SOUTH ASIAN JOURNAL OF MANAGEMENT RESEARCH

(SAJMR)

Volume 2 Number 2

July 2010

armost swifting

Parima are Maria

- Andrew Spring and the

Continue to the contract of the terms of the

PROPERTY S

Contents

Editorial

- Foreign Direct Investment Inflow and Socio Economic
 Development: A Review of Theoretical and Empirical Evidence
 Muhammad Tahir Mahmood, Muhammad Iqbal Saif and Abdul Rashid Malik
- Shareholder Wealth Gains in Corporate Merger Announcements in India
 R. L. Hyderabad
- Attitudes of Green Consumers Towards Environment-Friendly
 Apparels and Food Products: A Comparative Analysis Between
 South Asia and UK
- Mohammed Shahedul Quader

 Emotional Intelligence An Effective Intervention for Enhancing 116
- Employee Well-Being
 R. Krishnaveni and R. Deepa
- An Analytical Study on Measurement of Risk and Volatility in Equity 127

 Market

 B. Mohanty

Book Reviews

- Organizational Behaviour : Concepts Skills and Practices
 K. Pradeep Kumar
- Relevance Regained: From Top-Down Control to Bottom-Up 138
 Empowerment
 Prof. V.P. Wadkar



Chh. Shahu Institute of Business Education and Research (SIBER)

(An Autonomous Institute)

Kolhapur - 416 004, Maharashtra State, INDIA

SOUTH ASIAN JOURNAL OF MANAGEMENT RESEARCH

=(SAJMR)

ISSN 0974-763X (An International Peer Reviewed Research Journal)

Published by



Chh. Shahu Institute of Business Education & Research (SIBER) University Road, Kolhapur - 416 004, Maharashtra, India

A transfilled biggs and a research to be required as

Contact: 91-231-2535706 / 07 Fax: 91-231-2535708 Website: www.siberindia.co.in, Email: sajmr@siberindia.co.in

Patron

Late Dr. A.D. Shinde

Editor

Dr. Babu Thomas SIBER, Kolhapur, India

Editorial Board

Dr. Francisco J.L.S. Diniz CETRAD, Portugal

Dr. R.V. Kulkarni SIBER, Kolhapur, India

Dr. R.A. Shinde SIBER, Kolhapur, India and The Control of the Cont

Dr. Paul B. Carr Regent University, USA

Dr. M.M. Ali SIBER, Kolhapur, India

Dr. Lal Das RSSW, Hyderabad, India

Dr. M. Nand Kumar Goa University, Goa, India Carolina even and a second

Dr. Babu Zachariah SIBER, Kolhapur, India

Dr. Gary Owens

Dr. K. Pradeepkumar SIBER, Kolhapur, India

Dr. R.M. Bhajracharya Kathmandu University, Nepal

Dr. P.R. Puranik NMU, Jalgaon, India

Prof. K.R.R. Mahanama Colombo University, Sri Lanka

Dr. Yogesh B. Patil SIBER, Kolhapur, India

Dr. Rajendra Naragundkar IFIM, Bangalore, India

Dr. K.V.M. Varambally Manipal Institute of Management, India

Dr. R.L. Hyderabad Karnataka University, India

Dr. B.U. Dhandra Gulbarga University, India

Editorial Note

Humor has a unique place in literature, particularly in English literature. Mark Twain, a great Humorist, stated that humor is a great thing, the saving thing, the minutes it crops up, all our irritations and resentments slip away and a sunny spirit it takes their place. Humor is the tendency of particular cognitive experience to provoke laughter. Humor is a broad term that refers to anything that people say or do that is perceived as funny and tends to make others laugh, as well as the mental processes that go into both creating and perceiving such as an imusal stimulus and also the affective response involved in the enjoyment of it stated by Rob H. Martain in his book Psychology of Humor.

The etymology of humor began as a Latin word humors means fluids or liquids. It has a medical connotation. Bharata Muni's Natya Shatra contains humor as one of the nine Navarasa in which it is known as 'Hasya'.

