Influence from close people has a negative influence on intention to purchase and consume usual products. – was CONFIRMED

Hypothesis 5B was confirmed, stating that influence from close people had a negative influence on intention to purchase and consume green detergent, with $t=-2.902$ ($p < 0.05$) (Table 53). These results confirm the findings of many researchers (Anantharaman, 2014; Brace-Govan, 2012; Goldstein et al, 2008; Cherrier, 2007; Moisander, 2007; Muniz and O'Guinn, 2001), who found that various influence groups have an impact on consumers and can lead them to choose other type of products than the usual ones, depending on the

type of the society and people.

H6B: Influence from advertising has a negative influence on intention to purchase and consume usual products. – was NOT CONFIRMED

It was not confirmed that intention to purchase and consume usual products is influenced by green advertising (t-test $p > 0.05$) (Table 49). This confirms the findings of many researchers (Rademaker et al, 2015; Bonn et al, 2015; Kavaliauskė, Vaskiv, Šeimienė, 2013; Rahim et al, 2012; Leonidou, Leonidou 2010; Barber et al, 2010; Dolnicar, Leisch, 2007; D'Souza et al, 2006; Banerjee et al, 1995 and others), who stated that green advertising, including eco-labels, influence consumers' intention to choose green products, but not the usual products.

H7B: Perceived higher green product price has a positive influence on intention to purchase and consume usual products. – was CONFIRMED

It was found that since the prices of green products are perceived as being higher, it leads to intention to purchase and consume usual products ($t=3.383$, $p<0.05$) (Table 53). These results confirm the findings of many researchers (Bonn et al, 2015; Uždavinytė, 2013; Zhen, Mansori, 2012; Briz, Ward, 2009; Hughner, 2007; Verhoef, 2005; Padel, Foster, 2005; Zanolli, Naspetti, 2002 and others), who found that price has a strong negative impact on green products purchase and forces consumers to buy usual products instead. In addition, these findings confirm the results of the qualitative research (Chapter 5), where the respondents confirmed that the prices of green products were higher compared to those of usual products and that it forced them to purchase usual products instead of green products.

H8B: Perceived green product availability has a negative influence on intention to purchase and consume usual products. – was NOT CONFIRMED

The hypothesis that intention to purchase and consume usual products is influenced by perceived green product availability was not confirmed (t-test $p > 0.05$) (Table 49). This means that green products are quite sufficiently

available, and lack of them does not lead to the choice of usual products instead.

H9B: Trust in green product characteristics has a negative influence on intention to purchase and consume usual products. – was CONFIRMED

It was confirmed that intention to purchase and consume usual products is negatively influenced by trust in green product characteristics ($t=-4.937$, $p<0.05$) (Table 53). These results means that if a person trusts green products, he or she is not willing to purchase and consume usual products. So building the trust for green products has a very important impact on choosing green consumption instead of usual consumption. These results confirm the findings of other researchers (Chen et al, 2015; Bonn et al, 2015), stating that trust is a very important factor for purchase of green products. In addition, these results are in line with the findings of the qualitative research (Chapter 5), where the respondents confirmed that they chose green products only from the sources they trusted and if they did trust green products they did not purchase and consume usual products anymore.

In order to analyse what impact various factors have on **intention to reduce purchase and consumption of any detergent** (Fig. 10), a regression analysis was carried out.

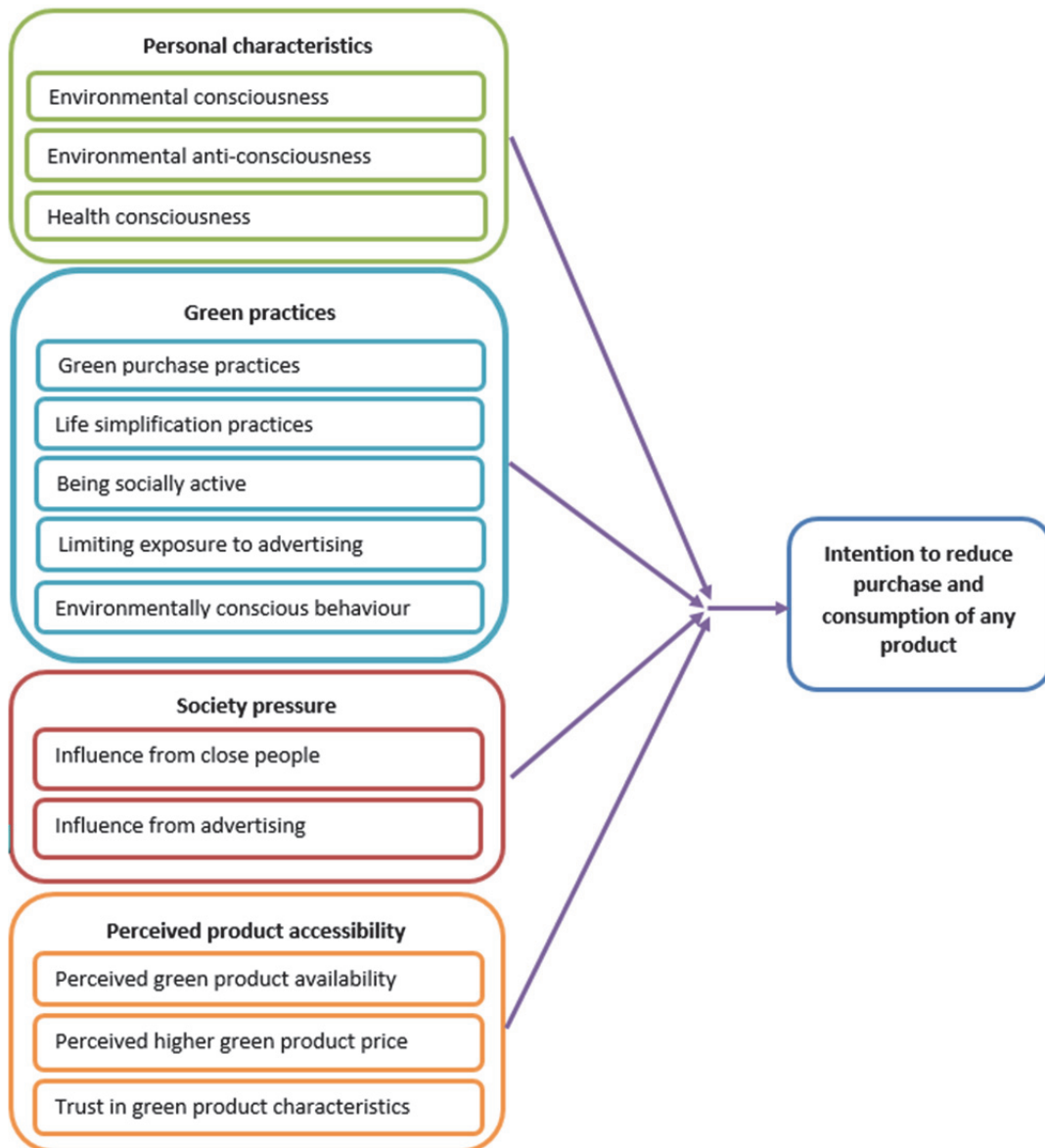


Figure 10. Model of intention to reduce purchase and consumption of any detergent

Two regression models were composed. The first model with an equation consisting of 14 elements (intention to reduce purchase and consumption of any detergent (IRPCD) and 13 factors: environmental consciousness (EC), environmental anti-consciousness (EAC), health consciousness (HC), green purchase practices (GPP), life simplification practices (LSP), being socially active (BSA), limiting exposure to advertising (LEA), environmentally conscious behaviour (ECB), influence from close people (ICP), influence from advertising (IA), perceived higher price of green

products (PHP), perceived product availability of green detergent (PA) and trust in green detergent characteristics (TC)) is appropriate as ANOVA's $p < 0.05$. 16.2% of the response variable variation is explained by the linear model ($R^2 = 0.162$). However, t-test showed that environmental consciousness, green purchase practices, being socially active, limiting exposure to advertising, environmentally conscious behaviour, influence from advertising, perceived higher price of green products and perceived product availability of green detergent are not suitable for explaining the impact on the intention to reduce purchase and consumption of any detergent. Therefore, these elements were removed from the model (t-test $p > 0.05$).

Regression model of intention to reduce purchase and consumption of any detergent and 13 factors

Table 55. Regression model summary^b of intention to reduce purchase and consumption of any detergent and 13 factors

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.433 ^a	.187	.162	1.38002	1.906

a. Predictors: (Constant), Trust in green detergent characteristics, Perceived higher price of green products, Limiting exposure to advertising, Environmental anti-consciousness, Environmentally conscious behaviour, Being socially active, Life simplification practices, Health consciousness, Environmental consciousness, Influence from advertising, Perceived green detergent availability, Influence from close people, Green purchase practices

b. Dependent Variable: Intention to reduce purchase and consumption of detergent

Table 56. ANOVA^b of regression model of intention to reduce purchase and consumption of any detergent and 13 factors

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	186.237	13	14.326	7.522	.000 ^a
	Residual	807.487	424	1.904		
	Total	993.723	437			

a. Predictors: (Constant), Trust in green detergent characteristics, Perceived higher price of green products, Limiting exposure to advertising, Environmental anti-consciousness, Environmentally conscious behaviour, Being socially active, Life simplification practices, Health consciousness, Environmental consciousness, Influence from advertising, Perceived green detergent availability, Influence from close people, Green purchase practices

b. Dependent Variable: Intention to reduce purchase and consumption of detergent

Table 57. Coefficients^a of regression model of intention to reduce purchase and consumption of any detergent and 13 factors

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	.247	.648		.382	.703
	Environmental consciousness	.072	.073	.049	.990	.323
	Environmental anti-consciousness	.182	.066	.131	2.734	.007
	Health consciousness	-.194	.072	-.138	-2.711	.007
	Green purchase practices	.119	.070	.098	1.690	.092
	Life simplification practices	.264	.062	.208	4.234	.000
	Being socially active	.077	.060	.062	1.269	.205
	Limiting exposure to advertising	-.011	.049	-.010	-.219	.827
	Environmentally conscious behaviour	.016	.042	.019	.382	.703
	Influence from close people	.116	.054	.120	2.164	.031
	Influence from advertising	.063	.053	.065	1.180	.238
	Perceived higher price of green products	.018	.057	.015	.320	.749
	Perceived green detergent availability	-.095	.060	-.087	-1.584	.114
Trust in green detergent characteristics	.152	.062	.145	2.466	.014	

a. Dependent Variable: Intention to reduce purchase and consumption of detergent

Table 58. Residuals statistics^a of regression model of intention to reduce purchase and consumption of any detergent and 13 factors

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Predicted Value	1.4713	4.9384	2.9909	.65282	438
Residual	-3.24030	4.73792	.00000	1.35934	438
Std. Predicted Value	-2.328	2.983	.000	1.000	438
Std. Residual	-2.348	3.433	.000	.985	438

a. Dependent Variable: Intention to reduce purchase and consumption of detergent

After the removal of these elements, a new model was composed. The remaining elements explain 15.5% of the variation ($R^2 = 0.155$) and all of them are suitable for explaining the impact on intention to reduce purchase and consumption of any detergent (t-test $p < 0.05$). Therefore, the regression equation is:

$$\text{IRPCD} = 2.097 + 2.483 \cdot \text{EAC} - 1.929 \cdot \text{HC} + 5.182 \cdot \text{LSH} + 4.077 \cdot \text{ICP} + 2.697 \cdot \text{TC}$$

The prerequisites of regression model existence were tested. No multicollinearity ($\text{VIF} < 4$) and autocorrelation (Durbin-Watson coefficient = 1.932) were found.

Regression model of intention to reduce purchase and consumption of any detergent and 5 factors

Table 59. Regression model summary^b of intention to reduce purchase and consumption of any detergent and 5 factors

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.406 ^a	.165	.155	1.38592	1.932

a. Predictors: (Constant), Trust in green detergent characteristics, Environmental anti-conscientiousness, Life simplification practices, Health conscientiousness, Influence from close people

b. Dependent Variable: Intention to reduce purchase and consumption of detergent

Table 60. ANOVA^b of regression model of intention to reduce purchase and consumption of any detergent and 5 factors

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	163.945	5	32.789	17.071	.000 ^a
	Residual	829.779	432	1.921		
	Total	993.723	437			

a. Predictors: (Constant), Trust in green detergent characteristics, Environmental anti-conscientiousness, Life simplification practices, Health conscientiousness, Influence from close people

b. Dependent Variable: Intention to reduce purchase and consumption of detergent

Table 61. Coefficients^a of regression model of intention to reduce purchase and consumption of any detergent and 5 factors

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	.869	.414		2.097	.037
	Environmental anti-conscientiousness	.153	.062	.110	2.483	.013
	Health conscientiousness	-.128	.066	-.091	-1.929	.054
	Life simplification practices	.305	.059	.240	5.182	.000
	Influence from close people	.193	.047	.199	4.077	.000
	Trust in green detergent characteristics	.135	.050	.129	2.697	.007

a. Dependent Variable: Intention to reduce purchase and consumption of detergent

Table 62. Residuals statistics^a of regression model of intention to reduce purchase and consumption of any detergent and 5 factors

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Predicted Value	1.5506	4.7392	2.9909	.61250	438
Residual	-3.66961	4.67392	.00000	1.37797	438
Std. Predicted Value	-2.351	2.854	.000	1.000	438
Std. Residual	-2.648	3.372	.000	.994	438

a. Dependent Variable: Intention to reduce purchase and consumption of detergent

It was found that two factors of personal characteristics had influence on intention to reduce purchase and consumption of any detergent (Table 61). However, environmental anti-conscientiousness had a positive influence (T=2.483, $p < 0.05$), whereas health conscientiousness had a negative influence (T=-1.929, $p < 0.05$) on intention to reduce purchase and consumption of any detergent. Life simplification practices had the strongest positive influence on intention to reduce purchase and consumption of detergent ($t = 5.182$, $p < 0.05$) (Table 61). Whereas, influence from close people had positive influence on intention to reduce purchase and consumption of any detergent ($t = 4.077$, $p < 0.05$) as well as trust in green detergent characteristics ($t = 2.697$, $p < 0.05$) (Table 61). Thus, five

hypotheses related to intention to reduce purchase and consumption of any detergent were tested.

H2C: Health consciousness has a negative influence on intention to reduce any products purchase and consumption. – was CONFIRMED

It was confirmed that health consciousness has a negative influence on intention to reduce purchase and consumption of any detergent, as $t=-1.929$ ($p < 0.05$) (Table 61). These findings reveal that consumers who care about their health are not willing to reduce purchase and consumption of detergent. This can be explained by the product's specifics, because using sufficient amounts of detergent allows people to avoid unclean clothes and any health affections. Therefore, reduction of amount of detergent or changing it to other washing solutions might not guarantee safety for health, as health concerns are directly related to product composition and safety, according to other researchers (Dewald et al, 2014; Kavaliauskė, Ubartaitė, 2014). However, Kaynak and Eksi (2011) found that health consciousness has a positive influence on anti-consumers, making their results opposite to those found in this dissertation.

H4C: Life simplification practices have a positive influence on intention to reduce any products purchase and consumption. – was CONFIRMED

It was confirmed that life simplification practices had the strongest positive influence on intention to reduce purchase and consumption of any detergent ($t=5.182$, $p<0.05$) (Table 61). These findings confirm that for the respondents it was much easier to be consistent in their life simplification practices than in their green purchase practices, same as was found by Black, Cherrier (2010) and Huneke (2005). In addition, the respondents who were already limiting car and TV use, eating vegetarian diet and making rather than buying goods had higher intentions to reduce the purchase and use of detergent, as they are used to reducing or even eliminating consumption of certain products. What is more, life simplification practices had the highest influence on intention to reduce purchase and consumption of detergent compared to other factors (Table 61). This finding is in line with other

researchers (Black and Cherrier, 2010; Huneke, 2005; Etzioni, 2003; Shor, 1998), who stated that life simplification is directly related to consumption reduction.

H5C: Influence from close people has a positive influence on intention to reduce any products purchase and consumption. – was CONFIRMED.

Influence from close people had a positive influence on intention to reduce purchase and consumption of any detergent, with $t=4.077$ ($p < 0.05$) (Table 61). These results are in line with the findings of other researchers (Humphery, 2013; Bettany and Kerrane, 2011; Albinsson et al 2010; Seyfang, 2006; Bryant and Goodman, 2004), who stated that communities of anti-consumers usually are very strong and have a lot of influence to every society member. So the more people are oriented towards green behaviour, the more they influence others and both green purchase and consumption, as well as consumption reduction becomes common. In addition, it should be pointed out that influence from close people is one of the strongest factors for both green product purchase and consumption, as well as purchase and consumption reduction. Therefore, it can be stated that this fact confirms the idea that green product purchase and consumption as well as purchase and consumption reduction are related and are equally important parts of green behaviour.

H6C: Influence from advertising has a negative influence on intention to reduce any products purchase and consumption. – was NOT CONFIRMED

It was not confirmed that intention to reduce product purchase and consumption is influenced by advertising (t -test $p > 0.05$) (Table 57). This means that influence of advertising is not so consistent as influence from close people, as close people can advise others in many ways: to purchase and consume green products, not to purchase and consume usual products, or even to choose purchase and consumption reduction. Whereas, the message from advertising is straight forward: purchase green products. Advertising does not mention other forms of green or usual behaviour, therefore, only one relation

between influence of advertising and green purchase and consumption was found in this research.

H9C: Trust in green product characteristics has a positive influence on intention to reduce any products purchase and consumption. – was CONFIRMED

The hypothesis about the influence of trust on purchase and consumption reduction was also confirmed, with $t=2.697$ ($p < 0.05$) (Table 61). This means that even though consumers trust green products they understand that green products are usually consumed in lower quantities because of their better quality, so it automatically leads to reduced consumption. Also, having in mind product specifics, in the case of washing solutions, most of washing alternatives to detergents are of ecological or environmentally friendly nature.

So in general, based on the results of both qualitative and quantitative results of this dissertation, it can be stated that most of the previous researchers have not included trust in green products factor in their researches, therefore they underestimated the importance of trust factor for the whole green behaviour: not only green purchase and consumption, but also purchase and consumption reduction.

6.10. Discussion

Based on scientific literature analysis a research model was developed showing the influence of personal characteristics, green practices, society pressure and perceived product accessibility factors on consumers intention to purchase and consume green products instead of “usual” products variants, or either intention to reduce purchase and consumption of products instead of green or “usual” products variants. The novelty of this dissertation is already revealed in the model, which combines intention to purchase and consume green products instead of “usual” products variants together with intention to

reduce purchase and consumption of products instead of green or “usual” products variants as alternative behavioural options.

What is more, in this dissertation the main statistically justified finding is that green consumer behaviour consists not only of green products purchase and consumption, but also of consumption reduction. Thus, it can be stated that consumption reduction can be considered as an even more committed form of green behaviour, as it leads not only to green consumption, but also to reduction of any purchase and consumption. Purchase of green products means just buying “better” products (both for environment and human), but its impact to sustainability is low as the level of purchase and consumption remains the same or becomes even higher, since green products are sold in smaller quantities, which is often less effective. Therefore, consumption reduction really leads to thoughtful reduction of any purchase, application of life simplification practices and alternative economy (self-producing, sharing, reusing, etc.).

What is more, in various previous studies consumption reduction was mainly analysed using qualitative research methods, however, in this dissertation intention to reduce purchase and consumption of green detergent was analysed in a quantitative way together with intention to purchase and consume green detergent. It is important that the results of the quantitative research were mostly in line with the results of the qualitative research.

Influence of personal characteristics, green practices, society pressure and perceived product accessibility factors on consumers’ intention to purchase and consume green detergent (Fig. 11).

Many other researchers have found that **personal characteristics**, like environmental consciousness and health consciousness, are among the most important factors for consumers’ intention to purchase and consume green products (Zhao et al, 2014; Dewald et al, 2014; Kavaliauskė, Ubartaitė, 2014; Kavaliauske, Uždavinytė, 2013; Barber et al, 2010; Salleh et al, 2010; Michaelidou, Hassan, 2008; Dunlap, 2008; Lee, 2008; Mostafa, 2007;

Finisterra do Paço, Raposo, 2008; Abdul-Muhmin, 2007; Hughner, 2007; Rembiakowska, 2007; Verhoef, 2005; Tarkianen, Sundqvist, 2005; Maynard, Franklin, 2003; Magnusson et al, 2003; Follows, Jobber, 2000; Lindeman, Väänänen; 2000; Stern, 2000; Davies et al, 1995; Łatacz-Lohmann, Foster, 1997). However, the results of this dissertation contradict to these findings.

First of all, environmental consciousness had no influence on intention to purchase and consume green detergent. During the interviews it was also found that people's consciousness about the environment is low and expressed only in relation to close environment. However, **green practices** such as environmentally friendly practices were found to be common among the interview and survey respondents and had a positive influence on intention to purchase and consume green detergent. It can be presumed that people's consciousness only towards their close environment leads to environmentally orientated behaviour, like recycling and composting, which make changes in their local environment. For example, compost can be reused for fertilizing plants, or recycling means lower tax for sanitation. However, this behaviour is not related to solving global environmental problems, which people do not face personally: like climate change, lack of clean water, pollution, etc.

Furthermore, the survey shows that health consciousness had no influence on intention to purchase and consume green detergent. Whereas during the interviews the respondents expressed a quite high level of health consciousness, but mainly associated it with healthy food and active lifestyle. However, the results might have been different if the chosen product was from the food category, as food is more related to health consciousness.