Whether we can use humor effectively in day today activities of the Management? The business cartoon caricatured by Scot Adams appeared in the name of Dilbert induces laughter at worker place. Some of his quotations are worth remembering. They are I can only please one person per day. Today is not your day. Tomorrow is not looking either good. Change is good but you go first. Another business cartoon worth remembering is Mario Mirands business cartoons.

Defiantly, humor has a place in practicing management. Humor has become a recognized asset in the work place. It facilitates communication, builds relationship, reduce stress and induces creativity.

Humor at a workplace is often associated with stress. Stressful employee cannot perform effectively. Humor is greatest stress reliever. Godbrey in the Journal of Women's Health Stated that, "Humor is potentially effective means of coping with the anger. Further he stated that, "One must be careful with its use". Sarcastic or hostile humor can incite additional anger.

A sense of humor is apparent among creative people. Research reflects that creativity and humor is associated with each other. Creative people display interest in humor and also capacity in producing original humor thought. Getzeles and Jackson stated that when ranking a series of desirable traits creative students placed a sense of humor second, whereas of the same intelligence but less creativity ranked it lowest among all the desirable traits. When both groups drew pictures of various themes, over half of the creative students made drawings judged as humorous, and their essay showed the same tendency.

Dr. Babu Thomas Editor

Attitudes of Green Consumers Towards Environment-Friendly Apparels and Food Products: A Comparative Analysis Between South Asia and UK

Mohammed Shahedul Quader

Department of Marketing Studies and International Marketing,
Faculty of Business Administration, University of Chittagong, Chittagong, BANGLADESH
E-mail: msq777ctg@gmail.com

Abstract:

An important challenge facing marketers today is to identify the attitudes of green consumers. The surging growth of the green consumer, which is reflected in the increased consumption of organic food and clothing, has created a whole new level of understanding in the respective industry. It has been identified that the market for ethical clothes in the UK rose by 79% to £52m whilst spending for organic products have increased by 18% (Corporate Bank consumer Report 2007). The objective of this study is to correctly profile the green consumer, as identifying these consumers would help marketers in taking the necessary strategies in order to capture this segment. Besides identifying the green consumer, further research has been carried out in order to examine whether there are differences or similarities in consumer buying behaviour caused by different geographical locations (South Asia and UK). The purpose of this research is to correctly profile the green consumers from the non-green consumers and to study their underlying attitudes and behaviour towards organic foods and clothing. Values, environmental knowledge, behaviour and attitudes are used as variables in separating both types of respondents. Again, price, design and organic materials have been used as variables in determining consumers' attitudes towards organic clothing and health, contents, price and organic have been used as variables in determining consumers attitudes towards organic food products.

Keywords: Attitudes, Consumers, Environmental Friendly Products, Green

1. Introduction

Concern for the environment has increased significantly during the past few decades and as a result people's values and attitudes towards nature have changed substantially. Throughout the 1980s it was thought that the only way to solve the world environmental problems was to cut down on consumption but the green consumption issue was not at the forefront of marketers concern. However, in recent years, consumer began to seek environmentally friendly alternatives in preferences to their usual product purchase (Schlegelmilch, 1994), thus the green movement was born. A recent consumer survey conducted by Mintel (2008) in the UK revealed that half of its respondents are worried about the current state of the environment and hence are willing to make sacrifices such as convenience, or costs for better environmental condition. A recent report also shows that consumer interest in the environment and the impact of the brands they buy may be the highest in the UK compared to any other international market (Mintel, 2008) while adding that 61% of the British now consider ethical issues when shopping, according to survey of Co-operative Bank Consumer Report (2008). Two such sectors that have gone green and ethical nowadays are the apparel and food industries.

Organic clothing, once categorised as being fashionably tasteless is now hailed as being fashionably chic, even green is now coined as the new black. Fashion, which has always been viewed as an industry that promotes the use of fur, materials made of processed fabrics and only concerned with looking good, has now changed. The global organic cotton apparels, home and personal care products market topped US\$ 1 billion in 2007, with estimates projecting a doubling of that amount by the end of 2010 (Organic Exchange, 2007). An additional finding also shows that the market for ethical clothes in the UK rose by 79% to £52m during 2007 (See Table-1.1) (Co-operative Bank's Consumers Report, 2007). The increase in consumption is quite astounding as eco friendly clothes are always priced at a higher level due to its higher production process. This finding

provides as evidence supporting the growth of ecological favourable consumer behaviour.

Table 1.1: Ethical Personal Products

	Spend (2006)	Spend (2007)	% growth (2006-2007)
Ethical Personal Products	a a		
Ethical clothing	£29m	£52m	79%
Ethical cosmetics	£317m	£386m	22%
Charity shops	£411m	£359m	-13%
Buying for re-use-clothing	£421m	£360m	-14%
Clothing boycotts	£281m	£338m	20%
Real nappies	£5m	£7m	40%
Total	£1,464m	£1,502m	3%

Source: Co-operative Bank's Consumers Report, 2007

This upward trend in the consumption of organic apparels has fuelled more fashion goods companies going into green. High street labels such as H&M and Topshop have embraced this trend by using organic cotton in their collection. Marks & Spencer is also embracing this change by going ahead full speed to change the way they work, with their aim to be carbon neutral by 2012. Meanwhile, the organic food industry has been on the rise as well with annual sales of organic foods and drinks in the UK hitting £2 bn in the year 2008 (Mintel 2008). Soil Association Organic Market Report sales were up by 22% compared

to the previous year. The increased spending on organic products has made the UK the third largest organic foods market in Europe behind Germany and Italy (BBC, 2007). Moreover, data from the Cooperative Bank's Consumer Report (2007) shows that spending for organic product has increased by 18% in 2007. Although the demand is increasing the supply of home-grown organic food is not growing fast enough to meet this demand. This has resulted in more farmers converting to organic. In January, 2008, there were 4,639 organic producers in the UK, representing an annual increase of 7% from previous year (Mintel, 2008).

Table 1.2: Organic Food

Ethical Food & Drink	Spend (2006)	Spend (2007)	% growth (2006-2007)
Organic	£1,473m	£1,737m	18%
Fair-trade	£195m	£285m	46%
Free-range eggs	£240m	£259m	8% 16% 7% 4% 6% 224%
Free-range poultry	£100m	£116m	
Farmers' markets	£210m	£225m	
Vegetarian products	£639m	£664m	
Freedom-Food	£16m	£17m	
Sustainable fish	£17m	£55m	
Dolphin friendly tuna	£218m	£223m	2%
Food & drink boycotts	£993m	£1,214m	22%
Sub-total	£4,101m	£4,795m	17%

Source: Co operative Bank's Consumers Report, 2007

1.1. Justification of the Study With the surge in green consumption it is vital that marketers first segment the market according to the levels of environmental purchase and target the green consumer segment (Schlegelmilch, 1994). Therefore, profiling the green consumer is a vital step that companies must undertake in order to be market leaders in their prospective industry. Research has shown contradictory findings on environmentally conscious behaviour. For example, knowledge is recognised as one main characteristic that influences all phases in the decision process (Alba and Hutchinson, 1987) therefore consumers' decisions are driven by the knowledge that they possess when purchasing a product. Past study however, conducted by Maloney and Ward (1973) shows that the correlation between consumer ecological knowledge and ecologically favourable behaviour does not exist. This finding contradicts a recent study (Chan, 1999) where correlation between knowledge and behaviour does exist. The differences in this finding show that there is not one set of actions that could determine consumer behaviour pattern when purchasing environmentally friendly products; many factors should be taken into account. Therefore, in order to gain a better understanding, further research needs to be carried out to examine the profile of the green consumers and various factors affecting their buying decisions, motives and attitudes towards environmentally friendly products.