Many other researchers have found that **society pressure** factors, like influence from close people and influence from advertising, are very important factors for consumers intention to purchase and consume green products (Biswas, Roy, 2015; Bonn et al, 2015; Anantharaman, 2014; Kavaliauskė et al, 2012; Brace-Govan, 2012; Rahbar, Wahid, 2011; Leonidou, Leonidou, 2010; Nik Abdul Rashid, 2009; Lee, 2009; Goldstein et al, 2008; Cherrier, 2007;

Moisander, 2007; D'Souza et al, 2006; Sammer, Wustenhagen, 2006; Karna et al, 2001; Muniz, O'Guinn, 2001; Menon et al, 1999; Banerjee et al, 1995). The results of this dissertation are in line with these findings.

Both interviews and survey results showed that influence from close people is very important for choosing green products purchase and consumption. In addition, close people were mostly indicated as family members and colleagues, but not celebrities.

Whereas influence from advertising was indicated as not acceptable during the interviews, however, if the respondents trusted advertisements, they perceived them as being useful. This fact was also confirmed by the quantitative research results, where influence from advertising showed impact on intention to purchase and consume green detergent. Therefore, it can be concluded that pressure from the society is very important for consumers intention to choose purchase and consumption of green products.

In the case of **perceived product accessibility** factors, previous studies mainly focused on green products price influence on green products purchase and consumption (Bonn et al, 2015; Dewald et al, 2014; Kavaliauskė, Ubartaitė, 2014; Kavaliauskė, Uždavinytė, 2013; Zhen, Mansori, 2012; Black, Cherrier, 2010; Briz, Ward, 2009; Hughner, 2007; Padel, Foster, 2005; Verhoef, 2005; Tarkiainen, Sundqvist, 2005; Zanolli, Naspetti, 2002; Laroche et al, 2001). However, the influence of perceived green products availability (Dewald et al, 2014; DePelsmacker et al, 2007; Tarkiainen, Sundqvist, 2005; Peattie, Crane, 2005) and especially trust in green products characteristics (Bonn et al, 2015; Chen et al, 2015) were heavily unexplored and underestimated.

Similarly to the previous studies, the role of price in green products purchase and consumption was found to be important in both qualitative and quantitative researches of this dissertation. The respondents of the interviews stated that prices of green products were high and even too high, therefore, they discouraged them from buying green products. Some of the respondents who preferred green consumption in the case of food products, tried to grow

them by themselves instead. The respondents had different opinions whether higher prices of green products were justified or just were used as a way for companies to earn more profit. Whereas during the survey, it was found that perception of higher green products prices had a negative influence on intention to purchase and consume green detergent, but a positive influence on intention to purchase and consume usual detergent. Therefore, it is obvious that should the prices of green products become lower, more people would switch to green products purchase and consumption, as the products would become more accessible to them.

Furthermore, perceived availability of green products was indicated as being important for green products purchase by the interview respondents, as some of them were willing to put in extra effort to find and purchase green products, even though they were not satisfied about that. Whereas in the survey, perceived availability of green detergent had a positive influence on intention to purchase and consume green detergent. Thus, it is obvious that consumers seek to purchase products in the most convenient way with lowest effort, therefore, any additional effort for purchase of green products might lead consumers to purchasing usual products, unless green purchase practises are already very well established in everyday life, and the person does not perceive green products as less available anymore.

Finally, the interview respondents indicated trust in quality and source of green products as possibly the most important factor, influencing green purchase and consumption. They stressed that they did not purchase green products mainly because they did not trust their “greenness”. What is more, during the survey it was found that trust in green detergent characteristics positively influenced (with the strongest influence level of all factors) intention to purchase and consume green detergent. Therefore, it should be pointed out that in previous researches trust in green products was analysed very rarely. So this factor was underestimated compared to such factors as environmental or health consciousness. It is obvious that trust in green products is an extremely important factor for green products purchase and consumption, so the

communication related to green products should be directed towards increasing people's trust in green products.

Although only six factors were found as having influence on consumers intention to purchase and consume green detergent, yet these factors explained 48.8 % of this behaviour.

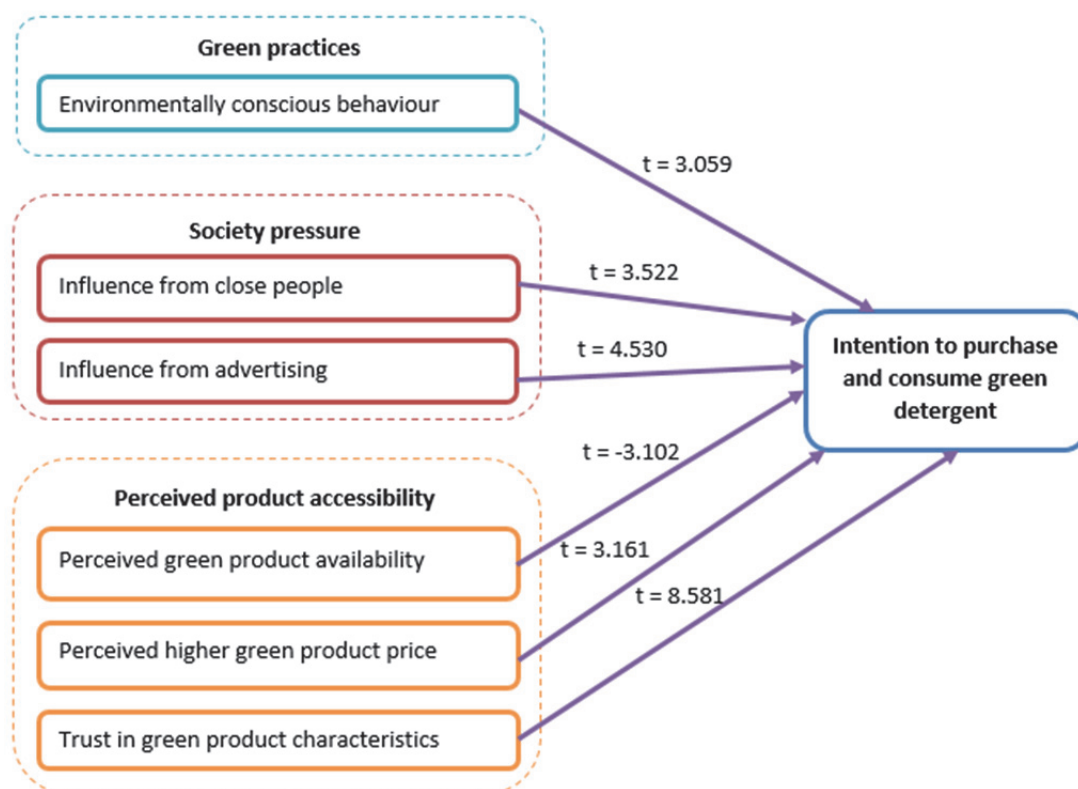


Figure 11. Final model of intention to purchase and consume green detergent after regression analysis ($R^2 = 0.488$)

Influence of personal characteristics, green practices, society pressure and perceived product accessibility factors on consumers' intention to purchase and consume usual detergent (Fig. 12).

During the research of this dissertation it was found that **personal characteristics**, such as environmental consciousness and health consciousness, had no influence on consumers' intention to purchase and consume usual detergent.

However, if the person has such **green practices** as environmentally conscious behaviour, he or she is less willing to purchase and consume usual detergent. Therefore, previous environmental conscious behaviour has an opposite influence on consumers' intention to purchase and consume either green, or usual detergent. This means that a person who recycles and composts is more willing to choose green products instead of usual products because his or her environmentally conscious behaviour shows his or her involvement in green consumer behaviour.

Furthermore, interviews and survey results showed that in the case of **society pressure**, influence from close people, in particular, is very important for negatively affecting consumers' intentions to purchase and consume usual detergent. So this factor had just the opposite influence on consumers' intention to purchase and consume either green, or usual detergent.

What is more, during the survey, it was found that two of the three **perceived product accessibility** factors have influence on consumers' intention to purchase and consume usual detergent. First of all, perception of higher green products prices had a positive influence on intention to purchase and consume usual detergent. So it also had just the opposite influence on consumers' intention to purchase and consume either green, or usual detergent. Even during the interviews the respondents stated that prices of green products were too high and that they were often forced to choose usual products instead of green products.

Finally, trust in green products characteristics also had the opposite effect on intention to purchase and consume usual detergent as compared to purchase and consumption of green detergent. So the more consumers trust the characteristics of green detergent, the less possible it is that they will choose usual product instead.

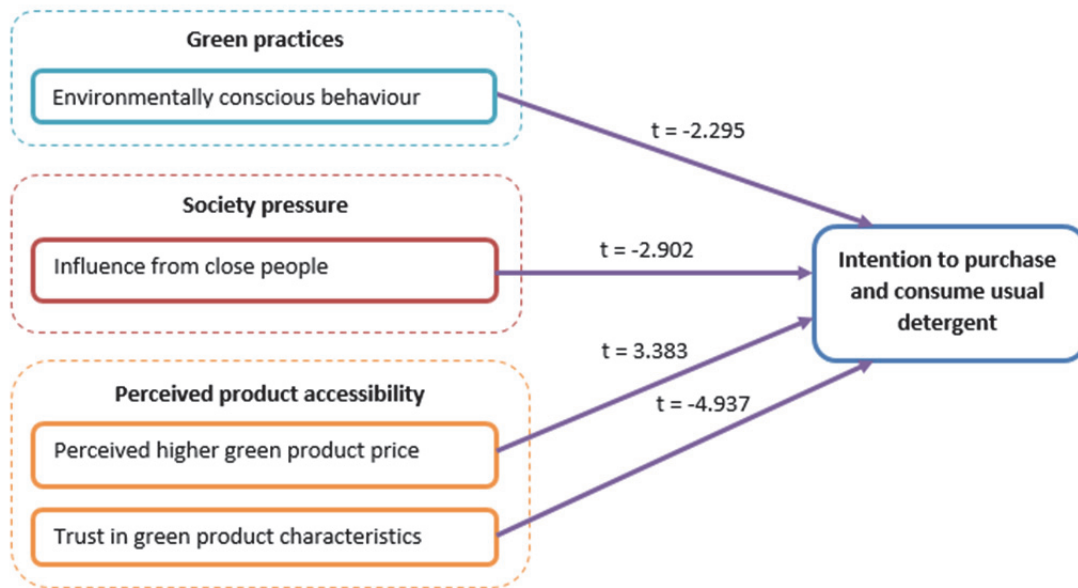


Figure 12. Final model of intention to purchase and consume usual detergent after regression analysis ($R^2 = 0.143$)

Influence of personal characteristics, green practices, society pressure and perceived product accessibility factors on consumers' intention to reduce purchase and consumption of any detergent (Fig. 13).

Consumers' intention to reduce purchase and consumption of any detergent was the only dependent variable that was influenced by consumers' **personal characteristics**. A very interesting finding was revealed in the case of consumers' intention to reduce purchase and consumption of any detergent. It was found that environmental anti-consciousness, which means denying the importance of global environmental problems, has a positive influence on consumers' intention to reduce purchase and consumption of any detergent. This might be explained by the idea that consumption reduction is a more dedicated green consumer behaviour, therefore, such people are more knowledgeable about environmental problems. In addition, they implement consumption reduction not because of perceived importance of environmental problems, but due to other factors. So the more a person is critical about environmental problems, the more likely it is that he or she will intend to reduce his or her purchase and consumption level.

Furthermore, the survey results showed a negative health consciousness impact on intention to reduce purchase and consumption of detergent because consumption reduction is not associated with health. However, at the same time it means that consumers do not see the negative impact of their usual detergent to their health or prefer clothes cleanness to their health status.

For consumers' intention to reduce purchase and consumption of any detergent one of the **green practices**, in particular, life simplification practices had the strongest influence. This finding is very logical because it shows that people who apply such life simplification practices as making presents instead of buying them, are vegetarian, limit car use and watching TV, are naturally reducing their purchase and consumption of certain products, therefore, reducing purchase and consumption of any detergent is a natural behavioural option for them.

Both interviews and survey results showed that in the case of **society pressure**, influence from close people is very important for choosing not only green consumption, but consumption reduction practises as well. Whereas influence from advertising does not affect consumers' intention to reduce purchase and consumption of any products. Therefore, it can be concluded that pressure from the society is very important for both green purchase and consumption, as well as purchase and consumption reduction, but in the case of the latter comes only from close people. It is obvious that publicity of environmental and health problems, negative information about usual products, positive information about environmentally orientated lifestyle, and negative information about economic problems caused by overconsumption lead to intention to choose either green products or consumption reduction instead.

In the case of **perceived product accessibility**, trust in green detergent characteristics also had a positive influence on intention to reduce purchase and consumption of detergent, possibly because options to replace usual detergent are also green washing solutions. However, it still might lead to consumption reduction in general, as the overall people's knowledge about importance and specifics of green behaviour increases.

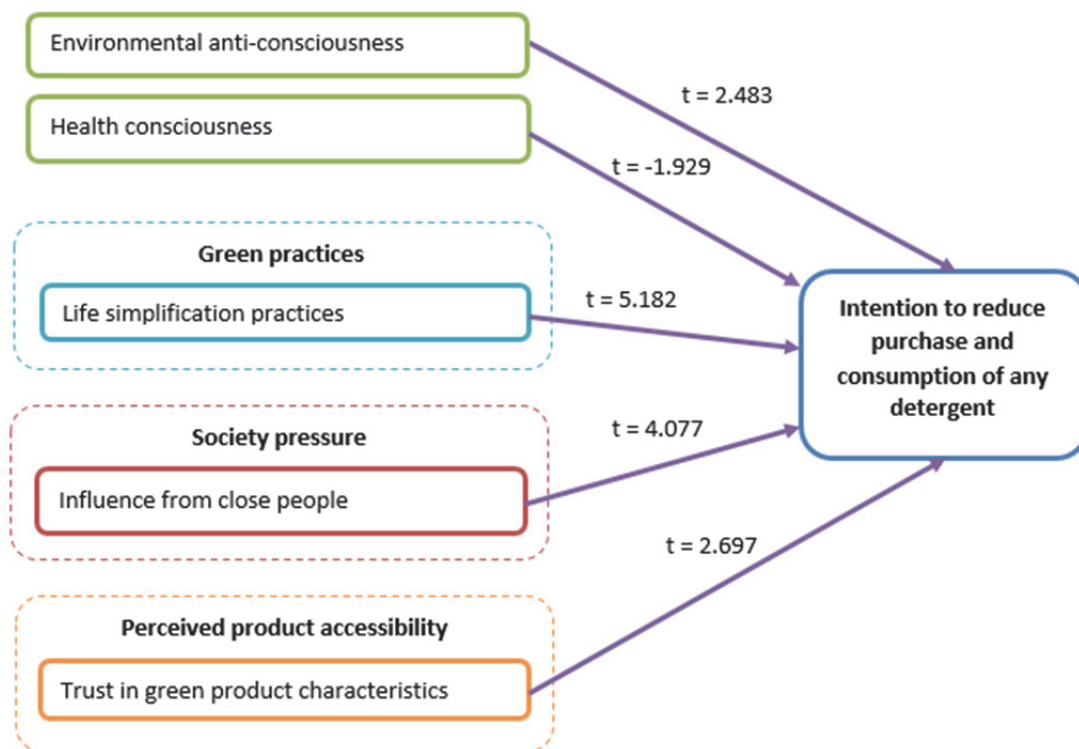


Figure 13. Final model of intention to reduce purchase and consumption of any detergent after regression analysis ($R^2 = 0.155$)

In conclusion, it can be confirmed that the results from both the qualitative research and the quantitative research are very similar. In addition, it can be concluded that green consumer behaviour consists not only of purchase and consumption of green products, but also of purchase and consumption reduction of any product option. However, the influencing factors for intention to purchase and consume green products and intention to reduce purchase and consumption partially differ. So in the case of intention to purchase and consume green products it was found that influence from external factors (like pressure from the society and perceived product accessibility, in total 5 factors) have a much stronger and important influence compared to personal characteristics (only one factor). Whereas, in the case of intention to reduce purchase and consumption the influence and importance of personal characteristics and practices (3 factors) is slightly stronger than external environment (2 factors).

Therefore, it can be concluded that even though purchase and consumption of green products and purchase and consumption reduction are both parts of green consumer behaviour, they are influenced by similar factors, only the level of influence and importance of person's characteristics and practices and external environment slightly differs.

Research limitations. Both qualitative and quantitative research carried out for this dissertation had some research limitations.

In the case of the qualitative research, the main limitation was that the respondents of interview were selected based on "snow ball" method. Even though they represented all age groups and the gender balance was equal, still most of the respondents came from Vilnius, the biggest city in Lithuania.

The main limitation of the quantitative research was unequal gender balance (more women than men), although the survey was carried out by a professional Research Company using an Internet panel. Also only people with access to internet were surveyed, therefore people who are less educated, with lower income and do not have access to internet were not surveyed.

What is more, only one product was used for empirical research, as the questionnaire was already quite long, therefore adding more products would have increased the questionnaire's volume. However, behaviour options for purchase and consumption reduction are quite different for different products, therefore, the questionnaire should be adjusted for every product based on the qualitative research results of each particular product.

Also, the quantitative research results were analysed using regression analysis, however, this statistical method does not allow to determine the influence of moderators and mediators between the constructs, therefore, the use of structural equations modelling could reveal a more different relation between the factors.

Conclusions

The aim of this dissertation was to determine how personal characteristics, green practices, society pressure and perceived product accessibility factors influence consumers' intention to purchase and consume green products, and intention to reduce overall purchase and consumption of products. Therefore, after carrying out an in-depth analysis of scientific literature under this topic, developing research model, performing empirical research and concluding the results, the following conclusions can be formulated:

1. Abundant evidence reports on the growth of consumption, which in many societies is currently understood as the aim of life, source of happiness and satisfaction. However, increasing consumption level starts to be considered as being excessive, unhealthy, and/or socially inappropriate. As one of the alternatives, green consumer behaviour is increasingly encouraged. For decades, green consumer behaviour has been associated mainly with the increased attention towards green products, environment-friendly processes of consumption and disposal. However, as green products can still be purchased and consumed in large quantities, a new form of green consumer behaviour started to be increasingly identified in academic studies and in daily practices: consumers start considering an alternative of reducing the overall volume of a consumed product. This new evidence (consumption reduction) represents a new form of green consumer behaviour and deserves extensive analysis.
2. Consumption of green products, as a form of green consumer behaviour, has been extensively analysed on the basis of the key behavioural theories 1) Norm Activation Model; 2) Theory of Reasoned Action; 3) Theory of Planned Behaviour; 4) New Environmental Paradigm; 5) Values-Beliefs-Norms Theory, VBN theory; 6) Comprehensive Action Determination Model. According to Klockner (2013) the Theory of Planned Behaviour (Ajzen, 1991) was the most often used theory in scientific analysis of green

consumer behaviour, followed by the Norm Activation Model (Schwartz, 1968; 1977) and Values-Beliefs-Norms Theory (Stern, 2000) and their adaptations in relation to the specifics of green behaviour. The research gap in previous studies was the application of existing consumer behaviour theories not only for the analysis of consumers attitudes and intentions towards green products purchase and consumption, but also for the analysis of consumers' attitudes and intentions towards consumption reduction. It was found that although green purchase and consumption behaviour was quite often analysed based on existing consumer behaviour theories, anti-consumption was mostly analysed in a theoretical or qualitative framework, without application of any consumer behaviour theories. This fact shows that anti-consumption and consumption reduction are still insufficiently examined concepts, lacking a qualitative analysis based on consumer behaviour theories. However, since consumption reduction is a form of green behaviour, it may be analysed on the basis of above mentioned classical behavioural theories. What is more, some studies even combined two or more consumer behaviour theories in order to analyse green consumer behaviour. A similar choice was made in this dissertation, as the Theory of Planned Behaviour was combined with the New Environmental Paradigm, also, the existing behaviour practices were added to the framework of Theory of Planned Behaviour, because Klockner (2013) indicated the lack of previous behavioural practices as one of the main shortcomings of this theory to determine consumer behaviour correctly. Therefore, it was aimed in this dissertation to develop a research model based on the Theory of Planned Behaviour, combined with the New Environmental Paradigm and existing behavioural practices in order to reveal the links between consumer personal green characteristics, green practices, society pressure and perceived product accessibility that determine consumer behaviour regarding purchase and consumption of green and "usual" products, as well as purchase and consumption reduction in order to fill the existing gap in scientific literature.

3. Numerous studies on green products purchase and consumption provide an extensive scientific knowledge about this topic and typical factors that influence the intentions and behaviours. However, the evidence of the newly occurring green consumer behaviour (consumption reduction) requires considering it and analysing it together with consumption of green products in the context of the same influencing factors that are applicable to the overall green consumer behaviour.
4. Since consumption reduction is classified as one of the forms of the green consumer behaviour and supposed to be influenced by similar factors, it can be not only analysed together with other green behaviours, but also studied using the same type of research. This allows using a quantitative research, which provides additional opportunities in addition to the qualitative techniques that were mainly in the former studies.
5. The analysis of the former studies together with the qualitative research allowed to determine that broadly defined green consumer behaviour (that includes consumption reduction) can be influenced by two types of factors that include: personal factors, consisting of personal characteristics of a consumer and green practices, as well as external factors consisting of society pressure to act green and perceived green product accessibility. In this context, the essential personal characteristics include environmental consciousness and health consciousness. Green practices reflect green purchase practices, life simplification practices, being socially active, limiting exposure to advertising, and environmentally conscious behaviour. Society pressure is two-fold and includes influence of advertising and interpersonal influence from a close circle of peers. Since intentions and purchasing are linked with perceived accessibility of products, which consists of perceived green product availability, perceived higher price of green products and trust in green products characteristics, it has to be considered as well. The analysis of the results allows stating that intention to purchase and consume green products is positively influenced by society pressure (influence from advertising and influence from close people),

environmentally conscious behaviour, and all the three factors of perceived product accessibility: perceived green product availability and trust in green products characteristics, as well as perceived higher price of green products, which was the only that had negative influence. This essentially confirms the findings of the former studies, however, one major difference has been disclosed: there was no influence neither from the environmental consciousness, nor from the health consciousness. Though this contradiction with former studies requires further elaborations, it may be assumed that it may be influenced by the occurrence of the consumption reduction behaviour that has been measured simultaneously.

6. The intention to reduce purchase and consumption of the overall product quantity has been influenced by all the measured factors, like positive influence from environmental anti-consciousness and negative influence from health consciousness representing personal characteristics construct, also positive influence from life simplification practices coming from green practices construct and influence from close people representing society pressure, as well as positive influence from trust in green product characteristics coming from perceived product accessibility construct. This provides the evidence that consumption reduction is an important form of green behaviour and is influenced by the same group of factors that are typically linked to other forms of green consumer behaviour.
7. The intention to purchase and consume non-green (“usual”) products has relationship with environmentally conscious behaviour coming from green practices and having negative influence, as well as negative influence from close people representing society pressure construct, and also from perceived product accessibility construct from which trust in green product characteristics having negative influence and perceived higher price of green products having positive influence. However, in this case of intention to purchase and consume non-green (“usual”) products the type of relationship with the factors that encourage green consumption generally have an opposite form as compared to intention to purchase and consume green products.

8. The study disclosed specific importance of the factor of trust in characteristics of a green product in the context of green consumer behaviour. Compared to all other factors, this factor had the strongest positive influence on intention to purchase and consume green detergent. In addition, it also had the strongest, but negative influence on intention to purchase and consume usual detergent. Finally, it even had quite a strong positive influence on intention to reduce purchase and consumption of any products. Therefore, it is obvious that in previous studies trust in green products was analysed very rarely and underestimated compared to such factors as environmental or health consciousness.

Recommendations for further research:

- 1) It could be recommended to apply this research model and framework for other product categories, which also have different options and alternatives for these products purchase and consumption reduction.
- 2) What is more, the research model of this dissertation could also be adjusted and applied to the analysis of consumers intentions regarding green services.
- 3) Furthermore, more in depth analysis of scientific literature, and very detailed qualitative research should be applied to find out additional factors that influence consumers' intention to reduce purchase and consumption of various products and services, and the developed model should be updated with this additional factors to improve its applicability for research of consumption reduction.
- 4) In addition, other personal characteristics influencing both behavioural outcomes of green consumer behaviour should be identified and updated in the model to understand better the internal personal factors that influence people intention to choose green consumer behaviour.
- 5) The research model could be applied in different cultures and countries, as well as not only among the internet users to reveal how does personal characteristics, green practices, society pressure and perceived product

accessibility factors importance and level of influence differ on consumers intention to purchase and consume green products or intention to reduce purchase and consumption of any products. As well as to compare green consumer behaviour and factors influencing it in developing (emerging) countries versus developed countries, also city and rural societies.

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Annex 1. Scenario of qualitative research - interview

In Lithuanian

Įvadinė dalis	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Moderatoriaus pristatymas <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ <i>disertacijos temos pristatymas</i> ✓ <i>tyrimo tikslas: nustatyti prekių kategorijas, kuriose šiuo metu labiausiai pasireiškia žalioji (ekologiška) vartojimas ir/ar vartojimo mažinimas, taip pat atskleisti žaliosios rinkodaros bei visuomenės įtakos vartotojams būdus.</i> ✓ <i>interview trukmė: 1.5 val</i> • Respondento prisistatymas (<i>amžius, šeimyninė padėtis, vaidmuo pirkimo sprendimo procese - atsakingas už daugumos prekių pirkimą arba bent priimančias sprendimą kartu</i>) 	
Tiriamoji – pagrindinė dalis	
1. Ekologiškumo apibrėžimas	
<p>Tikslas – išsiaiškinti žmogaus žinių apie ekologiją lygį, nustatyti labiausiai priimtina naudoti terminą.</p>	<p>Pirmiausiai pradėkime nuo ekologiškumo sampratos apibūdinimo.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Spontaniškos asociacijos. Žodis: ekologiškumas. – Apibūdinkite kaip jūs suprantate ekologiškumą. Kas tai? Kodėl taip galvojate? – Yra naudojami tokie terminai kaip: ekologiškas, aplinkai draugiškas, žalias, etiškas, socialiai atsakingas ir tvarus? Ar jie jums skiriasi? Ką kiekvienas iš jų jums reiškia? – Kurį iš šių terminų dažniausiai naudojate? Kodėl? – Kaip apibūdintumėte <i>žaliąjį</i> (labiausiai priimtino termino) produktą? Kokiomis savybėmis jis pasižymi? Kuo skiriasi nuo įprasto (ne ekologiško) produkto?
2. Žaliojo vartojimo ir elgsenos įpročiai	
<p>Tikslas – atskleisti žaliojo vartojimo ir elgsenos įpročius</p>	<p>Dabar pasikalbėkime apie jūsų žaliojo vartojimo ir elgsenos įpročius</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Papasakokite, kaip apskritai renkatės prekes? Kas jums svarbu renkantis prekes? Į ką kreipiate dėmesį? – Kaip jūs renkatės prekes tokiose prekių kategorijose kaip maisto produktai, buitinė chemija, higienos prekės, kosmetika? Kas jums yra svarbu renkantis prekes šiose prekių kategorijose? Į ką kreipiate dėmesį? – Ar jūs perkate / vartojate <i>žaliąsias</i> prekes? Jei taip, kokias, kaip dažnai? – Kodėl perkate / neperkate <i>žaliųjų</i> prekių? – Ar laikote save <i>žaliuoju</i> vartotoju? Jei taip / ne, kodėl? – Kaip galėtumėte įvertinti, kiek jūs / jūsų šeima vartotoja? Ar tai daug/ ar mažai palyginus su kitais? Ar keičiasi Jūsų elgsena per pastaruosius kelis metus? Dėl ko taip/ ne? Jei

	<p>keičiasi, kas pasikeitė?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Dabar kartais žmonės sąmoningai mažina vartojimą. Ką jūs apie tai manote? – Kokia <i>žalioji</i> elgsena jums būdinga? Prašau, sužymėti... Sužymi žaliuosius įpročius pagal pateiktą 21 teiginio žaliųjų įpročių skalę, nuo 1 – visiškai nesutinku iki 7 – visiškai sutinku. <p>Pakomentuokite, ką pažymėjote? Dėl ko pasirinkote šiuos teiginius? Dėl ko nesirinkote kitų?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Ar rūpinatės aplinka/ aplinkosauga? Jei taip, ką konkrečiai darote? – Ar Jūs rūpinatės savo sveikata? Jei taip, ką konkrečiai darote?
	<p style="text-align: center;">3. Aplinkos įtaka žaliųjų produktų pirkimui / vartojimui</p>
<p>Tikslas – atskleisti aplinkos įtaką žaliųjų produktų pirkimui / vartojimui</p>	<p>Dabar aptarkime jūsų aplinkoje esančią žaliųjų produktų reklamą bei kitą aplinkos įtaką jūsų pirkimo / vartojimo sprendimams.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Kaip manote, kokią įtaką <i>žaliųjų</i> produktų pirkimui ir vartojimui Lietuvoje daro įvairūs informacijos šaltiniai: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Žiniasklaida: internetas, TV, radijas, spauda ○ Kiti žmonės: draugai, pažįstami, bendradarbiai, nuomonių lyderiai ○ Eko ženklavimas – Kaip manote, kurių šaltinių įtaka <i>žaliųjų</i> produktų pirkimui ir vartojimui Lietuvoje yra mažiausia / didžiausia? Dėl ko taip galvojate? – Kokią įtaką jūsų <i>žaliųjų</i> produktų pirkimui ir vartojimui daro įvairūs informacijos šaltiniai: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Žiniasklaida: internetas, TV, radijas, spauda ○ Kiti žmonės: draugai, pažįstami, bendradarbiai, nuomonių lyderiai ○ Eko ženklavimas – Kaip manote, kurių šaltinių įtaka jūsų <i>žaliųjų</i> produktų pirkimui ir vartojimui yra mažiausia / didžiausia? Dėl ko taip galvojate? <p>Tada detalizuojama priklausomai nuo respondento atsakymų:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Ar pastebite <i>žaliųjų</i> produktų reklamą? Jei taip, kur: internete, TV, radijuje, spaudoje, kt.? Ar pasitikite <i>žaliųjų</i> produktų reklama? Kodėl? – Ar jūsų aplinkoje yra žmonių susidomėjusių ekologija, perkančių / vartojančių <i>žaliuosius</i> produktus? Jei taip, ar šie žmonės dalinasi informacija <i>žaliąsias</i> prekes, jų pirkimą / vartojimą su jumis? Kaip, kokiais kanalais? Ar jūs pasitikite savo aplinkos žmonių nuomonėmis, patarimais? Kodėl? – Ar pastebite eko ženklavimą ant prekių? Ar žinote eko ženklų? Jei taip, kokius? Ar jums eko ženklavimas yra svarbus? Ar jūs pasitikite eko ženklavimu? Kodėl?

	4. Žaliųjų produktų kategorijos
Tikslas – išrinkti dvi prekių kategorijas, kurioms būdingas ekologiškumas / žalumas	<p>Dabar pereikime prie žaliųjų prekių kategorijų.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Spontantinės asociacijos. – Kokiose prekių kategorijose dažniausiai renkatės žaliąsias prekes? – Respondentui parodomi lapeliai su užrašytais skirtingomis produktų kategorijomis. – Štai čia turiu skirtingas produktų kategorijas. Pabandykite suranguoti šias kategorijas (nuo 1 iki ...) pagal tai, kokiose dažniausiai perkamos ir vartojamos žaliąsios prekės. – Dėl ko išskirstėte būtent taip? Ar dėl kažkurių kategorijų abejojote? Kokios abejonės kilo? – Ar tarp įvardintų kategorijų trūko kažkokių kitų kategorijų, kurioms būdingas ekologiškumas?
Interviu užbaigimas	
	Respondento paklausiama, gal turi dar kokių minčių, pastebėjimų, kurių neišsakė interviu metu. Tada padėkojama už atsakymus ir dalyvavimą.

In English

INTERVIEW INSTRUCTION / SCENARIO

Introduction	
Presentation of moderator	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ <i>Presentation of dissertation topic</i> ✓ <i>Research goal: determine product categories within which green consumption or consumption reduction is the most evident, also to reveal the types of influence green marketing and society have to consumers.</i> ✓ <i>Interview duration: 1.5 hours</i> 	
Presentation of respondent (age, family status, role in purchasing decision process – responsible for main part of purchasing, or participating in decision making)	
Exploratory – main part	
	1. Definition of ecology
Goal – to find out the level of person's knowledge about ecology, to determine the most acceptable term to use	<p>Firstly begin from definition of ecology concept.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Spontaneous associations. Word: ecology – Define how you understand ecology. What is it? Why you think so? – Such terms as: ecological, environmentally friendly, green, ethical, socially responsible and sustainable are used. Do they differ for you? Why? – Which of these terms you use most often? Why? – How would you describe <i>green</i> (the most acceptable term) product? What characteristics it has? How it differs from usual (not green) product?

	2. Practices of green consumption and behaviour
<p>Goal – to reveal the practices of green consumption and behaviour</p>	<p>Now let's talk about your practices related to <i>green</i> consumption and behaviour</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Tell me, how in general you choose products? What is important for you? To what you pay attention? – How you choose products in such categories as food, household goods, hygiene, and cosmetics? What is important for you in these product categories? To what you pay attention? – Do you purchase / consumer <i>green</i> products? If yes, then what and how often? – Why do you (not) purchase <i>green</i> products? – Do you perceive yourself as <i>green</i> consumer? If yes / no, why? – Could you evaluate how much you / your family consume? Is it more / less compared to others? Has you consumption behaviour changed during recent years? Why yes / no? If changed, what exactly? – Currently people deliberately reduce consumption. What do you think about that? – Please indicate what kind of <i>green</i> behaviour is characteristic to you? Indicates green practices according to the provided 21 items green practices scale, from 1 – totally disagree to 7 – totally agree. Please comment what you have indicated? Why did you choose these items? Why you did not choose others? – Do you care about environment, environmental protection? If yes, what in particular do you do? – Do you care about your health? If yes, what in particular do you do?
	3. Impact of external environment to purchase / consumption of green products
<p>Goal – to reveal the impact of external environment to green products purchase / consumption</p>	<p>Now let's discuss advertising of <i>green</i> products that is present within your environment and other external impact to your purchase / consumption decisions</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – To your opinion, what impact various information sources have on purchase and consumption of <i>green</i> products in Lithuania: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Media: internet, TV, radio, press ○ Other people: friends, acquaintances, colleagues, opinion leaders ○ Eco labelling – To your opinion, which of the sources make the smallest / biggest impact on purchase and consumption of <i>green</i> products in Lithuania? Why do you think so?

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - What impact various information sources have on your purchase and consumption of <i>green</i> products: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> o Media: internet, TV, radio, press o Other people: friends, acquaintances, colleagues, opinion leaders o Eco labelling - To your opinion, which of the sources make the smallest / biggest impact on your purchase and consumption of <i>green</i> products? Why do you think so? <p>Then specified according to the answers of the respondent:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Do you notice advertising of <i>green</i> products? If yes, where: internet, TV, radio, press, etc.? Do you trust advertising of <i>green</i> products? Why? - Are there any people around you who are interested in ecology, purchasing / consuming <i>green</i> products? If yes, do these people share information about purchasing / consumption of <i>green</i> products with you? If yes, through which channels? Do you trust their opinion, advices? Why? - Do you notice eco-labelling on the products? Do you know any eco-labels? If yes, what? Is eco-labelling important to you? Do you trust in eco-labelling? Why?
	<p>4. Categories of green products</p>
<p>Goal – to choose two product categories with are characterised as ecological</p>	<p>Now let's move to categories of <i>green</i> products</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Spontaneous associations - In which product categories you most often choose <i>green</i> products? - Respondents are shown a list where different product categories are written. - Here I have different product categories. Please rate them (from 1 to 10) according to how often you purchase and consume <i>green</i> products in these product categories or how <i>green</i> you perceive the products that you buy within these product categories. - Why you rated like this? Have you doubted about any categories? What doubts have risen to you? - Did you miss any categories that can be specified as ecological?
<p>End of interview</p>	
	<p><i>Respondent is asked if he has any additional ideas, remarks that have not been said during the interview. Then respondent is thanked for the answers and participation.</i></p>

Annex 2. List of product categories qualitative research – interview

In Lithuanian

Sveiki, šiuo metu vykdu mokslinį tyrimą apie žmonių gyvenimo ir vartojimo įpročius. Pažymėkite prie kiekvienos produktų kategorijos, ar joje perkate ekologiškas (žaliąsias) prekes. Visa pateikta informacija bus naudojama tik mokslinio darbo tikslais, o jūsų tapatybės konfidencialumas garantuojamas.

PREKĖS KATEGORIJA	Pagrindinis prekės vartotojas ¹	Perku IPRASTAS (neekologiškas) prekes	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	Perku TIK EKOLOGIŠKAS prekes	TIK EKOLOGIŠKAS prekes	NEVARTOJU šios prekės
MAISTAS															
<i>Pieno produktai</i>															
Pienas															
Jogurtas															
Sūris (fermentinis, tepamas ir pan.)															
Varškės produktai (varškė, sūreliai ir pan.)															
Sviestas															
<i>Bakalėja</i>															
Sausi															

¹ Visai šeimai, tik suaugusiems šeimos nariams, tik vienam suaugusiam šeimos nariui, tik vaikams, tik keliems (bet ne visiems) vaikams, tik vienam vaikui

Daržovių, vaisių tyrelės																			
Sultys																			
Košės, dribsniai																			
Gėrimai																			
Sultys																			
Mineralinis/geriamasis vanduo																			
Vynas																			
Arbata																			
Kava																			
KOSMETIKA																			
Kūno priežiūros priemonės																			
Dezodorantai																			
Kremai, balzamai, losjonai kūnui, rankoms																			
Kremai, balzamai, losjonai veidui																			
Muilai																			
Kremai nuo saulės																			
Dantų pastos																			
Plaukų priežiūra																			
Šampūnai, balzamai																			
Priemonės plaukų formavimui																			
Plaukų dažai																			
Dekoratyvinė kosmetika																			
Veidui (pudros ir pan.)																			
Akims (tušai ir																			

In English

Dear Respondent, I am carrying scientific research about people life and consumption practices. Mark in each product category, whether you buy ecological (green) products. All information provided will be used solely for the scientific research purposes and confidentiality for you is guaranteed.

PRODUCT CATEGORY	Main product user ²	Purchase ONLY USUAL (not ecological) products										Purchase ONLY ECOLOGICAL products	DO NOT CONSUME this product	
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10			
FOOD														
<i>Diary products</i>														
Milk														
Yogurt														
Cheese														
Curd products														
Butter														
<i>Groceries</i>														
Cereals, flakes														
Porridge, groats														
Pasta														
Biscuits														
Chocolate														
Spices														
Dried fruits, nuts														

² For the whole family, only for adult family members, only for one adult in the family, only for kids, only for some (not all) kids, only for one kid.

Flour																			
Oil (sunflower, olives, etc.)																			
Sauces (ketchup, mayonnaise and etc.)																			
Bread and its products																			
Bread																			
Crackers and etc.																			
Meat and eggs																			
Fresh meat																			
Meat products																			
Eggs																			
Vegetables and fruits																			
Potatoes																			
Carrots																			
Tomatoes																			
Cucumbers																			
Apples																			
Bananas																			
Food for babies																			
Milk formula																			
Vegetables and fruits purees																			
Juices																			
Porridges, flakes																			
Drinks																			
Juices																			
Mineral / still water																			
Wine																			
Tea																			

Annex 3. Questionnaire about green practices from qualitative research – interview

In Lithuanian

	1 visiškai nesutinku	2 nesutinku	3 dalinai nesutinku	4 = nei sutinku, nei nesutinku	5 dalinai sutinku	6 sutinku	7 visiškai sutinku
1. Vengiu impulsyvių pirkinių							
2. Rūšiuoju atliekas perdirbimui							
3. Šalinu netvarką							
4. Dirbu darba, kuris teikia pasitenkinimą							
5. Perku vietinėje rinkoje užaugintą produkciją							
6. Ribuju reklamos žiūrėjimą							
7. Perku aplinkai draugiškus produktus							
8. Ribuju automobilio naudojimą							
9. Perku iš socialiai atsakingų gamintojų							
10. Perku vietinių gamintojų prekes							
11. Ribuju televizoriaus žiūrėjimą							
12. Ribuju apmokamą darbą							
13. Esu aktyvus savo bendruomenėje							
14. Esu politiškai aktyvus							
15. Kompostuoju atliekas							
16. Gaminu dovanas, o ne jas perku							
17. Palaikau dvasinį gyvenimą							
18. Perku ekologišką maistą							
19. Draugauju su kaimynais							
20. Renkuosi vegetarišką maistą							
21. Dalinuosi gyvenamąja vieta su kitais asmenimis							

In English

	1 totally disagree	2 disagree	3 partially disagree	4 = neither agree, neither disagree	5 partially agree	6 agree	7 totally agree
1. Avoiding impulse purchases							
2. Recycling							
3. Eliminating clutter							
4. Working at a satisfying job							
5. Buying locally grown produce							
6. Limiting exposure to ads							
7. Buying environmentally friendly products							
8. Limiting car use							
9. Buying from socially responsible producers							
10. Buying from local merchants							
11. Limiting/eliminating TV							
12. Limiting wage-earning work							
13. Being active in the community							
14. Being politically active							
15. Composting							
16. Making rather than buying gifts							
17. Maintaining a spiritual life							
18. Buying organic foods							
19. Being friends with neighbours							
20. Eating a vegetarian diet							
21. Living in co-housing							

Annex 4. Questionnaire

Table 63. Original scales used for questionnaire development

Construct	Author	Original statements	Measurement
Environmental consciousness	Dunlap, Van Liere, Mertig, Jones (2000)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) We are approaching the limit of the number of people the earth can support. 2) Humans have the right to modify the natural environment to suit their needs. 3) When humans interfere with nature, it often produces disastrous consequences. 4) Human ingenuity will ensure that we do NOT make the earth unlivable. 5) Humans are severely abusing the environment. 6) The earth has plenty of natural resources if we just learn how to develop them. 7) Plants and animals have as much right as humans to exist. 8) The balance of nature is strong enough to cope with the impacts of modern industrial nations. 9) Despite our special abilities humans are still subject to the laws of nature. 10) The so-called “ecological crisis” facing humankind has been greatly exaggerated. 11) The earth is like a spaceship with very limited room and resources. 12) Humans were meant to rule over the rest of nature. 13) The balance of nature is very delicate and easily upset. 14) Humans will eventually learn enough about how nature works to be able to control it. 15) If things continue on their present course, we will soon experience a major ecological catastrophe. 	5-point Likert-type scale (1 = strongly disagree; 5 = strongly agree)

Health consciousness	Michaelidou, Hassan (2008)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) I reflect about my health a lot 2) I'm very self-conscious about my health 3) I'm alert to changes in my health 4) I'm usually aware of my health 5) I take responsibility for the state of my health 6) I'm aware of the state of my health as I go through the day 	7-point Likert scale (from +3 to -3 strongly agree to strongly disagree scale, where higher values indicate greater health consciousness)
Green practices	Huneke (2005)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) Avoiding impulse purchases 2) Recycling 3) Eliminating clutter 4) Working at a satisfying job 5) Buying locally grown produce 6) Limiting exposure to ads 7) Buying environmentally friendly products 8) Limiting car use 9) Buying from socially responsible producers 10) Buying from local merchants 11) Limiting/eliminating TV 12) Limiting wage-earning work 13) Being active in the community 14) Being politically active 15) Composting 16) Making rather than buying gifts 17) Maintaining a spiritual life 18) Buying organic foods 19) Being friends with neighbours 20) Eating a vegetarian diet 21) Living in co-housing 	9-point Likert-type scales (1 = strongly disagree; 9 = strongly agree)
Influence from close people	Lee (2009)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) I have learned a lot about environmental issues from my friends; 2) I have discussed a lot with my friends about environmental issues/ products; 3) My friends very often recommended environmentally-friendly products to me; 4) I have gone shopping for green products with their friends very often; 5) My friends very often shared green product experiences and information with me. 	5-point Likert-type scales (1 = strongly disagree; 5 = strongly agree)

Influence from advertising	Rahbar and Wahid (2011)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) Environmental advertisement enhance my knowledge about green products 2) I enjoy watching broadcast environmental advertisement 3) Environmental advertisement guide customers to making an informed purchasing decision 4) I am aware of at least one eco-label 5) Eco-labels are easily recognizable for me 	5-point Likert-type scales (1 = strongly disagree; 5 = strongly agree)
Perceived green product availability	Tarkiainen, Sundqvist (2005)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) [...] product is always sufficiently available 	5-point Likert scale (ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree)
Perceived higher green product price	Zhen, Mansori (2012)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) The prices of green products are high. 2) Price is the most important factor when it comes to purchasing green products. 3) Overall the price of the green products is reasonable. 	5-point Likert scale (ranging from 1 = strongly disagree; 5 = strongly agree)
Trust in green product characteristics	Chen (2013)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) I feel that this product's (green) functions are generally reliable; 2) I feel that this product's (green) performance is generally dependable; 3) I feel that this product's (green) argument is generally trustworthy; 4) This product's (green) concern meets my expectations; 5) This product keeps (green) promises and commitments. 	5-point Likert-type scales (1 = strongly disagree; 5 = strongly agree)
Intention to purchase	Michaelidou, Hassan (2008)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) I intend to purchase green product within the next month. 2) I want to purchase green product within the next month. 3) It is very likely that I will purchase green product within the next month. 	7-point Likert-type scales (0 = strongly disagree; 6 = strongly agree).