1.2. Research Objectives

Thus the research objectives in this study:

- Provide a comprehensive background on the profile of the environmentally friendly consumers.
- To get a more comprehensive background on the buying behaviour, motives and attitudes of the consumer in the developed and developing countries on environmentally friendly products.
- ☐ To compare the differences and/or the similarities between consumers' buying behaviour in the UK and South Asian countries (India, Pakistan, Bangladesh and Sri Lanka) and provide a comprehensive and detailed analysis.
- ☐ To reveal the similarities and the differences in the environmentally friendly and non-environmentally friendly consumers' attitudes and behaviour towards green clothing and organic food products.

2. Literature Review and Hypotheses Development

2.1. Environmentally Friendly Consumers Over the last 20 years there have been many attempts to classify the environmentally conscious consumers. According to Webster (1974) the socially conscious consumer can be defined as a consumer who takes into account the public consequences of his or her private consumption or who attempts to use his or her purchasing power to bring about social change. Thus consumers who consider the environment to be important will therefore evaluate the environmental consequences associated with the purchase of a product (Follows and Jobber, 2000). Some of the earliest studies related to the profile of the green consumers can be traced back to the early 1970s. Most of these studies have tried to measure the green consumers based on their demographic categories such as sex, age, education and social class. Overall the combined results (Berkowitz and Lutterman 1968; Laroche et al. 2001) of their studies have profiled the green consumers as female, premiddle aged, with a high level of education (i.e. at least high school graduate) and have above average socioeconomic status. However, Schlegelmilch (1994) argued that there is very little value in the use of socio-demographics characteristics for profiling the environmentally conscious consumer, as weak relationship was uncovered. As an alternative, researchers have tried to measure the green consumers based on other construct namely personality. A majority of the researchers have agreed that personality variables such as knowledge, values, behaviour and attitudes have been found to have higher linkages in explaining ecologically favourable behaviour (Banerjee and Mckeage, 1994; Chan 1999; Laroche et al. 2001; Webster, 1975).

Over the last five years, researchers investigating environmental responsibility have been interested in combining aspects of the Theory of Reasoned Action (Ajzen and Fishbein, 1980; Fishbein and Ajzen, 1975) with personal values. A hierarchy of valuesattitudes-intention-behaviours has served, as the conceptual framework for a number of

studies (Ajzen and Fishbein; 1980; Follows and Jobber, 2000) and as such is used in this study as well. Finally the vast majority of relevant literature on the green consumer profile is American (Schlegelmilch, 1994) with European or Asian academic research to be limited. In this context, broadening the study into different geographical locations (European and Asian) can provide valuable insight into profiling the green consumers. Furthermore cultural differences and certain country specific factors such as availability of green product and government regulations could shape different consumption patterns of consumers located in different part of the world (Batt and Giblett, 1999; Solomon and Askegaard, 2004) and thus affecting different values and attitudes of the green consumers.

2.1.1. Values

Values can be defined as beliefs about some desirable end state that transcends specific situations and guides selection of behaviours (Solomon and Askegaard, 2004). Value is one of the physiological factors that have been known to exert major influence on consumer purchasing behaviour. The reasoning is that many products and services are purchased because they are believed to help the individual in attaining a value-related goal. Two such values that highly influence consumer behaviour according to Triandis (1993) are individualism and collectivism. The distinction between individualistic and collectivist societies is crucial to the crosscultural understanding of consumer behaviour (Maheswaran and Shavitt, 2000). Individualism denotes to the degree, to which people learn to act as individuals rather than as members of the group (Hofstede, 1996) hence they tend to seek fulfilment of their own goal over the group's. People in individualistic societies tend to be more self-centered, selfenhanced and less concerned with the need of the others. They tend to consider the individual self as the basic unit and a source of life identify, purpose and goals (Hofstede, 1996). On the other hand, those in the collectivist cultures value their group membership, respect group processes and decisions, and expect other in-group members to look after or protect them in case of needs or crisis (Hofstede, 1996). For them, keeping good and harmonious relationships inside their in-group is a priority; and avoiding loss of face is important (Aaron and Wong 1995; Wandel and Bugge, 1997). According to Triandis (1993), the dimension of the individualism-collectivism has received most attention in terms of accounting for social behaviour, including environmental behaviour. Past study by McCarty and Shrum (1994) based on profile of the green consumers has shown that collectivist people tend to be friendlier to the environment, while individualistic people tend to be more unfriendly. On the basis of the previous studies, the following hypothesises have been considered.