Final questionnaire in Lithuanian

Sveiki, esu Vilniaus universiteto Ekonomikos fakulteto Rinkodaros katedros doktorantė. Atlieku tyrimą apie žmonių pirkimo ir vartojimo įpročius ekologiškumo kontekste. Jūsų atsakymai bus laikomi konfidencialiais ir naudojami tik apibendrinti disertacijos tyrimo rezultatų analizei. Apklausos pildymas užtruks apie 15 minučių.

1. Kokia jūsų nuomonė apie aplinką bei aplinkosaugą? Prie kiekvieno teiginio pažymėkite skaičių nuo 1 iki 7 (nuo 1 - visiškai nesutinku iki 7 - visiškai sutinku), geriausiai atspindintį jūsų nuomonę. Galimas vienas atsakymas kiekvienoje eilutėje.

1.	Žmonių skaičius netrukus pasieks ribą, kiek Žemė gali aprūpinti
2.	Žmonės turi teisę keisti gamtinę aplinką, kad pritaikytų ją savo poreikiams
3.	Kai žmonės įsikiša į gamtos tvarką, tai dažnai sukelia pražūtingas pasekmes
4.	Žmonių išradingumas užtikrins, kad dėl žmonių kaltės Žemėje gyvybė neišnyks
5.	Žmonės labai niokoja gamtą
6.	Žemė turi daug gamtinių išteklių, tik reikia išmokti juos panaudoti
7.	Augalai ir gyvūnai turi tokią pat teisę egzistuoti, kaip žmonės
8.	Pusiausvyra gamtoje yra pakankamai stipri, kad atlaikytų šiuolaikinių pramoninių šalių įtaką
9.	Nepaisant mūsų ypatingų gebėjimų, žmonės vis tiek yra pavaldūs gamtos dėsniams
10.	Vadinamoji „ekologinė krizė“, su kuria susiduria žmonija, yra pernelyg sureikšmintą
11.	Žemė yra kaip erdvėlaivis su labai ribota vieta ir ištekliais
12.	Žmonijos paskirtis yra valdyti gamtą
13.	Pusiausvyra gamtoje yra labai trapi ir lengvai pažeidžiama
14.	Žmonės galiausiai pakankamai perpras gamtos dėsnius ir galės juos kontroliuoti
15.	Jeigu viskas tęsis taip, kaip dabar, mes greitai patirsime didelę ekologinę katastrofą

2. Kokia jūsų nuomonė apie jūsų sveikatą? Prie kiekvieno teiginio pažymėkite skaičių nuo 1 iki 7 (nuo 1 - visiškai nesutinku iki 7 - visiškai sutinku), geriausiai atspindintį jūsų nuomonę. Galimas vienas atsakymas kiekvienoje eilutėje.

1.	Aš daug galvoju apie savo sveikatą
2.	Aš labai rūpinuosi savo sveikata
3.	Aš stebiu savo sveikatos pokyčius
4.	Aš visada žinau, kokia yra mano sveikatos būklė
5.	Aš pats esu atsakingas už tai, kad būčiau sveikas
6.	Dienos eigoje aš galiu apibūdinti savo savijautą

3. Kokie yra jūsų gyvenimo ir vartojimo įpročiai? Prie kiekvieno teiginio pažymėkite skaičių nuo 1 iki 7 (nuo 1 - visiškai nesutinku iki 7 - visiškai sutinku), geriausiai atspindintį jūsų nuomonę. Galimas vienas atsakymas kiekvienoje eilutėje.

1.	Vengiu pirkti impulsyviai
2.	Rūšiuoju atliekas perdirbimui
3.	Nesigilindamas atsikratau gautų reklaminių skelbimų
4.	Perku vietinėje rinkoje užaugintą produkciją
5.	Stengiuosi nežiūrėti (neklaustyti) reklamos
6.	Perku aplinkai draugiškus produktus
7.	Stengiuosi mažiau naudotis automobiliu
8.	Perku iš socialiai atsakingų gamintojų
9.	Perku vietinių pardavėjų prekes
10.	Žiūriu mažai arba išvis nežiūriu televizijos
11.	Imuosi mažiau papildomo, nors ir apmokamo darbo
12.	Perku ekologišką maistą
13.	Renkuosi vegetarišką maistą
14.	Kompostuoju atliekas
15.	Verčiau dovanas gaminu pats, nei perku
16.	Dirbu darbą, kuris teikia pasitenkinimą
17.	Esu aktyvus savo bendruomenėje
18.	Esu politiškai aktyvus
19.	Draugauju su kaimynais
20.	Dalinuosi gyvenamąja vieta su kitais (nesusijusiais) asmenimis
21.	Gyvenu dvasinį, kultūrinį gyvenimą

4. Kiek jūs, kaip vartotojas, domitės ekologijos klausimais? Prie kiekvieno teiginio pažymėkite skaičių nuo 1 iki 7 (nuo 1 - visiškai nesutinku iki 7 - visiškai sutinku), geriausiai atspindintį jūsų nuomonę. Galimas vienas atsakymas kiekvienoje eilutėje.

1.	Aš laikau save vartotoju, kuriam svarbūs ekologiški produktai
2.	Būti ekologiškais produktais besidominčiu vartotoju yra svarbi mano asmenybės dalis
3.	Man reikia įdėti papildomų pastangų, kad būčiau vartotoju, kuriam svarbūs ekologiški produktai

5. Kiek jums artimi žmonės (šeima, draugai, kolegos) jus įtakoja ekologijos ir ekologiškų produktų klausimais? Prie kiekvieno teiginio pažymėkite skaičių nuo 1 iki 7 (nuo 1 - visiškai nesutinku iki 7 - visiškai sutinku), geriausiai atspindintį jūsų nuomonę. Galimas vienas atsakymas kiekvienoje eilutėje

1.	Aš apie ekologiškus dalykus labai daug sužinau iš artimų žmonių
2.	Aš labai daug diskutavau apie ekologiškų produktų naudą su artimais žmonėmis
3.	Artimi žmonės man labai dažnai rekomenduoja ekologiškus produktus
4.	Aš dažnai einu pirkti ekologiškų produktų kartu su artimais žmonėmis
5.	Artimi žmonės dažnai dalinasi su manimi savo patirtimi ir informacija apie ekologiškus produktus

6. Kiek žiniasklaidoje (internetiniuose portaluose, spaudoje, televizijoje, radijuje) pateikiama informacija ir reklama jus įtakoja ekologijos bei ekologiškų produktų klausimais? Prie kiekvieno teiginio pažymėkite skaičių nuo 1 iki 7 (nuo 1 - visiškai nesutinku iki 7 - visiškai sutinku), geriausiai atspindintį jūsų nuomonę. Galimas vienas atsakymas kiekvienoje eilutėje.

1.	Aš pastebiu informaciją (straipsnius, laidas) apie ekologiškus produktus žiniasklaidoje
2.	Aš pastebiu ekologiškų produktų reklamą pardavimo vietose (atskiras ekologiškų produktų lentynas, ekologinius prekės ženklus, ekologiškas pakuotes ir pan.)
3.	Aš pastebiu ekologiškų produktų reklamą žiniasklaidoje
4.	Aš pastebiu ekologiškų produktų eko ženklinimą (angl. eco-labels)
5.	Informacija (straipsniai, laidos) apie ekologiškus produktus žiniasklaidoje man yra svarbi apsisprendžiant pirkti ekologiškus produktus
6.	Ekologiškų produktų reklama pardavimo vietose (atskiros ekologiškų produktų lentynos, ekologiniai prekės ženklai, ekologiškos pakuotės ir pan.) man yra svarbi apsisprendžiant pirkti ekologiškus produktus
7.	Ekologiškų produktų reklama žiniasklaidoje man yra svarbi apsisprendžiant pirkti ekologiškus produktus
8.	Ekologiškų produktų eko ženklinimas (angl. eco-labels) man yra svarbus apsisprendžiant pirkti ekologiškus produktus

7. Kokia jūsų nuomonė apie ekologiškų produktų kainas? Prie kiekvieno teiginio pažymėkite skaičių nuo 1 iki 7 (nuo 1 - visiškai nesutinku iki 7 - visiškai sutinku), geriausiai atspindintį jūsų nuomonę. Galimas vienas atsakymas kiekvienoje eilutėje.

1.	Ekologiškų produktų kainos yra aukštos
2.	Kaina man yra svarbiausias veiksnys sprendžiant, ar pirkti ekologiškus produktus
3.	Iš esmės ekologiškų produktų kainos yra pagrįstos

Toliau klausimyne vertinsime jūsų ekologiškų produktų pirkimo ir vartojimo įpročius. Atsitiktinai yra parinkti du produktai: skalbiklis bei bulvės, todėl atsakykite atskirai apie kiekvieną iš jų.

8. Kaip dažnai skalbiate drabužius? Galimas vienas atsakymo variantas.

1.	Kiekvieną dieną
2.	4-6 kartus per savaitę
3.	2-3 kartus per savaitę
4.	1 kartą per savaitę
5.	1 kartą per 2 savaites
6.	Rečiau kaip 1 kartą per 2 savaites

9. Ar esate kada nors naudoję ekologišką skalbiklį? Skalbikliu šiuo atveju laikoma: skalbimo milteliai, skalbimo skystis, skalbimo tabletės ir pan., kurie pagaminti iš natūralių medžiagų, neteršia aplinkos ir pan.

1) Taip 2) Ne

Nepaisant kaip atsakėte į 9 klausimą, išreikškite tolimesniuose klausimuose savo nuomonę apie tą pačią prekę.

10. Kokia jūsų nuomonė apie ekologiško skalbiklio prieinamumą? Prie kiekvieno teiginio pažymėkite skaičių nuo 1 iki 7 (nuo 1 - visiškai nesutinku iki 7 - visiškai sutinku), geriausiai atspindintį jūsų nuomonę. Galimas vienas atsakymas kiekvienoje eilutėje.

1.	Įsigyti ekologiško skalbiklio, kuris gerai išskalbia nešvarumus ir dėmes, įmanoma praktiškai visada
2.	Įsigyti ekologiško skalbiklio, kuris nedirgina odos, įmanoma praktiškai visada
3.	Įsigyti ekologiško skalbiklio, kuris neturi kvapo, įmanoma praktiškai visada
4.	Įsigyti ekologiško skalbiklio, kuris neteršia aplinkos, įmanoma praktiškai visada
5.	Įsigyti ekologiško skalbiklio už priimtina kainą įmanoma praktiškai visada

11. Kokia jūsų nuomonė apie ekologiško skalbiklio savybes ir kokybę? Prie kiekvieno teiginio pažymėkite skaičių nuo 1 iki 7 (nuo 1 - visiškai nesutinku iki 7 - visiškai sutinku), geriausiai atspindintį jūsų nuomonę. Galimas vienas atsakymas kiekvienoje eilutėje.

1.	Aš manau, kad ekologiškas skalbiklis tikrai turi ekologiškam produktui būdingų savybių
2.	Aš manau, kad iš esmės ekologiškas skalbiklis skalbia gerai
3.	Aš manau, kad ekologiško skalbiklio kokybė verta pasitikėti
4.	Ekologiško skalbiklio kokybė atitinka mano lūkesčius

		12. Kaip dažniausiai įsigyjate skalbiklį? (galimas vienas atsakymo variantas)	13. Kaip esate įsigijęs skalbiklį per paskutinius 6 mėnesius? (galimi keli atsakymo variantai)
1.	Gaminu pats		
2.	Gaunu nemokamai iš šeimos narių, giminių, pažįstamų		
3.	Perku iš šeimos narių, giminių, pažįstamų		
4.	Perku ekologiniuose turgeliuose		
5.	Perku įprastame turguje		
6.	Perku ekologinėse parduotuvėse		
7.	Perku įprastoje parduotuvėje		
8.	Perku įprastoje parduotuvėje, bet ekologiškų produktų skyriuje		

14. Kaip jūs ketinate įsigyti ir vartoti skalbiklį artimiausius 6 mėnesius? Prie kiekvieno teiginio pažymėkite skaičių nuo 1 iki 7 (nuo 1 - visiškai nesutinku iki 7 - visiškai sutinku), geriausiai atspindintį jūsų nuomonę. Galimas vienas atsakymas kiekvienoje eilutėje.

1.	Per artimiausius 6 mėnesius aš ketinu pirkti ekologiško skalbiklio
2.	Per artimiausius 6 mėnesius aš ketinu naudoti ekologišką skalbiklį
3.	Per artimiausius 6 mėnesius aš ketinu pirkti įprasto skalbiklio
4.	Per artimiausius 6 mėnesius aš ketinu naudoti įprastą skalbiklį
5.	Per artimiausius 6 mėnesius aš ketinu pirkti mažesnį kiekį skalbiklio
6.	Per artimiausius 6 mėnesius aš ketinu naudoti mažesnį kiekį skalbiklio
7.	Per artimiausius 6 mėnesius aš ketinu skalbti rečiau
8.	Per artimiausius 6 mėnesius ketinu naudoti mažesnį skalbiklio kiekį kiekvieno skalbimo metu
9.	Per artimiausius 6 mėnesius aš ketinu naudoti skalbimo būdus, nereikalaujančius skalbiklio

15. Jūsų lytis:

Vyras

Moteris

16. Įrašykite, koks jūsų amžius:

(...)

17. Įrašykite, kiek turite vaikų iki 18 metų amžiaus:

(...)

18. Jūsų išsilavinimas:

Pagrindinis

Vidurinis

Specialusis vidurinis

Aukštesnysis

Nebaigtas aukštasis

Aukštasis

19. Jūsų disponuojamos pajamos vienam šeimos nariui:

Iki 250 eurų

250 - 500 eurų

500 - 750 eurų

750 – 1000 eurų

Virš 1000 eurų

20. Nurodykite savo gyvenamąją vietą:

(...)

Dėkojame jums už skirtą laiką.

Final questionnaire in English

Dear Respondents, I am PhD student at Vilnius University, Faculty of Economics, Department of Marketing. I carry out research about people purchasing and consumption practices in the context of ecology. Your answers will be kept confidential and will be used only summarized for the analysis of dissertation research results. Filling of questionnaire will take approximately 15 minutes.

1. What is your opinion about environment and environmental protection? Please, tick a number from 1 to 7 (where 1 is totally disagree, and 7 is totally agree) near each statement, which represents your opinion the best. Only one answer is possible in each line.

1.	We are approaching the limit of the number of people the earth can support
2.	Humans have the right to modify the natural environment to suit their needs
3.	When humans interfere with nature it often produces disastrous consequences
4.	Human ingenuity will ensure that we do NOT make the earth unlivable
5.	Humans are severely abusing the environment
6.	The earth has plenty of natural resources if we just learn how to develop them

7.	Plants and animals have as much right as humans to exist
8.	The balance of nature is strong enough to cope with the impacts of modern industrial nations
9.	Despite our special abilities humans are still subject to the laws of nature
10.	The so-called “ecological crisis” facing humankind has been greatly exaggerated
11.	The earth is like a spaceship with very limited room and resources
12.	Humans were meant to rule over the rest of nature
13.	The balance of nature is very delicate and easily upset
14.	Humans will eventually learn enough about how nature works to be able to control it
15.	If things continue on their present course, we will soon experience a major ecological catastrophe

2. What is your opinion about your health? Please, tick a number from 1 to 7 (where 1 is totally disagree, and 7 is totally agree) near each statement, which represents your opinion the best. Only one answer is possible in each line.

1.	I reflect about my health a lot
2.	I'm very self-conscious about my health
3.	I'm alert to changes in my health
4.	I'm usually aware of my health
5.	I take responsibility for the state of my health
6.	I'm aware of the state of my health as I go through the day

3. What are your life and consumption practices? Please, tick a number from 1 to 7 (where 1 is totally disagree, and 7 is totally agree) near each statement, which represents your opinion the best. Only one answer is possible in each line.

1.	Avoiding impulse purchases
2.	Recycling
3.	Eliminating clutter
4.	Working at a satisfying job
5.	Buying locally grown produce
6.	Limiting exposure to ads
7.	Buying environmentally friendly products
8.	Limiting car use
9.	Buying from socially responsible producers
10.	Buying from local merchants
11.	Limiting/eliminating TV
12.	Limiting wage-earning work

13.	Being active in the community
14.	Being politically active
15.	Composting
16.	Making rather than buying gifts
17.	Maintaining a spiritual life
18.	Buying organic foods
19.	Being friends with neighbours
20.	Eating a vegetarian diet
21.	Living in co-housing

4. How much do you, as consumer, are interested in the issue of ecology? Please, tick a number from 1 to 7 (where 1 is totally disagree, and 7 is totally agree) near each statement, which represents your opinion the best. Only one answer is possible in each line.

1.	I identify myself strongly as consumer who cares about green products.
2.	Being consumer who cares about green products is an important part of who I am.
3.	I found it difficult to play the role of consumer who cares about green products.

5. How much people that are close to you (family, friends, colleagues) make influence for you in case of ecology and green products? Please, tick a number from 1 to 7 (where 1 is totally disagree, and 7 is totally agree) near each statement, which represents your opinion the best. Only one answer is possible in each line.

1.	I have learned a lot about green issues from close people
2.	I have discussed a lot with close people about green issues/ products
3.	Close people very often have recommended green products to me
4.	I have gone shopping for green products with close people very often
5.	Close people very often have shared green product experiences and information with me

6. How much does the information and advertising in media (internet web sites, press, television, radio) influence you in case of ecology and green products? Please, tick a number from 1 to 7 (where 1 is totally disagree, and 7 is totally agree) near each statement, which represents your opinion the best. Only one answer is possible in each line.

1.	I notice information (articles, shows) about green products in media
2.	I notice advertising of green products in points of sales (separate shelves for green products, eco brands, environmentally friendly packages, etc.)
3.	I notice advertising of green products in media
4.	I notice eco-labelling of green products
5.	Information (articles, shows) about green products in media is important to me while deciding to purchase green products
6.	Advertising of green products in points of sales (separate shelves for green products, eco brands, environmentally friendly packages, etc.) is important to me while deciding to purchase green products
7.	Advertising of green products in media is important to me while deciding to purchase green products
8.	Eco-labelling of green products is important to me while deciding to purchase green products

7. What is your opinion about prices of green products? tick a number from 1 to 7 (where 1 is totally disagree, and 7 is totally agree) near each statement, which represents your opinion the best. Only one answer is possible in each line.

1.	The prices of green products are high
2.	Price is the most important factor when it comes to purchasing green products
3.	Overall the price of the green products is reasonable

Further in the questionnaire we will evaluate your purchasing and consumption practices of ecological products. Randomly two products are chosen: detergent and potatoes, therefore please answer separately about each of them.

8. How often do you wash clothes? Only one answer is possible.

1.	Everyday
2.	4-6 times per week
3.	2-3 times per week
4.	1 time per week
5.	1 time per 2 weeks
6.	Less than 1 time per 2 weeks

9. Have you ever used green detergent? Detergent in this case is understood as: washing powder, washing liquid, washing tablets, etc, which are made of natural ingredients, do not pollute environment, etc.

1) Yes 2) No

Despite how you answered the question no. 9, please express your opinion about the same product in the following questions.

10. What is your opinion about availability of green detergent? Please, tick a number from 1 to 7 (where 1 is totally disagree, and 7 is totally agree) near each statement, which represents your opinion the best. Only one answer is possible in each line.

1.	Green detergent that washes dirt and stains well is always sufficiently available
2.	Green detergent that does not irritate the skin is always sufficiently available
3.	Green detergent that has no smell is always sufficiently available
4.	Green detergent that does not pollute the environment is always sufficiently available
5.	Green detergent that has a reasonable price is always sufficiently available

11. What is your opinion about green detergent's characteristics and quality? Please, tick a number from 1 to 7 (where 1 is totally disagree, and 7 is totally agree) near each statement, which represents your opinion the best. Only one answer is possible in each line.

1.	I feel that green detergent has the characteristics usual to green products
2.	I feel that green detergent in generally washes clothes well
3.	I feel that green detergent's quality is generally trustworthy
4.	Green detergent's quality meets my expectations

		12. How do you acquire detergent the most often? (only one answer is possible)	13. How you acquired detergent during the last 6 months? (several answers are possible)
1.	Produce by myself		
2.	Get for free from my family members, relatives, acquaintances		
3.	Purchase from my family members, relatives, acquaintances		
4.	Purchase in ecological markets		
5.	Purchase in usual markets		
6.	Purchase in ecological shops		
7.	Purchase in usual shops		
8.	Purchase usual shops but green products department		

14. How do you plan to purchase and consume detergent during the next 6 months? Please, tick a number from 1 to 7 (where 1 is totally disagree, and 7 is totally agree) near each statement, which represents your opinion the best. Only one answer is possible in each line.

1.	During the next 6 months I intend to purchase green detergent
2.	During the next 6 months I intend to consume green detergent
3.	During the next 6 months I intend to purchase usual detergent
4.	During the next 6 months I intend to consume usual detergent
5.	During the next 6 months I intend to purchase smaller amount of detergent
6.	During the next 6 months I intend to consume smaller amount of detergent
7.	During the next 6 months I intend to wash clothes more rarely
8.	During the next 6 months I intend to use smaller amount of detergent every time I wash clothes
9.	During the next 6 months I intend to use washing solutions that do not require any detergent

15. Please indicate your gender:

Male

Female

16. Please indicate your age:

(...)

17. Please indicate, how many children do you have up to 18 years old?:

(...)

18. Your education:

Primary

Secondary

Special secondary

Higher

Undergraduate

Graduate

19. Your income for one family member per month:

Up to 250 Euros

250 - 500 Euros

500 - 750 Euros

750 – 1000 Euros

Over 1000 Euros

20. Indicate your place of residence

(...)

Thank you for your time.

Annex 5. Results of quantitative results analysis

Table 64. Place of residence of survey respondents

Place of residence					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	-	18	4.1	4.1	4.1
	Akmene	1	.2	.2	4.3
	Alytaus rajonas	1	.2	.2	4.6
	Alytus	5	1.1	1.1	5.7
	Anyksciai	2	.5	.5	6.2
	Anyksciu rajonas	1	.2	.2	6.4
	Birzai	1	.2	.2	6.6
	Daugai	1	.2	.2	6.8
	Druskininkai	3	.7	.7	7.5
	Elektrenai	2	.5	.5	8.0
	Gargzdai	2	.5	.5	8.4
	Jonava	5	1.1	1.1	9.6
	Jonavos rajonas	1	.2	.2	9.8
	Jurbarko rajonas	1	.2	.2	10.0
	Kaimas	7	1.6	1.6	11.6
	Kaisiadorys	2	.5	.5	12.1
	Kalvarija	1	.2	.2	12.3
	Kaunas	55	12.6	12.6	24.9
	Kauno rajonas	10	2.3	2.3	27.2
	Kazlu ruda	1	.2	.2	27.4
	Kedainiai	3	.7	.7	28.1
	Kedainiu rajonas	1	.2	.2	28.3
	Kelme	2	.5	.5	28.8
	Klaipeda	14	3.2	3.2	32.0
	Klaipedos rajonas	3	.7	.7	32.6
	Kretinga	3	.7	.7	33.3
	Kupiskis	1	.2	.2	33.6
	Kursenai	1	.2	.2	33.8
	Lentvaris	1	.2	.2	34.0
	Marijampole	12	2.7	2.7	36.8
	Mazeikiai	3	.7	.7	37.4
	Miestas	7	1.6	1.6	39.0
	Moletai	1	.2	.2	39.3
	Moletu rajonas	1	.2	.2	39.5
	Naujoji Akmene	2	.5	.5	40.0
	Nedidelis miestas	5	1.1	1.1	41.1
	Pakruojis	2	.5	.5	41.6
	Palanga	3	.7	.7	42.2
	Panevezio rajonas	3	.7	.7	42.9
	Panevezys	13	3.0	3.0	45.9
Pasvalio rajonas	1	.2	.2	46.1	
Pasvalys	1	.2	.2	46.3	
Plunge	3	.7	.7	47.0	
Prienai	4	.9	.9	47.9	

Prienu rajonas	1	.2	.2	48.2
Radviliskio rajonas	2	.5	.5	48.6
Raseiniai	3	.7	.7	49.3
Rokiskio rajonas	1	.2	.2	49.5
Rokiskis	2	.5	.5	50.0
Sakiai	1	.2	.2	50.2
Sakiu rajonas	1	.2	.2	50.5
Seduva	1	.2	.2	50.7
Siauliai	23	5.3	5.3	55.9
Siauliu rajonas	4	.9	.9	56.8
Silale	2	.5	.5	57.3
Silute	1	.2	.2	57.5
Silutes rajonas	1	.2	.2	57.8
Sirvintos	3	.7	.7	58.4
Skuodas	1	.2	.2	58.7
Svencioneliai	1	.2	.2	58.9
Taurage	2	.5	.5	59.4
Telsiai	3	.7	.7	60.0
Telsiu rajonas	1	.2	.2	60.3
Trakai	3	.7	.7	61.0
Ukmerge	4	.9	.9	61.9
Utena	5	1.1	1.1	63.0
Utenos rajonas	1	.2	.2	63.2
Varena	1	.2	.2	63.5
Vievis	1	.2	.2	63.7
Vikaviskio rajonas	1	.2	.2	63.9
Vilniaus rajonas	5	1.1	1.1	65.1
Vilnius	151	34.5	34.5	99.5
Zarasai	2	.5	.5	100.0
Total	438	100.0	100.0	

Factor analysis of independent variables (initial matrix)

Table 65. Descriptive Statistics of factor analysis of independent variables (initial matrix)

Descriptive Statistics			
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Analysis N
We are approaching the limit of the number of people the earth can support	4.25	1.750	438
Humans have the right to modify the natural environment to suit their needs	3.71	1.642	438
<i>When humans interfere with nature it often produces disastrous consequences</i>	5.38	1.547	438
Human ingenuity will ensure that we do NOT make the earth unliveable	4.46	1.587	438
Humans are severely abusing the environment	5.85	1.400	438
<i>The earth has plenty of natural resources if we just learn how to develop them</i>	5.46	1.440	438

<i>Plants and animals have as much right as humans to exist</i>	6.24	1.173	438
The balance of nature is strong enough to cope with the impacts of modern industrial nations	3.26	1.548	438
<i>Despite our special abilities humans are still subject to the laws of nature</i>	5.66	1.289	438
The so-called “ecological crisis” facing humankind has been greatly exaggerated	3.25	1.606	438
The earth is like a spaceship with very limited room and resources	4.84	1.553	438
Humans were meant to rule over the rest of nature	2.88	1.661	438
The balance of nature is very delicate and easily upset	5.42	1.470	438
Humans will eventually learn enough about how nature works to be able to control it	3.74	1.550	438
If things continue on their present course, we will soon experience a major ecological catastrophe	5.21	1.478	438
I reflect about my health a lot	5.16	1.403	438
I'm very self-conscious about my health	4.72	1.363	438
I'm alert to changes in my health	5.11	1.344	438
I'm usually aware of my health	4.71	1.417	438
I take responsibility for the state of my health	6.12	1.164	438
I'm aware of the state of my health as I go through the day	5.76	1.205	438
<i>I avoid impulse purchases</i>	5.00	1.693	438
I recycle	4.57	1.986	438
I eliminate clutter	4.99	1.774	438
I buy locally grown produce	4.82	1.446	438
I limit my exposure to ads	4.86	1.744	438
I buy environmentally friendly products	4.58	1.470	438
I limit car use	3.96	2.031	438
I buy from socially responsible producers	4.08	1.552	438
I buy from local merchants	4.64	1.589	438
I limit/eliminate TV	4.26	2.120	438
<i>I limit wage-earning work</i>	3.54	1.745	438
<i>I buy organic food</i>	3.90	1.501	438
I eat a vegetarian diet	2.26	1.619	438
I compost	3.52	2.304	438
I make rather than buy gifts	3.12	1.755	438
I work at a satisfying job	4.63	1.818	438
I am active in the community	4.19	1.675	438
I am politically active	3.56	1.823	438
I am friends with neighbours	4.81	1.721	438
I live in co-housing	2.27	1.796	438
<i>I maintain a spiritual life</i>	4.62	1.636	438
I have learned a lot about green issues from close people	3.71	1.813	438
I have discussed a lot with close people about green issues/products	3.60	1.748	438
Close people very often have recommended green products for me	3.64	1.850	438
I have gone shopping for green products with close people very often	3.08	1.705	438
Close people very often have shared green product experiences and information with me	3.64	1.885	438
<i>I notice information (articles, shows) about green products in media</i>	4.44	1.713	438

<i>I notice advertising of green products in points of sales (separate shelves for green products, eco brands, environmentally friendly packages etc.)</i>	4.76	1.674	438
<i>I notice advertising of green products in media</i>	4.25	1.699	438
<i>I notice eco-labelling of green products</i>	4.74	1.736	438
Information (articles, shows) about green products in media is important to me while deciding to purchase green products	3.84	1.705	438
Advertising of green products in points of sales (separate shelves for green products, eco brands, environmentally friendly packages, etc.) is important to me while deciding to purchase green products	3.88	1.765	438
Advertising of green products in media is important to me while deciding to purchase green products	3.50	1.687	438
Eco-labelling of green products is important to me while deciding to purchase green products	4.06	1.839	438
The prices of green products are high	6.19	1.167	438
Price is the most important factor when it comes to purchasing green products	5.20	1.678	438
<i>Overall the price of the green products is reasonable</i>	3.99	1.682	438
Green detergent that washes dirt and stains well is always sufficiently available	4.26	1.687	438
Green detergent that does not irritate the skin is always sufficiently available	4.66	1.640	438
Green detergent that has no smell is always sufficiently available	4.63	1.638	438
Green detergent that does not pollute the environment is always sufficiently available	4.43	1.609	438
Green detergent that has a reasonable price is always sufficiently available	3.53	1.641	438
I feel that green detergent has the characteristics usual to green products	4.59	1.604	438
I feel that green detergent in generally washes clothes well	4.29	1.602	438
I feel that the quality of green detergent is generally trustworthy	4.29	1.559	438
Green detergent's quality meets my expectations	4.04	1.595	438

* In bold and italics the removed statements are marked.

Table 66. Communalities of factor analysis of independent variables (initial matrix)

Communalities		
	Initial	Extraction
We are approaching the limit of the number of people the earth can support	1.000	.580
Humans have the right to modify the natural environment to suit their needs	1.000	.542
When humans interfere with nature it often produces disastrous consequences	1.000	.619
Human ingenuity will ensure that we do NOT make the earth unliveable	1.000	.567
Humans are severely abusing the environment	1.000	.577

The earth has plenty of natural resources if we just learn how to develop them	1.000	.547
Plants and animals have as much right as humans to exist	1.000	.498
The balance of nature is strong enough to cope with the impacts of modern industrial nations	1.000	.605
Despite our special abilities humans are still subject to the laws of nature	1.000	.576
The so-called “ecological crisis” facing humankind has been greatly exaggerated	1.000	.550
The earth is like a spaceship with very limited room and resources	1.000	.587
Humans were meant to rule over the rest of nature	1.000	.646
The balance of nature is very delicate and easily upset	1.000	.577
Humans will eventually learn enough about how nature works to be able to control it	1.000	.636
If things continue on their present course, we will soon experience a major ecological catastrophe	1.000	.652
I reflect about my health a lot	1.000	.672
I'm very self-conscious about my health	1.000	.794
I'm alert to changes in my health	1.000	.766
I'm usually aware of my health	1.000	.729
I take responsibility for the state of my health	1.000	.433
I'm aware of the state of my health as I go through the day	1.000	.598
I avoid impulse purchases	1.000	.637
I recycle	1.000	.621
I eliminate clutter	1.000	.674
I buy locally grown produce	1.000	.701
I limit my exposure to ads	1.000	.577
I buy environmentally friendly products	1.000	.651
I limit car use	1.000	.578
I buy from socially responsible producers	1.000	.643
I buy from local merchants	1.000	.740
I limit/eliminate TV	1.000	.687
I limit wage-earning work	1.000	.539
I buy organic food	1.000	.602
I eat a vegetarian diet	1.000	.599
I compost	1.000	.564
I make rather than buy gifts	1.000	.579
I work at a satisfying job	1.000	.565
I am active in the community	1.000	.670
I am politically active	1.000	.535
I am friends with neighbours	1.000	.584
I live in co-housing	1.000	.537
I maintain a spiritual life	1.000	.503
I have learned a lot about green issues from close people	1.000	.747
I have discussed a lot with close people about green issues/products	1.000	.722
Close people very often have recommended green products for me	1.000	.858
I have gone shopping for green products with close people very often	1.000	.675
Close people very often have shared green product experiences and information with me	1.000	.840
I notice information (articles, shows) about green products in media	1.000	.787

I notice advertising of green products in points of sales (separate shelves for green products, eco brands, environmentally friendly packages etc.)	1.000	.735
I notice advertising of green products in media	1.000	.759
I notice eco-labelling of green products	1.000	.627
Information (articles, shows) about green products in media is important to me while deciding to purchase green products	1.000	.760
Advertising of green products in points of sales (separate shelves for green products, eco brands, environmentally friendly packages, etc.) is important to me while deciding to purchase green products	1.000	.787
Advertising of green products in media is important to me while deciding to purchase green products	1.000	.795
Eco-labelling of green products is important to me while deciding to purchase green products	1.000	.806
The prices of green products are high	1.000	.711
Price is the most important factor when it comes to purchasing green products	1.000	.768
Overall the price of the green products is reasonable	1.000	.461
Green detergent that washes dirt and stains well is always sufficiently available	1.000	.677
Green detergent that does not irritate the skin is always sufficiently available	1.000	.844
Green detergent that has no smell is always sufficiently available	1.000	.855
Green detergent that does not pollute the environment is always sufficiently available	1.000	.813
Green detergent that has a reasonable price is always sufficiently available	1.000	.571
I feel that green detergent has the characteristics usual to green products	1.000	.689
I feel that green detergent in generally washes clothes well	1.000	.866
I feel that the quality of green detergent is generally trustworthy	1.000	.891
Green detergent's quality meets my expectations	1.000	.809
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.		

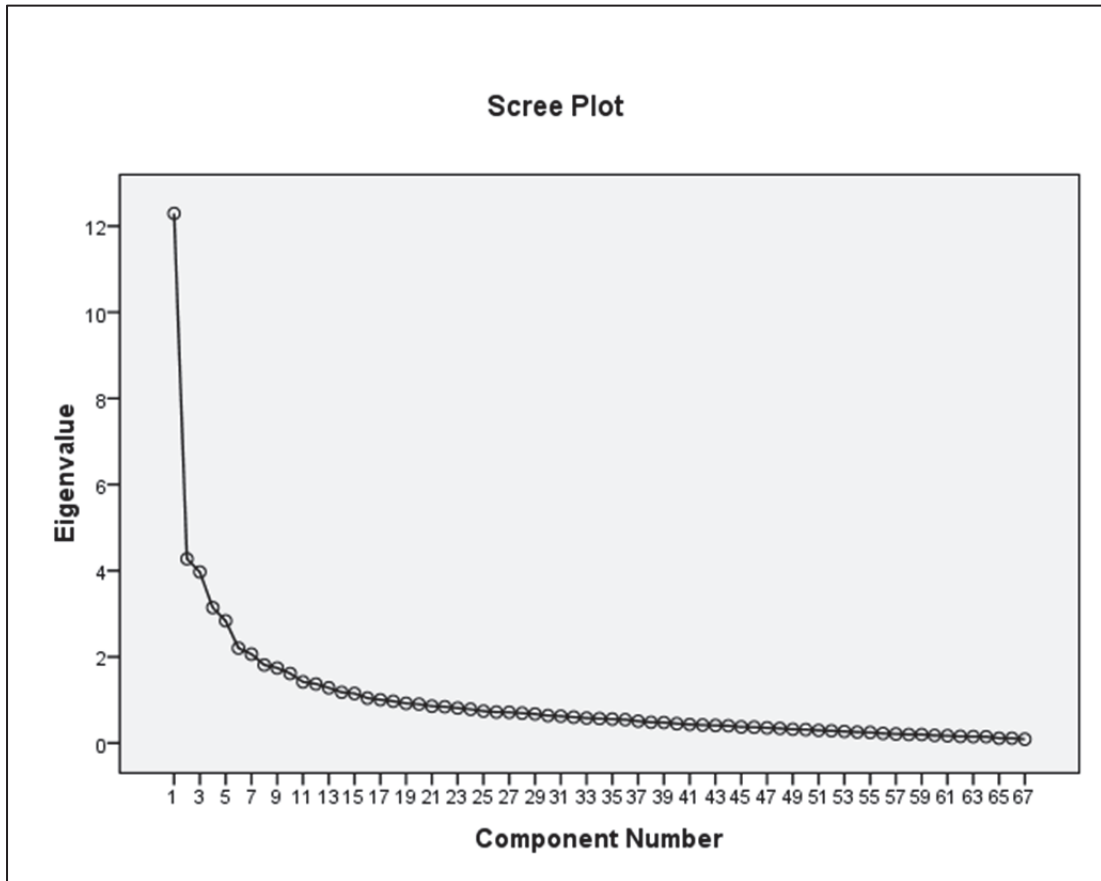


Figure 14. Screen Plot of factor analysis of independent variables (initial matrix)

Table 67. Total Variance Explained of factor analysis of independent variables (initial matrix)

Component	Total Variance Explained											
	Initial Eigenvalues		Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		Initial Eigenvalues		Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings	
	Total	% of Variance	Total	% of Variance	Total	% of Variance	Total	% of Variance	Total	% of Variance	Total	% of Variance
1	12.293	18.348	12.293	18.348	12.293	18.348	4.285	6.395	4.285	18.348	4.285	6.395
2	4.273	6.378	4.273	24.726	4.273	6.378	3.884	5.796	3.884	24.726	3.884	12.191
3	3.970	5.926	3.970	30.651	3.970	5.926	3.659	5.460	3.659	30.651	3.659	17.652
4	3.143	4.691	3.143	35.342	3.143	4.691	3.619	5.401	3.619	35.342	3.619	23.053
5	2.836	4.232	2.836	39.575	2.836	4.232	3.368	5.026	3.368	39.575	3.368	28.079
6	2.203	3.287	2.203	42.862	2.203	3.287	3.120	4.657	3.120	42.862	3.120	32.736
7	2.063	3.079	2.063	45.941	2.063	3.079	3.024	4.513	3.024	45.941	3.024	37.249
8	1.811	2.704	1.811	48.644	1.811	2.704	2.883	4.302	2.883	48.644	2.883	41.551
9	1.742	2.599	1.742	51.244	1.742	2.599	2.771	4.136	2.771	51.244	2.771	45.688
10	1.614	2.409	1.614	53.653	1.614	2.409	2.280	3.402	2.280	53.653	2.280	49.090
11	1.418	2.116	1.418	55.769	1.418	2.116	2.265	3.380	2.265	55.769	2.265	52.470
12	1.370	2.045	1.370	57.814	1.370	2.045	2.000	2.985	2.000	57.814	2.000	55.455
13	1.281	1.912	1.281	59.726	1.281	1.912	1.678	2.504	1.678	59.726	1.678	57.959
14	1.177	1.756	1.177	61.482	1.177	1.756	1.635	2.441	1.635	61.482	1.635	60.400
15	1.148	1.714	1.148	63.196	1.148	1.714	1.623	2.423	1.623	63.196	1.623	62.822
16	1.043	1.556	1.043	64.752	1.043	1.556	1.228	1.833	1.228	64.752	1.228	64.656
17	1.005	1.500	1.005	66.252	1.005	1.500	1.070	1.597	1.070	66.252	1.070	66.252
18	.967	1.444		67.696								
19	.920	1.373		69.069								
20	.901	1.345		70.413								
21	.854	1.275		71.688								
22	.840	1.254		72.942								
23	.811	1.210		74.152								
24	.784	1.169		75.322								
25	.741	1.106		76.428								
26	.718	1.071		77.499								
27	.712	1.063		78.562								
28	.691	1.031		79.593								

63	.148	.221	99.319														
64	.146	.218	99.537														
65	.112	.167	99.704														
66	.110	.165	99.869														
67	.088	.131	100.000														
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.																	

Table 68. Rotated Component Matrix of factor analysis of independent variables (initial matrix)

Rotated Component Matrix ^a																	
Component																	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
We are approaching the limit of the number of people the earth can support								.585									.320
Humans have the right to modify the natural environment to suit their needs							.674										
When humans interfere with nature it often produces disastrous consequences								.520									
Human ingenuity will							.530					.324					

Factor analysis of independent variables (final matrix)

Table 69. Descriptive Statistics of factor analysis of independent variables (final matrix)

Descriptive Statistics			
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Analysis N
We are approaching the limit of the number of people the earth can support	4.25	1.750	438
Humans have the right to modify the natural environment to suit their needs	3.71	1.642	438
Human ingenuity will ensure that we do NOT make the earth unliveable	4.46	1.587	438
Humans are severely abusing the environment	5.85	1.400	438
The balance of nature is strong enough to cope with the impacts of modern industrial nations	3.26	1.548	438
The so-called "ecological crisis" facing humankind has been greatly exaggerated	3.25	1.606	438
The earth is like a spaceship with very limited room and resources	4.84	1.553	438
Humans were meant to rule over the rest of nature	2.88	1.661	438
The balance of nature is very delicate and easily upset	5.42	1.470	438
Humans will eventually learn enough about how nature works to be able to control it	3.74	1.550	438
If things continue on their present course, we will soon experience a major ecological catastrophe	5.21	1.478	438
I reflect about my health a lot	5.16	1.403	438
I'm very self-conscious about my health	4.72	1.363	438
I'm alert to changes in my health	5.11	1.344	438
I'm usually aware of my health	4.71	1.417	438
I'm aware of the state of my health as I go through the day	5.76	1.205	438
I recycle	4.57	1.986	438
I eliminate clutter	4.99	1.774	438
I buy locally grown produce	4.82	1.446	438
I limit my exposure to ads	4.86	1.744	438
I buy environmentally friendly products	4.58	1.470	438
I limit car use	3.96	2.031	438
I buy from socially responsible producers	4.08	1.552	438
I buy from local merchants	4.64	1.589	438
I limit/eliminate TV	4.26	2.120	438
I eat a vegetarian diet	2.26	1.619	438
I compost	3.52	2.304	438
I make rather than buy gifts	3.12	1.755	438
I work at a satisfying job	4.63	1.818	438
I am active in the community	4.19	1.675	438
I am politically active	3.56	1.823	438
I am friends with neighbours	4.81	1.721	438
I live in co-housing	2.27	1.796	438
I have learned a lot about green issues from close people	3.71	1.813	438

I have discussed a lot with close people about green issues/ products	3.60	1.748	438
Close people very often have recommended green products for me	3.64	1.850	438
I have gone shopping for green products with close people very often	3.08	1.705	438
Close people very often have shared green product experiences and information with me	3.64	1.885	438
Information (articles, shows) about green products in media is important to me while deciding to purchase green products	3.84	1.705	438
Advertising of green products in points of sales (separate shelves for green products, eco brands, environmentally friendly packages, etc.) is important to me while deciding to purchase green products	3.88	1.765	438
Advertising of green products in media is important to me while deciding to purchase green products	3.50	1.687	438
Eco-labelling of green products is important to me while deciding to purchase green products	4.06	1.839	438
The prices of green products are high	6.19	1.167	438
Price is the most important factor when it comes to purchasing green products	5.20	1.678	438
Green detergent that washes dirt and stains well is always sufficiently available	4.26	1.687	438
Green detergent that does not irritate the skin is always sufficiently available	4.66	1.640	438
Green detergent that has no smell is always sufficiently available	4.63	1.638	438
Green detergent that does not pollute the environment is always sufficiently available	4.43	1.609	438
Green detergent that has a reasonable price is always sufficiently available	3.53	1.641	438
I feel that green detergent has the characteristics usual to green products	4.59	1.604	438
I feel that green detergent in generally washes clothes well	4.29	1.602	438
I feel that the quality of green detergent is generally trustworthy	4.29	1.559	438
Green detergent's quality meets my expectations	4.04	1.595	438

Table 70. Communalities of factor analysis of independent variables (final matrix)

Communalities		
	Initial	Extraction
We are approaching the limit of the number of people the earth can support	1.000	.520
Humans have the right to modify the natural environment to suit their needs	1.000	.513
Human ingenuity will insure that we do NOT make the earth unliveable	1.000	.708
Humans are severely abusing the environment	1.000	.502
The balance of nature is strong enough to cope with the impacts of modern industrial nations	1.000	.602

The so-called “ecological crisis” facing humankind has been greatly exaggerated	1.000	.544
The earth is like a spaceship with very limited room and resources	1.000	.450
Humans were meant to rule over the rest of nature	1.000	.620
The balance of nature is very delicate and easily upset	1.000	.595
Humans will eventually learn enough about how nature works to be able to control it	1.000	.603
If things continue on their present course, we will soon experience a major ecological catastrophe	1.000	.664
I reflect about my health a lot	1.000	.683
I'm very self-conscious about my health	1.000	.815
I'm alert to changes in my health	1.000	.767
I'm usually aware of my health	1.000	.702
I'm aware of the state of my health as I go through the day	1.000	.577
I recycle	1.000	.626
I eliminate clutter	1.000	.701
I buy locally grown produce	1.000	.723
I limit my exposure to ads	1.000	.583
I buy environmentally friendly products	1.000	.631
I limit car use	1.000	.554
I buy from socially responsible producers	1.000	.642
I buy from local merchants	1.000	.762
I limit/eliminate TV	1.000	.512
I eat a vegetarian diet	1.000	.548
I compost	1.000	.606
I make rather than buy gifts	1.000	.520
I work at a satisfying job	1.000	.577
I am active in the community	1.000	.686
I am politically active	1.000	.459
I am friends with neighbours	1.000	.583
I live in co-housing	1.000	.541
I have learned a lot about green issues from close people	1.000	.743
I have discussed a lot with close people about green issues/ products	1.000	.723
Close people very often have recommended green products for me	1.000	.858
I have gone shopping for green products with close people very often	1.000	.665
Close people very often have shared green product experiences and information with me	1.000	.843
Information (articles, shows) about green products in media is important to me while deciding to purchase green products	1.000	.771
Advertising of green products in points of sales (separate shelves for green products, eco brands, environmentally friendly packages, etc.) is important to me while deciding to purchase green products	1.000	.800
Advertising of green products in media is important to me while deciding to purchase green products	1.000	.819
Eco-labelling of green products is important to me while deciding to purchase green products	1.000	.808
The prices of green products are high	1.000	.722
Price is the most important factor when it comes to purchasing green products	1.000	.773
Green detergent that washes dirt and stains well is always sufficiently available	1.000	.682
Green detergent that does not irritate the skin is always sufficiently available	1.000	.853

Green detergent that has no smell is always sufficiently available	1.000	.858
Green detergent that does not pollute the environment is always sufficiently available	1.000	.814
Green detergent that has a reasonable price is always sufficiently available	1.000	.566
I feel that green detergent has the characteristics usual to green products	1.000	.697
I feel that green detergent in generally washes clothes well	1.000	.877
I feel that the quality of green detergent is generally trustworthy	1.000	.903
Green detergent's quality meets my expectations	1.000	.821
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.		

Table 71. Total Variance Explained of factor analysis of independent variables (final matrix)

Component	Total Variance Explained									
	Initial Eigenvalues		Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings				
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	
1	9.933	18.741	18.741	9.933	18.741	18.741	4.029	7.602	7.602	
2	4.102	7.739	26.480	4.102	7.739	26.480	3.758	7.090	14.692	
3	3.568	6.732	33.212	3.568	6.732	33.212	3.291	6.210	20.903	
4	2.817	5.314	38.526	2.817	5.314	38.526	3.283	6.194	27.097	
5	2.451	4.625	43.152	2.451	4.625	43.152	3.221	6.077	33.174	
6	1.918	3.619	46.771	1.918	3.619	46.771	2.770	5.226	38.400	
7	1.849	3.489	50.260	1.849	3.489	50.260	2.716	5.125	43.525	
8	1.639	3.093	53.353	1.639	3.093	53.353	2.583	4.873	48.398	
9	1.498	2.827	56.180	1.498	2.827	56.180	2.161	4.077	52.475	
10	1.360	2.566	58.746	1.360	2.566	58.746	2.057	3.881	56.357	
11	1.301	2.455	61.200	1.301	2.455	61.200	1.567	2.957	59.313	
12	1.169	2.206	63.406	1.169	2.206	63.406	1.565	2.953	62.266	
13	1.095	2.066	65.473	1.095	2.066	65.473	1.563	2.949	65.215	
14	1.016	1.916	67.389	1.016	1.916	67.389	1.152	2.173	67.389	
15	.987	1.861	69.250							
16	.856	1.614	70.865							
17	.830	1.566	72.431							
18	.809	1.525	73.956							
19	.752	1.418	75.374							
20	.724	1.366	76.740							
21	.701	1.322	78.062							
22	.692	1.306	79.368							
23	.655	1.236	80.604							
24	.611	1.153	81.757							
25	.598	1.128	82.885							

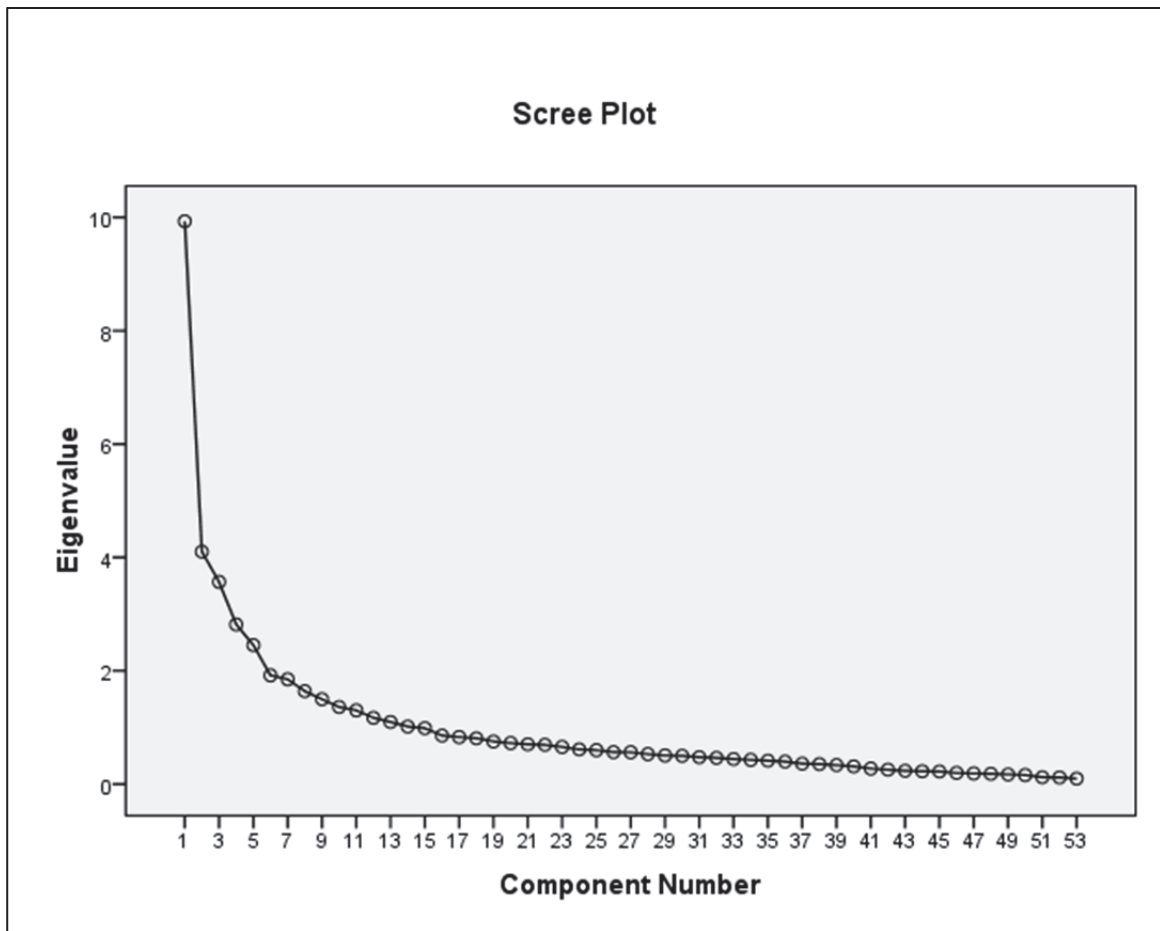


Figure 15. Screen Plot of factor analysis of independent variables (final matrix)

Table 72. Rotated Component Matrix of factor analysis of independent variables (final matrix)

Rotated Component Matrix ^a														
	Component													
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
We are approaching the limit of the number of people the earth can support								.619						
Humans have the right to modify the natural environment to suit their needs						.659								
Human ingenuity will ensure that we do NOT make the earth unliveable						.545								.600
Humans are severely abusing the environment								.637						
The balance of nature is strong enough to cope with the impacts of modern industrial nations						.646		-.342						
The so-called “ecological crisis” facing humankind has been greatly exaggerated						.584		-.371						
The earth is like a spaceship with very limited room and resources								.632						

Factor analysis of dependant variables

Table 73. Descriptive Statistics of factor analysis of dependent variables

Descriptive Statistics			
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Analysis N
During the next 6 months I intend to purchase green detergent	3.55	2.133	438
During the next 6 months I intend to purchase usual detergent	5.12	1.926	438
During the next 6 months I intend to consume green detergent	3.65	2.118	438
During the next 6 months I intend to consume usual detergent	5.27	1.873	438
During the next 6 months I intend to purchase smaller amount of detergent	3.34	1.941	438
During the next 6 months I intend to consume smaller amount of detergent	3.42	1.935	438
During the next 6 months I intend to wash clothes more rarely	2.66	1.736	438
During the next 6 months I intend to use smaller amount of detergent every time I wash clothes	3.19	1.834	438
During the next 6 months I intend to use washing solutions that do not require any detergent	2.33	1.664	438

Table 74. Communalities of factor analysis of dependent variables

Communalities		
	Initial	Extraction
During the next 6 months I intend to purchase green detergent	1.000	.961
During the next 6 months I intend to purchase usual detergent	1.000	.916
During the next 6 months I intend to consume green detergent	1.000	.959
During the next 6 months I intend to consume usual detergent	1.000	.917
During the next 6 months I intend to purchase smaller amount of detergent	1.000	.778
During the next 6 months I intend to consume smaller amount of detergent	1.000	.853
During the next 6 months I intend to wash clothes more rarely	1.000	.712
During the next 6 months I intend to use smaller amount of detergent every time I wash clothes	1.000	.748
During the next 6 months I intend to use washing solutions that do not require any detergent	1.000	.492
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.		

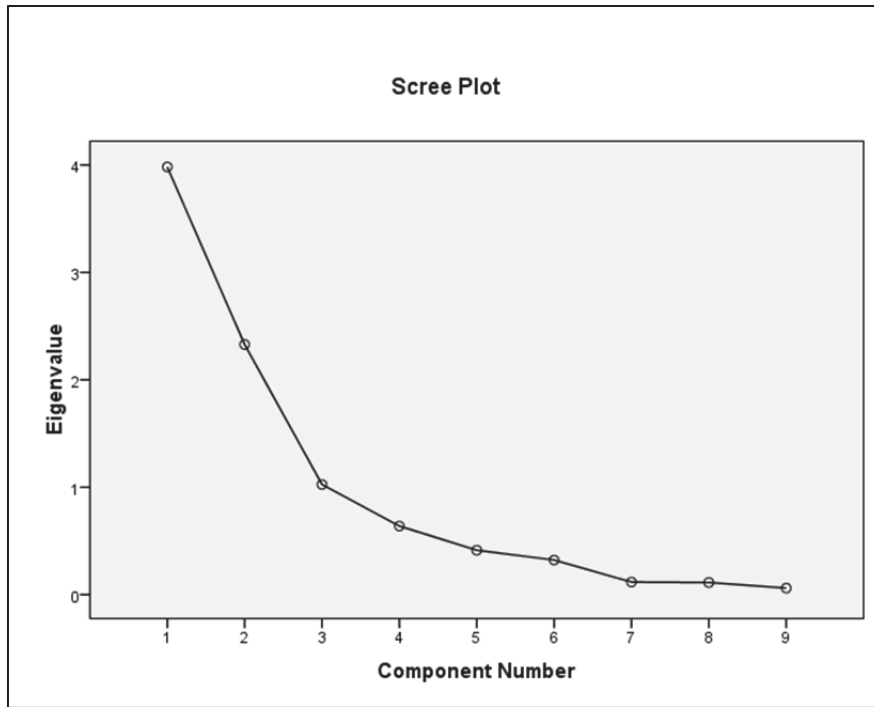


Figure 16. Screen Plot of factor analysis of dependent variables

Table 75. Total Variance Explained of factor analysis of dependent variables

Component	Total Variance Explained									
	Initial Eigenvalues		Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings				
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	
1	3.983	44.253	44.253	3.983	44.253	44.253	3.407	37.859	37.859	
2	2.329	25.877	70.130	2.329	25.877	70.130	1.975	21.949	59.808	
3	1.025	11.391	81.521	1.025	11.391	81.521	1.954	21.713	81.521	
4	.638	7.092	88.613							
5	.413	4.592	93.205							
6	.322	3.576	96.781							
7	.117	1.298	98.079							
8	.113	1.251	99.330							
9	.060	.670	100.000							

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Table 76. Rotated Component Matrix of factor analysis of dependent variables

	Rotated Component Matrix ^a		
	1	2	3
During the next 6 months I intend to purchase green detergent			.937
During the next 6 months I intend to purchase usual detergent		.936	
During the next 6 months I intend to consume green detergent			.932
During the next 6 months I intend to consume usual detergent		.918	
During the next 6 months I intend to purchase smaller amount of detergent	.857		
During the next 6 months I intend to consume smaller amount of detergent	.897		
During the next 6 months I intend to wash clothes more rarely	.827		
During the next 6 months I intend to use smaller amount of detergent every time I wash clothes	.851		
During the next 6 months I intend to use washing solutions that do not require any detergent	.632		

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
 Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.
 a. Rotation converged in 5 iterations.

Table 77. ANOVA table for Personal factors and the respondents experience with Green detergent

		ANOVA Table						
			Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	
Environmental consciousness * Have you ever used green detergent?	Between Groups	(Combined)	3.396	1	3.396	3.176	.075	
	Within Groups		466.232	436	1.069			
	Total		469.628	437				
Environmental anti-consciousness * Have you ever used green detergent?	Between Groups	(Combined)	.284	1	.284	.238	.626	
	Within Groups		518.445	436	1.189			
	Total		518.728	437				
Health consciousness * Have you ever used green detergent?	Between Groups	(Combined)	18.814	1	18.814	17.032	.000	
	Within Groups		481.623	436	1.105			
	Total		500.437	437				
Green purchase practices * Have you ever used green detergent?	Between Groups	(Combined)	54.054	1	54.054	38.021	.000	
	Within Groups		619.858	436	1.422			
	Total		673.912	437				
Life simplification practices * Have you ever used green detergent?	Between Groups	(Combined)	18.699	1	18.699	13.624	.000	
	Within Groups		598.413	436	1.373			
	Total		617.111	437				
Being socially active * Have you ever used green detergent?	Between Groups	(Combined)	19.754	1	19.754	13.540	.000	
	Within Groups		636.103	436	1.459			
	Total		655.857	437				
Limiting exposure to advertising * Have you ever used green detergent?	Between Groups	(Combined)	16.583	1	16.583	8.060	.005	
	Within Groups		897.079	436	2.058			
	Total		913.662	437				
Environmentally conscious behaviour * Have you ever used green detergent?	Between Groups	(Combined)	83.248	1	83.248	28.252	.000	
	Within Groups		1284.721	436	2.947			
	Total		1367.969	437				

Table 78. Independent Samples t- test of influence from close people and influence from advertising constructs according to the respondents experience with green detergent

		Independent Samples Test									
		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances					t-test for Equality of Means				
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	Lower	Upper
Influence from close people	Equal variances assumed	.002	.967	4.853	436	.000	.70630	.14554	.42026	.99235	
	Equal variances not assumed			4.857	434.941	.000	.70630	.14541	.42050	.99210	
Influence from advertising	Equal variances assumed	.654	.419	4.486	436	.000	.65205	.14534	.36640	.93770	
	Equal variances not assumed			4.482	431.593	.000	.65205	.14548	.36610	.93800	

Table 79. Means of perceived higher price of green products construct according to the respondents experience with green detergent

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Perceived higher price of green products	Have you ever used green detergent?				
	Yes	227	5.6145	1.23199	.08177
	No	211	5.7796	1.19921	.08256

Table 80. Independent Samples t- test of perceived higher price of green products construct according to the respondents experience with green detergent

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Perceived higher price of green products	Equal variances assumed	.384	-1.419	436	.157	-.16508	.11631	-.39369	.06352
	Equal variances not assumed		-1.421	435.067	.156	-.16508	.11620	-.39346	.06330

Table 81. Independent Samples t- test of perceived availability of green detergent and trust in green detergent characteristics constructs according to the respondents experience with green detergent

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Perceived availability of green detergent	Equal variances assumed	.236	9.674	436	.000	1.15937	.11984	.92383	1.39491
	Equal variances not assumed		9.653	428.287	.000	1.15937	.12011	.92329	1.39545
Trust in quality green detergent	Equal variances assumed	.061	7.793	436	.000	1.00554	.12903	.75194	1.25914
	Equal variances not assumed		7.783	430.967	.000	1.00554	.12920	.75160	1.25947

Table 82. Means of statements of trust in green detergent characteristics construct

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
I feel that green detergent has the characteristics usual to green products	438	4.59	1.604
I feel that green detergent in generally washes clothes well	438	4.29	1.602
I feel that the quality of green detergent is generally trustworthy	438	4.29	1.559
Green detergent's quality meets my expectations	438	4.04	1.595
Valid N (list wise)	438		

Table 83. Correlations between personal characteristics, green practices, society pressure and perceived product accessibility factor

		Correlations												
		Environmental consciousness	Environmental anti-consciousness	Health consciousness	Green purchase practices	Life simplification practices	Being socially active	Limiting exposure to advertising	Environmentally conscious behaviour	Influence from close people	Influence from advertising	Perceived higher price of green products	Perceived availability of green detergent	Trust in green detergent characteristics
Environmental consciousness	Pearson Correlation	1	-.343**	.230**	.157**	.073	.036	.078	.120*	.195**	.181**	.140**	.083	.172**
Environmental anti-consciousness	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.001	.129	.452	.102	.012	.000	.000	.003	.083	.000
	N	438	438	438	438	438	438	438	438	438	438	438	438	438
Environmental anti-consciousness	Pearson Correlation	-.343**	1	.084	-.011	-.002	.071	-.010	.022	.053	-.021	.027	-.031	-.085
Environmental anti-consciousness	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.080	.816	.969	.138	.833	.648	.264	.661	.571	.513	.077
	N	438	438	438	438	438	438	438	438	438	438	438	438	438
Health consciousness	Pearson Correlation	.230**	.084	1	.369**	.181**	.296**	.069	.287**	.301**	.261**	.041	.199**	.242**
Health consciousness	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.080		.000	.000	.000	.147	.000	.000	.000	.395	.000	.000
	N	438	438	438	438	438	438	438	438	438	438	438	438	438

Green purchase practices	Pearson Correlation	.157**	-.011	.369**	1	.389**	.324**	.304**	.348**	.436**	.410**	-.085	.205**	.333**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.816	.000		.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.074	.000	.000
Life simplification practices	Pearson Correlation	.073	-.002	.181**	.389**	1	.225**	.169**	.290**	.271**	.201**	-.110*	.139**	.223**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.129	.969	.000	.000		.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.021	.004	.000
Being socially active	Pearson Correlation	.036	.071	.296**	.324**	.225**	1	.091	.236**	.307**	.223**	-.153**	.177**	.199**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.452	.138	.000	.000	.000		.057	.000	.000	.000	.001	.000	.000
Limiting exposure to advertising	Pearson Correlation	.078	-.010	.069	.304**	.169**	.091	1	.121*	.127**	.009	.085	-.040	.016
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.102	.833	.147	.000	.000	.057		.011	.008	.856	.074	.402	.745
Environmentally conscious behaviour	Pearson Correlation	.120*	.022	.287**	.348**	.290**	.236**	.121*	1	.299**	.311**	-.008	.185**	.218**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.012	.648	.000	.000	.000	.000	.011		.000	.000	.875	.000	.000
Influence from close people	Pearson Correlation	.195**	.053	.301**	.436**	.271**	.307**	.127**	.299**	1	.517**	-.006	.156**	.327**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.264	.000	.000	.000	.000	.008	.000		.000	.894	.001	.000
Influence from advertising	Pearson Correlation	.181**	-.021	.261**	.410**	.201**	.223**	.009	.311**	.517**	1	.018	.189**	.367**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.661	.000	.000	.000	.000	.856	.000	.000		.708	.000	.000
Perceived higher price of green products	Pearson Correlation	.140**	.027	.041	-.085	-.110*	-.153**	.085	-.008	-.006	.018	1	-.026	-.012
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.003	.571	.395	.074	.021	.001	.074	.875	.894	.708		.589	.795
	N	438	438	438	438	438	438	438	438	438	438	438	438	438

Perceived availability of green detergent	Pearson Correlation	.083	-.031	.199**	.205**	.139**	.177**	-.040	.185**	.156**	.189**	-.026	1	.586**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.083	.513	.000	.000	.004	.000	.402	.000	.001	.000	.589		.000
	N	438	438	438	438	438	438	438	438	438	438	438	438	438
Trust in green detergent characteristi	Pearson Correlation	.172**	-.085	.242**	.333**	.223**	.199**	.016	.218**	.327**	.367**	-.012	.586**	1
CS	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.077	.000	.000	.000	.000	.745	.000	.000	.000	.795	.000	
	N	438	438	438	438	438	438	438	438	438	438	438	438	438

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table 84. Frequency of clothes washing

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Every day	24	5.5	5.5	5.5
4-6 times per week	52	11.9	11.9	17.4
2-3 times per week	177	40.4	40.4	57.8
1 time per week	151	34.5	34.5	92.2
1 time per 2 weeks	23	5.3	5.3	97.5
Less than 1 time per 2 weeks	11	2.5	2.5	100.0
Total	438	100.0	100.0	

Table 85. Intention to purchase and consume detergent during the next 6 months by the respondents who purchase detergent in ecological markets

	Purchase in ecological markets	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
During the next 6 months I intend to purchase green detergent	-	426	3.52	2.123	.103
	+	12	4.67	2.270	.655
During the next 6 months I intend to consume green detergent	-	426	3.62	2.112	.102
	+	12	4.92	2.021	.583
During the next 6 months I intend to purchase usual detergent	-	426	5.13	1.933	.094
	+	12	4.92	1.730	.499
During the next 6 months I intend to consume usual detergent	-	426	5.27	1.885	.091
	+	12	5.17	1.403	.405
During the next 6 months I intend to purchase smaller amount of detergent	-	426	3.31	1.930	.094
	+	12	4.50	2.067	.597
During the next 6 months I intend to consume smaller amount of detergent	-	426	3.39	1.919	.093
	+	12	4.58	2.234	.645
During the next 6 months I intend to wash clothes more rarely	-	426	2.64	1.721	.083
	+	12	3.50	2.111	.609
During the next 6 months I intend to use smaller amount of detergent every time I wash clothes	-	426	3.15	1.814	.088
	+	12	4.67	2.015	.582
During the next 6 months I intend to use washing solutions that do not require any detergent	-	426	2.30	1.640	.079
	+	12	3.67	2.015	.582

Table 86. Independent Samples t- test of purchase of detergent in ecological markets and intention to purchase and consume detergent during the next 6 months

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means							
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		
								Lower	Upper	
During the next 6 months I intend to purchase green detergent	.016	.898	-1.840	436	.066	-1.146	.623	-2.369	.078	
During the next 6 months I intend to consume green detergent	.490	.484	-2.108	436	.036	-1.302	.617	-2.515	-.088	
During the next 6 months I intend to purchase usual detergent	1.081	.299	.376	436	.707	.212	.564	-.897	1.322	
During the next 6 months I intend to consume usual detergent	3.189	.075	.197	436	.844	.108	.549	-.971	1.187	
During the next 6 months I intend to purchase smaller amount of detergent	.003	.960	-2.103	436	.036	-1.190	.566	-2.303	-.078	
			-1.970	11.547	.073	-1.190	.604	-2.512	.132	

During the next 6 months I intend to consume smaller amount of detergent	Equal variances assumed	.351	.554	-2.111	436	.035	-1.191	.564	-2.300	-.082
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.828	11.462	.094	-1.191	.652	-2.619	.236
During the next 6 months I intend to wash clothes more rarely	Equal variances assumed	2.910	.089	-1.704	436	.089	-.864	.507	-1.860	.132
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.405	11.416	.187	-.864	.615	-2.211	.484
During the next 6 months I intend to use smaller amount of detergent every time I wash clothes	Equal variances assumed	.002	.967	-2.843	436	.005	-1.514	.533	-2.561	-.467
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.574	11.508	.025	-1.514	.588	-2.802	-.226
During the next 6 months I intend to use washing solutions that do not require any detergent	Equal variances assumed	1.774	.184	-2.838	436	.005	-1.371	.483	-2.320	-.421
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.335	11.414	.039	-1.371	.587	-2.657	-.084

Table 87. Intention to purchase and consume detergent during the next 6 months by the respondents who purchase detergent in ecological shops

	Purchase in ecological shops	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
During the next 6 months I intend to purchase green detergent	-	389	3.36	2.073	.105
	+	49	5.10	1.982	.283
During the next 6 months I intend to consume green detergent	-	389	3.46	2.084	.106
	+	49	5.20	1.720	.246
During the next 6 months I intend to purchase usual detergent	-	389	5.21	1.902	.096
	+	49	4.45	2.001	.286
During the next 6 months I intend to consume usual detergent	-	389	5.38	1.823	.092
	+	49	4.45	2.072	.296
During the next 6 months I intend to purchase smaller amount of detergent	-	389	3.31	1.949	.099
	+	49	3.57	1.882	.269
During the next 6 months I intend to consume smaller amount of detergent	-	389	3.37	1.929	.098
	+	49	3.88	1.943	.278
During the next 6 months I intend to wash clothes more rarely	-	389	2.67	1.741	.088
	+	49	2.61	1.706	.244
During the next 6 months I intend to use smaller amount of detergent every time I wash clothes	-	389	3.19	1.833	.093
	+	49	3.24	1.866	.267
During the next 6 months I intend to use washing solutions that do not require any detergent	-	389	2.31	1.649	.084
	+	49	2.51	1.781	.254

Table 88. Independent Samples t- test of purchase of detergent in ecological shops and intention to purchase and consume detergent during the next 6 months

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances	t-test for Equality of Means									
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference
During the next 6 months I intend to purchase green detergent	Equal variances assumed	.576	.448	-5.579	436	.000	-1.745	.313	-2.359	-1.130	
During the next 6 months I intend to consume green detergent	Equal variances not assumed			-5.778	61.999	.000	-1.745	.302	-2.348	-1.141	
During the next 6 months I intend to purchase usual detergent	Equal variances assumed	5.059	.025	-5.637	436	.000	-1.749	.310	-2.359	-1.139	
During the next 6 months I intend to consume usual detergent	Equal variances not assumed			-6.540	67.108	.000	-1.749	.267	-2.283	-1.215	
During the next 6 months I intend to purchase smaller amount of detergent	Equal variances assumed	.445	.505	2.618	436	.009	.759	.290	.189	1.329	
During the next 6 months I intend to consume smaller amount of detergent	Equal variances not assumed			2.517	59.461	.015	.759	.302	.156	1.363	
During the next 6 months I intend to purchase smaller amount of detergent	Equal variances assumed	2.344	.127	3.300	436	.001	.926	.281	.375	1.478	
During the next 6 months I intend to consume smaller amount of detergent	Equal variances not assumed			2.987	57.745	.004	.926	.310	.305	1.547	
During the next 6 months I intend to purchase smaller amount of detergent	Equal variances assumed	.181	.671	-8.876	436	.382	-.258	.294	-.836	.321	
During the next 6 months I intend to consume smaller amount of detergent	Equal variances not assumed			-9.900	61.705	.372	-.258	.286	-.830	.315	

During the next 6 months I intend to consume smaller amount of detergent	Equal variances assumed	.247	.620	-1.742	436	.082	-.510	.293	-1.085	.065
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.732	60.546	.088	-.510	.294	-1.099	.079
During the next 6 months I intend to wash clothes more rarely	Equal variances assumed	.343	.558	.203	436	.839	.054	.263	-.464	.571
	Equal variances not assumed			.207	61.302	.837	.054	.259	-.465	.572
During the next 6 months I intend to use smaller amount of detergent every time I wash clothes	Equal variances assumed	.023	.879	-.206	436	.837	-.057	.278	-.604	.490
	Equal variances not assumed			-.203	60.270	.840	-.057	.282	-.622	.507
During the next 6 months I intend to use washing solutions that do not require any detergent	Equal variances assumed	1.802	.180	-.789	436	.430	-.199	.252	-.695	.297
	Equal variances not assumed			-.744	58.845	.460	-.199	.268	-.735	.337

Table 89. Intention to purchase and consume detergent during the next 6 months by the respondents who purchase detergent in usual shops but green products department

	Purchase usual shops but green products department	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
During the next 6 months I intend to purchase green detergent	-	375	3.40	2.101	.108
	+	63	4.44	2.123	.268
During the next 6 months I intend to consume green detergent	-	375	3.49	2.081	.107
	+	63	4.63	2.081	.262
During the next 6 months I intend to purchase usual detergent	-	375	5.19	1.919	.099
	+	63	4.75	1.942	.245
During the next 6 months I intend to consume usual detergent	-	375	5.34	1.854	.096
	+	63	4.89	1.952	.246
During the next 6 months I intend to purchase smaller amount of detergent	-	375	3.25	1.920	.099
	+	63	3.87	1.996	.251
During the next 6 months I intend to consume smaller amount of detergent	-	375	3.35	1.920	.099
	+	63	3.87	1.980	.249
During the next 6 months I intend to wash clothes more rarely	-	375	2.62	1.720	.089
	+	63	2.90	1.820	.229
During the next 6 months I intend to use smaller amount of detergent every time I wash clothes	-	375	3.11	1.815	.094
	+	63	3.71	1.879	.237
During the next 6 months I intend to use washing solutions that do not require any detergent	-	375	2.30	1.633	.084
	+	63	2.51	1.839	.232

Table 90. Independent Samples t- test of purchase of detergent in usual shops but green products department and intention to purchase and consume detergent during the next 6 months

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means							
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	Lower	Upper
During the next 6 months I intend to purchase green detergent	.041	.839	-3.637	436	.000	-1.042	.286		-1.605	-.479
During the next 6 months I intend to consume green detergent	.024	.877	-4.057	436	.000	-1.150	.283		-1.707	-.593
During the next 6 months I intend to purchase usual detergent	.115	.734	1.684	436	.093	.441	.262		-.074	.955
During the next 6 months I intend to consume usual detergent	.434	.510	1.758	436	.080	.447	.254		-.053	.947
During the next 6 months I intend to purchase smaller amount of detergent	.000	.998	-2.357	436	.019	-.620	.263		-1.136	-.103
			-2.293	82.449	.024	-.620	.270		-1.157	-.082

During the next 6 months I intend to consume smaller amount of detergent	Equal variances assumed	.102	.749	-1.994	436	.047	-.524	.263	-1.040	-.007
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.951	82.809	.054	-.524	.268	-1.058	.010
During the next 6 months I intend to wash clothes more rarely	Equal variances assumed	.633	.427	-1.211	436	.226	-.286	.236	-.750	.178
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.163	81.691	.248	-.286	.246	-.775	.203
During the next 6 months I intend to use smaller amount of detergent every time I wash clothes	Equal variances assumed	.032	.858	-2.447	436	.015	-.608	.248	-1.096	-.119
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.387	82.623	.019	-.608	.255	-1.114	-.101
During the next 6 months I intend to use washing solutions that do not require any detergent	Equal variances assumed	1.987	.159	-.900	436	.369	-.204	.227	-.649	.241
	Equal variances not assumed			-.827	79.278	.411	-.204	.247	-.695	.287

Table 91. Intention to purchase and consume detergent during the next 6 months by the respondents who purchase detergent in usual shops

	Purchase in usual shops	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
During the next 6 months I intend to purchase green detergent	-	134	4.60	2.156	.186
	+	304	3.09	1.954	.112
During the next 6 months I intend to consume green detergent	-	134	4.74	2.052	.177
	+	304	3.17	1.966	.113
During the next 6 months I intend to purchase usual detergent	-	134	4.31	2.072	.179
	+	304	5.48	1.746	.100
During the next 6 months I intend to consume usual detergent	-	134	4.48	2.080	.180
	+	304	5.62	1.661	.095
During the next 6 months I intend to purchase smaller amount of detergent	-	134	3.55	1.886	.163
	+	304	3.25	1.961	.112
During the next 6 months I intend to consume smaller amount of detergent	-	134	3.75	1.901	.164
	+	304	3.28	1.936	.111
During the next 6 months I intend to wash clothes more rarely	-	134	2.84	1.764	.152
	+	304	2.58	1.720	.099
During the next 6 months I intend to use smaller amount of detergent every time I wash clothes	-	134	3.37	1.754	.152
	+	304	3.12	1.867	.107
During the next 6 months I intend to use washing solutions that do not require any detergent	-	134	2.60	1.860	.161
	+	304	2.21	1.558	.089

Table 92. Independent Samples t- test of purchase of detergent in usual shops and intention to purchase and consume detergent during the next 6 months

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means							
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		
								Lower	Upper	
During the next 6 months I intend to purchase green detergent	3.715	.055	7.245	436	.000	1.516	.209	1.104	1.927	
During the next 6 months I intend to consume green detergent	.462	.497	7.588	436	.000	1.568	.207	1.162	1.974	
During the next 6 months I intend to purchase usual detergent	11.108	.001	-6.077	436	.000	-1.167	.192	-1.544	-.789	
During the next 6 months I intend to consume usual detergent	17.878	.000	-6.133	436	.000	-1.144	.187	-1.511	-.777	
During the next 6 months I intend to purchase smaller amount of detergent	.725	.395	1.504	436	.133	.302	.201	-.093	.697	
			1.527	263.646	.128	.302	.198	-.088	.692	

During the next 6 months I intend to consume smaller amount of detergent	Equal variances assumed	1.095	.296	2.375	436	.018	.474	.200	.082	.866
	Equal variances not assumed			2.391	258.569	.017	.474	.198	.084	.865
During the next 6 months I intend to wash clothes more rarely	Equal variances assumed	.000	.997	1.471	436	.142	.264	.180	-.089	.618
	Equal variances not assumed			1.456	248.666	.147	.264	.181	-.093	.622
During the next 6 months I intend to use smaller amount of detergent every time I wash clothes	Equal variances assumed	1.312	.253	1.301	436	.194	.247	.190	-.126	.621
	Equal variances not assumed			1.333	269.489	.184	.247	.186	-.118	.612
During the next 6 months I intend to use washing solutions that do not require any detergent	Equal variances assumed	11.190	.001	2.276	436	.023	.391	.172	.053	.728
	Equal variances not assumed			2.125	218.773	.035	.391	.184	.028	.753

Table 93. Difference between means of various factors according to age

ANOVA						
		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Environmental consciousness	Between Groups	4.773	3	1.591	1.485	.218
	Within Groups	464.855	434	1.071		
	Total	469.628	437			
Environmental anti-consciousness	Between Groups	20.976	3	6.992	6.096	.000
	Within Groups	497.752	434	1.147		
	Total	518.728	437			
Health consciousness	Between Groups	2.756	3	.919	.801	.494
	Within Groups	497.681	434	1.147		
	Total	500.437	437			
Green purchase practices	Between Groups	9.749	3	3.250	2.124	.097
	Within Groups	664.162	434	1.530		
	Total	673.912	437			
Life simplification practices	Between Groups	53.775	3	17.925	13.810	.000
	Within Groups	563.336	434	1.298		
	Total	617.111	437			
Being socially active	Between Groups	3.356	3	1.119	.744	.526
	Within Groups	652.501	434	1.503		
	Total	655.857	437			
Limiting exposure to advertising	Between Groups	8.594	3	2.865	1.374	.250
	Within Groups	905.068	434	2.085		
	Total	913.662	437			
Environmentally consciousbehaviour	Between Groups	72.804	3	24.268	8.132	.000
	Within Groups	1295.165	434	2.984		
	Total	1367.969	437			
Influence from close people	Between Groups	37.673	3	12.558	5.308	.001
	Within Groups	1026.794	434	2.366		
	Total	1064.467	437			
Influence from advertising	Between Groups	18.560	3	6.187	2.594	.052
	Within Groups	1035.023	434	2.385		
	Total	1053.583	437			
Perceived higher price of green products	Between Groups	11.983	3	3.994	2.726	.044
	Within Groups	636.022	434	1.465		
	Total	648.005	437			
Perceived availability of green detergent	Between Groups	9.493	3	3.164	1.670	.173
	Within Groups	822.245	434	1.895		
	Total	831.738	437			
Trust in green detergent characteristics	Between Groups	24.328	3	8.109	3.999	.008
	Within Groups	880.053	434	2.028		
	Total	904.381	437			
Intention to purchase and consume green detergent	Between Groups	28.183	3	9.394	2.168	.091
	Within Groups	1881.045	434	4.334		
	Total	1909.229	437			
Intention to purchase and consume usual detergent	Between Groups	13.953	3	4.651	1.373	.251
	Within Groups	1470.714	434	3.389		
	Total	1484.667	437			
Intention to reduce detergent	Between Groups	45.116	3	15.039	6.880	.000
	Within Groups	948.607	434	2.186		
	Total	993.723	437			

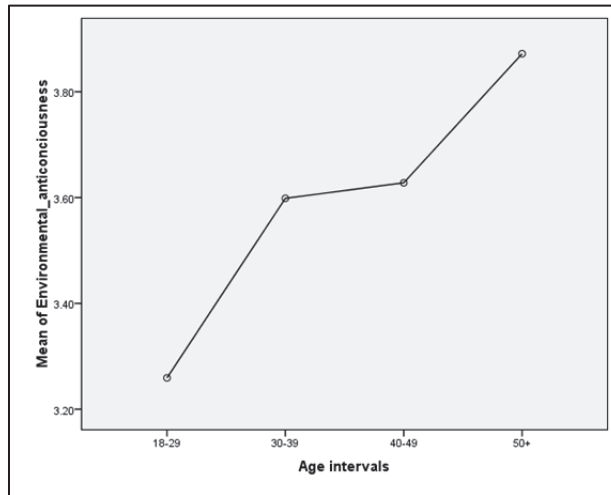


Figure 17. Distribution of environmental anti-consciousness factor means according to age

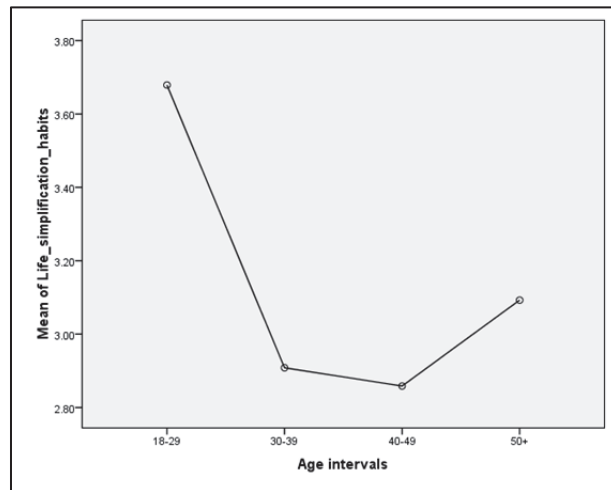


Figure 18. Distribution of life simplification factor means according to age

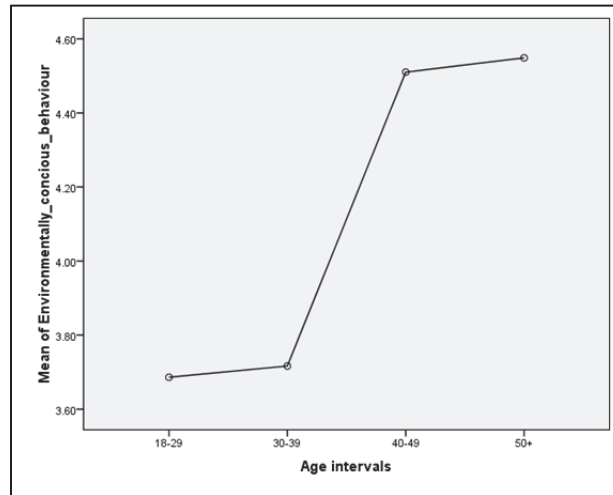


Figure 19. Distribution of environmentally conscious behaviour factor means according to age

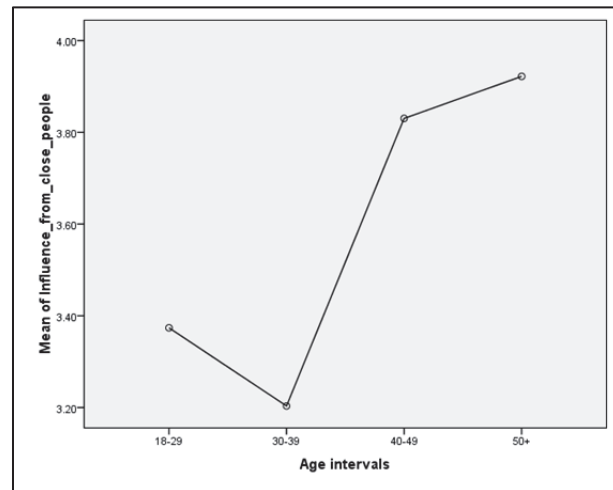


Figure 20. Distribution of influence from close people factor means according to age

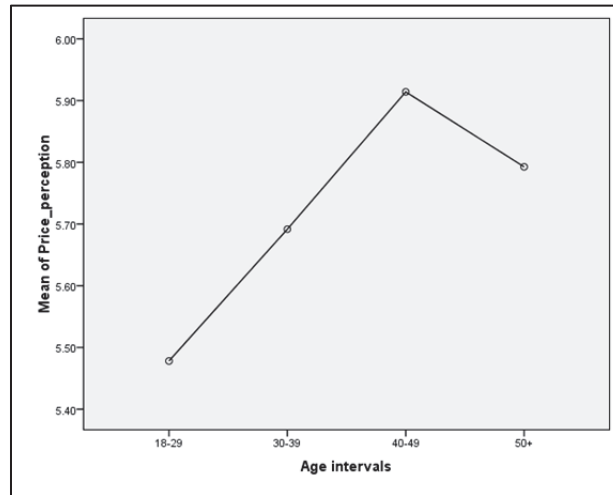


Figure 21. Distribution of perceived higher price of green products factor means according to age

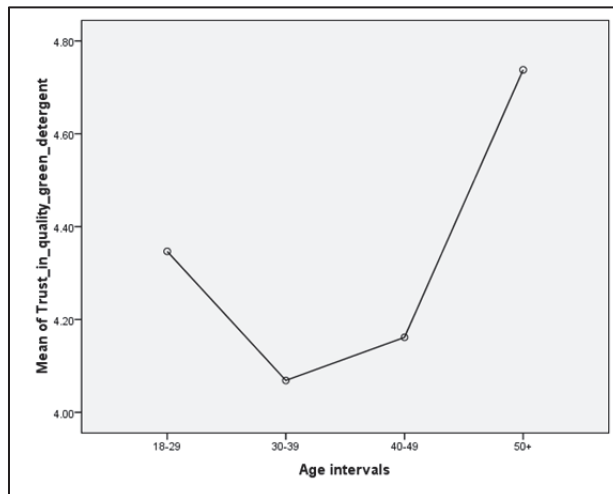


Figure 22. Distribution of trust in green detergent characteristics factor means according to age

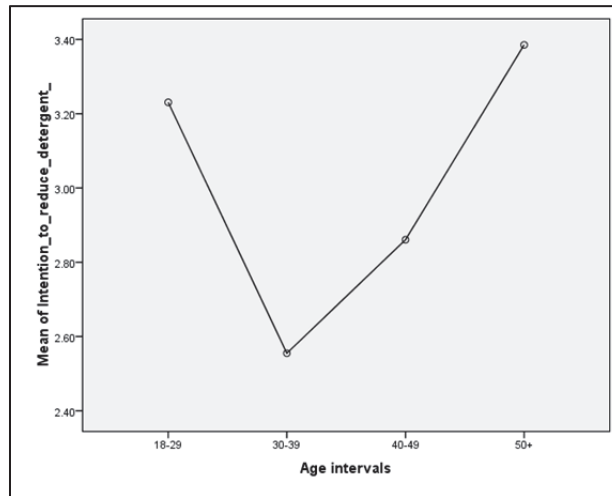


Figure 23. Distribution of intention to reduce detergent factor means according to age

Table 94. Difference between means of various factors according to gender

ANOVA						
		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Environmental consciousness	Between Groups	7.479	1	7.479	7.055	.008
	Within Groups	462.150	436	1.060		
	Total	469.628	437			
Environmental anti-consciousness	Between Groups	10.095	1	10.095	8.653	.003
	Within Groups	508.634	436	1.167		
	Total	518.728	437			
Health consciousness	Between Groups	9.294	1	9.294	8.250	.004
	Within Groups	491.143	436	1.126		
	Total	500.437	437			
Green purchase practices	Between Groups	27.594	1	27.594	18.614	.000
	Within Groups	646.318	436	1.482		
	Total	673.912	437			
Life simplification practices	Between Groups	12.024	1	12.024	8.664	.003
	Within Groups	605.087	436	1.388		
	Total	617.111	437			
Being socially active	Between Groups	.074	1	.074	.049	.825
	Within Groups	655.784	436	1.504		
	Total	655.857	437			
Limiting exposure to advertising	Between Groups	.011	1	.011	.005	.942
	Within Groups	913.651	436	2.096		
	Total	913.662	437			
Environmentally consciousbehaviour	Between Groups	11.561	1	11.561	3.716	.055
	Within Groups	1356.407	436	3.111		
	Total	1367.969	437			

Influence from close people	Between Groups	4.420	1	4.420	1.818	.178
	Within Groups	1060.047	436	2.431		
	Total	1064.467	437			
Influence from advertising	Between Groups	18.320	1	18.320	7.716	.006
	Within Groups	1035.263	436	2.374		
	Total	1053.583	437			
Perceived higher price of green products	Between Groups	.047	1	.047	.032	.858
	Within Groups	647.957	436	1.486		
	Total	648.005	437			
Perceived availability of green detergent	Between Groups	20.161	1	20.161	10.831	.001
	Within Groups	811.576	436	1.861		
	Total	831.738	437			
Trust in green detergent characteristics	Between Groups	7.491	1	7.491	3.642	.057
	Within Groups	896.890	436	2.057		
	Total	904.381	437			
Intention to purchase and consume green detergent	Between Groups	11.113	1	11.113	2.553	.111
	Within Groups	1898.115	436	4.353		
	Total	1909.229	437			
Intention to purchase and consume usual detergent	Between Groups	2.671	1	2.671	.786	.376
	Within Groups	1481.997	436	3.399		
	Total	1484.667	437			
Intention to reduce detergent	Between Groups	.001	1	.001	.001	.981
	Within Groups	993.722	436	2.279		
	Total	993.723	437			

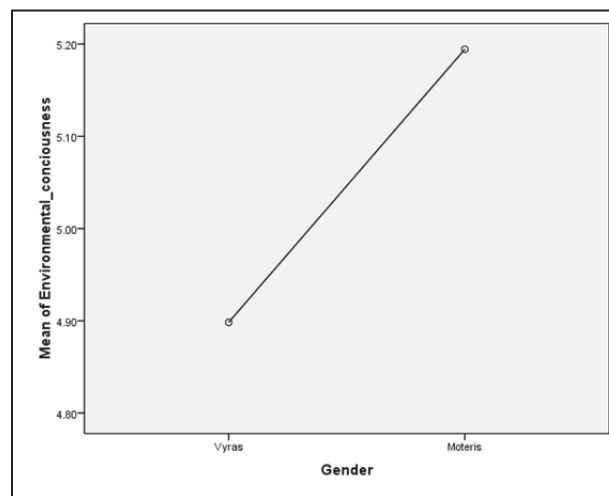


Figure 24. Distribution of environmental consciousness factor means according to age

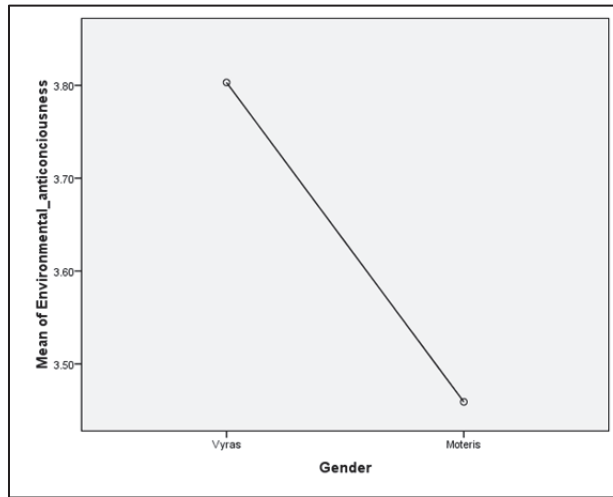


Figure 25. Distribution of environmental anti-consciousness factor means according to age

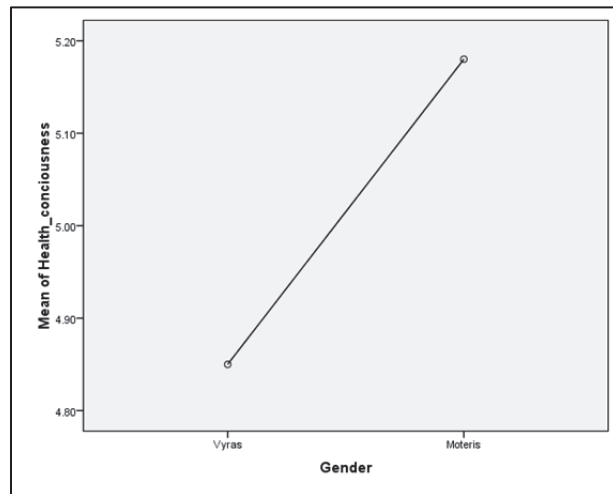


Figure 26. Distribution of health consciousness factor means according to age

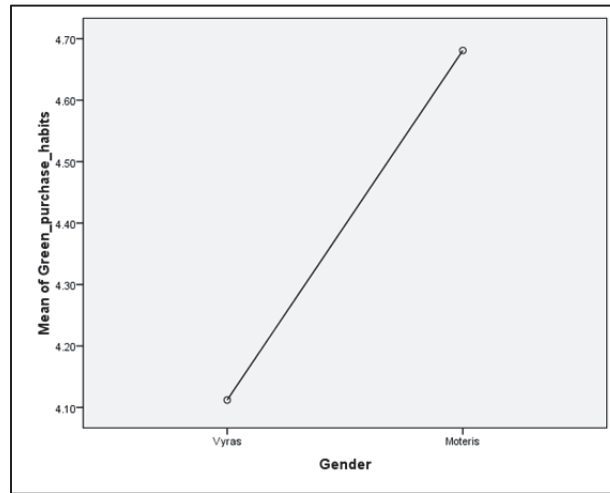


Figure 27. Distribution of green purchase practices factor means according to age

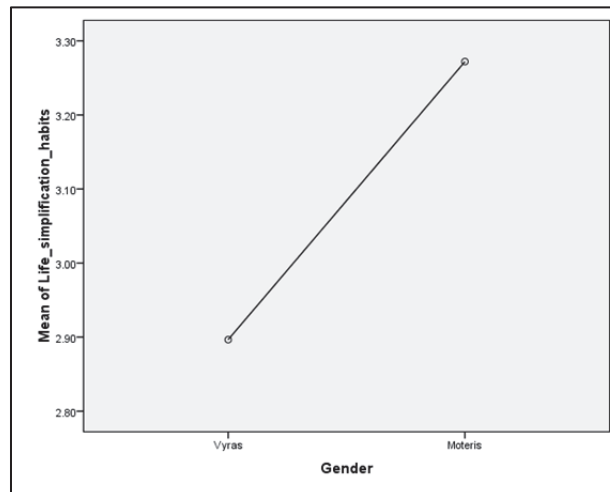


Figure 28. Distribution of life simplification practices factor means according to age

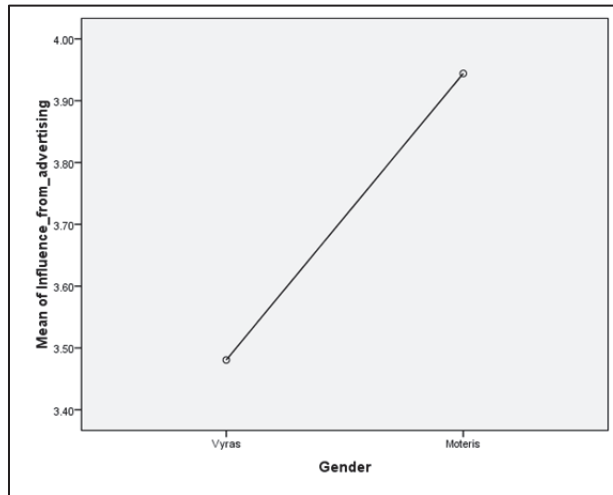


Figure 29. Distribution of influence of advertising factor means according to age

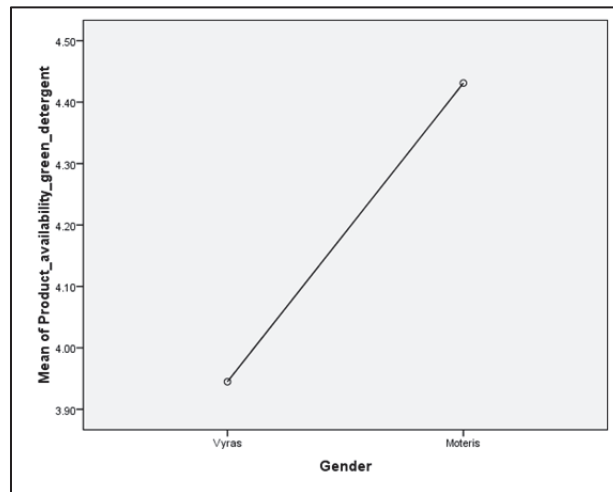


Figure 30. Distribution of perceived green product availability factor means according to age

Table 95. Difference between means of various factors according to education

ANOVA						
		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Environmental consciousness	Between Groups	2.928	5	.586	.542	.744
	Within Groups	466.700	432	1.080		
	Total	469.628	437			
Environmental anti-consciousness	Between Groups	8.797	5	1.759	1.491	.192
	Within Groups	509.931	432	1.180		
	Total	518.728	437			
Health consciousness	Between Groups	2.551	5	.510	.443	.819
	Within Groups	497.885	432	1.153		
	Total	500.437	437			
Green purchase practices	Between Groups	12.033	5	2.407	1.571	.167
	Within Groups	661.879	432	1.532		
	Total	673.912	437			
Life simplification practices	Between Groups	13.078	5	2.616	1.871	.098
	Within Groups	604.034	432	1.398		
	Total	617.111	437			
Being socially active	Between Groups	8.246	5	1.649	1.100	.360
	Within Groups	647.612	432	1.499		
	Total	655.857	437			
Limiting exposure to advertising	Between Groups	9.575	5	1.915	.915	.471
	Within Groups	904.087	432	2.093		
	Total	913.662	437			
Environmentally consciousbehaviour	Between Groups	11.227	5	2.245	.715	.612
	Within Groups	1356.742	432	3.141		
	Total	1367.969	437			
Influence from close people	Between Groups	7.137	5	1.427	.583	.713
	Within Groups	1057.329	432	2.448		
	Total	1064.467	437			
Influence from advertising	Between Groups	6.335	5	1.267	.523	.759
	Within Groups	1047.248	432	2.424		
	Total	1053.583	437			
Perceived higher price of green products	Between Groups	14.664	5	2.933	2.000	.077
	Within Groups	633.341	432	1.466		
	Total	648.005	437			
Perceived availability of green detergent	Between Groups	20.619	5	4.124	2.196	.054
	Within Groups	811.118	432	1.878		
	Total	831.738	437			
Trust in green detergent characteristics	Between Groups	1.121	5	.224	.107	.991
	Within Groups	903.260	432	2.091		
	Total	904.381	437			
Intention to purchase and consume green detergent	Between Groups	23.571	5	4.714	1.080	.371
	Within Groups	1885.658	432	4.365		
	Total	1909.229	437			
Intention to purchase and consume usual detergent	Between Groups	26.842	5	5.368	1.591	.161
	Within Groups	1457.826	432	3.375		
	Total	1484.667	437			
Intention to reduce detergent	Between Groups	20.909	5	4.182	1.857	.101
	Within Groups	972.815	432	2.252		
	Total	993.723	437			

Table 96. Difference between means of various factors according income

ANOVA						
		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Environmental consciousness	Between Groups	3.015	4	.754	.700	.593
	Within Groups	466.613	433	1.078		
	Total	469.628	437			
Environmental anti-consciousness	Between Groups	3.049	4	.762	.640	.634
	Within Groups	515.679	433	1.191		
	Total	518.728	437			
Health consciousness	Between Groups	6.255	4	1.564	1.370	.243
	Within Groups	494.182	433	1.141		
	Total	500.437	437			
Green purchase practices	Between Groups	1.569	4	.392	.253	.908
	Within Groups	672.343	433	1.553		
	Total	673.912	437			
Life simplification practices	Between Groups	9.280	4	2.320	1.653	.160
	Within Groups	607.831	433	1.404		
	Total	617.111	437			
Being socially active	Between Groups	12.003	4	3.001	2.018	.091
	Within Groups	643.854	433	1.487		
	Total	655.857	437			
Limiting exposure to advertising	Between Groups	14.957	4	3.739	1.802	.127
	Within Groups	898.705	433	2.076		
	Total	913.662	437			
Environmentally conscious behaviour	Between Groups	31.327	4	7.832	2.537	.040
	Within Groups	1336.641	433	3.087		
	Total	1367.969	437			
Influence from close people	Between Groups	3.905	4	.976	.399	.810
	Within Groups	1060.562	433	2.449		
	Total	1064.467	437			
Influence from advertising	Between Groups	20.447	4	5.112	2.142	.075
	Within Groups	1033.136	433	2.386		
	Total	1053.583	437			
Perceived higher price of green products	Between Groups	15.731	4	3.933	2.693	.031
	Within Groups	632.273	433	1.460		
	Total	648.005	437			
Perceived availability of green detergent	Between Groups	8.297	4	2.074	1.091	.361
	Within Groups	823.440	433	1.902		
	Total	831.738	437			
Trust in green detergent characteristics	Between Groups	6.278	4	1.569	.757	.554
	Within Groups	898.103	433	2.074		
	Total	904.381	437			
Intention to purchase and consume green detergent	Between Groups	19.045	4	4.761	1.091	.361
	Within Groups	1890.184	433	4.365		
	Total	1909.229	437			
Intention to purchase and consume usual detergent	Between Groups	11.760	4	2.940	.864	.485
	Within Groups	1472.908	433	3.402		
	Total	1484.667	437			
Intention to reduce detergent	Between Groups	.801	4	.200	.087	.986
	Within Groups	992.923	433	2.293		
	Total	993.723	437			

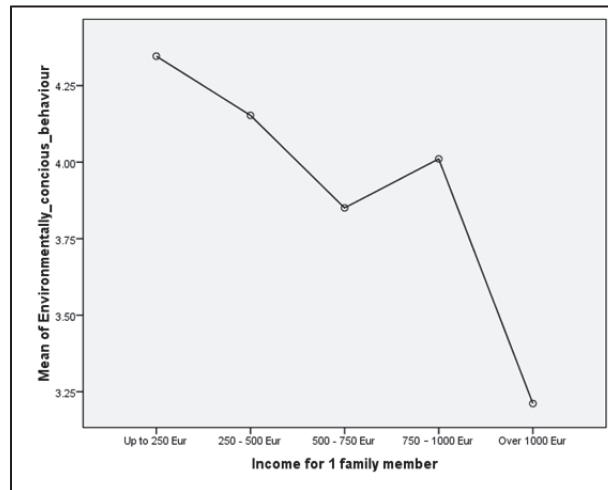


Figure 31. Distribution of environmentally conscious behaviour factor means according to income

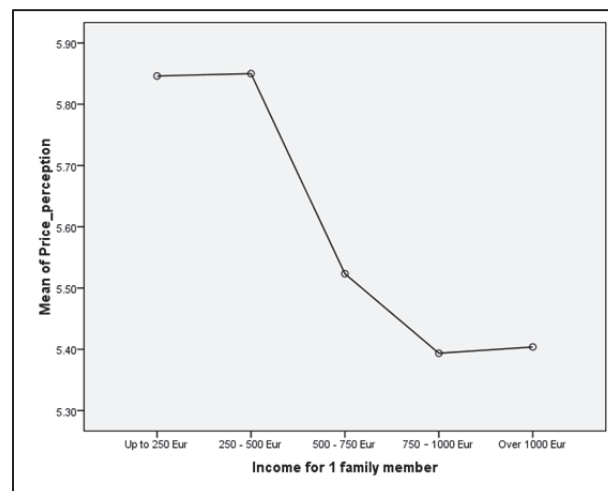


Figure 32. Distribution of perceived higher price of green products factor means according to income