H1: The more collectivist a person the more likely it is that he will behave in an environmentally friendly way.

H2: The more individualist a person the less likely it is that he will behave in an environmentally friendly way.

2.1.2. Knowledge

Knowledge is recognised in consumer research as a characteristic that influences all phases in the decision process (Laroche et al. 2001). McCarthy and Schrum (1994) in an attempt to better understand the environmentally friendly respondent, advocate the importance of determining the green consumers' knowledge towards the environment. Thus the relationship between knowledge and the environmentally friendly respondents is emphasised whereby researchers have asserted that an individual ecological behaviour is highly dependent on his or her knowledge towards the environment (Chan and Yam, 1995). Knowledge towards the environment has been measured by eco-literacy (Laroche et al. 2001). Eco-literacy measures the respondent's ability to identify or define a number of ecologically related symbols, concepts and understanding. Earlier studies have shown contradictory findings on consumers' environmental knowledge and their environmentally friendly behaviour. Chan (1999) and Dispoto (1977) have found positive association between environmental knowledge and environmentally friendly behaviour. However, a number of studies (Maloney and Ward: 1973; Schan and Holzer; 1990) have shown that ecological knowledge exerts no significant direction towards ecologically favourable behaviour. Such mixed findings may suggest further research to uncover the relationship between eco-literacy and environmentally friendly behaviour. Considering the above statements following hypothesis has been considered.

H3: The more eco-literate a person is the more likely it is that he will behave in an environmentally friendly way.

2.1.3. Attitudes

The three most studied attitudes in the ecological literature, with respect to environmentally friendly behaviour, are importance, convenience (Laroche et al. 2001) and severity of environmental problem (Banerjee and Mckeage, 1994). The predominant variables used to explain environmental responsibility has been environmental concern and severity of environmental problem (Hines et al. 1987). The severity of the environmental problem relates to the attitude and beliefts that consumers have towards the environment. According to Banerjee and McKeage (1994), green consumers strongly believe that current environmental conditions are deteriorating and represent serious problems facing the security of the world. Conversely the nonenvironmentally friendly consumers are more likely to believe that ecological problem will "resolve themselves" (Laroche et al. 2001).

Schegelmilch (1994) has defined perceived importance, with respect to the environment, as the degree to which one expresses concern about ecological issues. In other words, importance is simply whether consumers view environmentally compatible behaviours as important to themselves or society as a whole. A Study done by Laroche et al. (2001) reveals that environmentally friendly consumers perceive the importance of behaving in an ecologically favourable manner. One explanation for this range of behaviour may be the negative consequences of nonenvironmentally responsible behaviour that would affect an individual's personal satisfaction. For example, the environmental consequences of using non-recyclable

materials are the increased amount of raw materials and garbage generated which in the end will result in unfavourable personal pleasure (Follows and Jobber, 2000). The level of convenience on the other hand refers to how convenient it is perceived for the individual to behave in an ecologically favourable fashion. Measures of perceived inconvenience or personal effort have been included in studies investigating recycling behaviour. An increase in perceived personal effort was found to directly reduce the intent to recycle (Dahab et al. 1995) and recycling behaviour (McCarty and Shrum, 1994; Thogersen and Grunert-Beckmann, 1997). Findings from past research have concluded that the level of convenience towards the environment for environmentally friendly respondent is much more positive compared to the non-environmentally friendly respondent (McCarthy and Schrum; 1994; Laroche et al. 2001). On the basis of above literature the following hypothesis is expected. H4: The more strongly a consumer feels about the severity, convenience and importance of environmental issue the more it is likely that he will behave in an environmentally friendly way.

2.1.4. Behaviour

The relationship between behaviour and attitude has been one of the most studied models in profiling the green consumers (Balderjahn, 1988; Follows and Jobber, 2000; Loroche et al. 2001; Suchard and Polonski, 1991). Attitude toward the behaviour refers to the degree to which a person has a favourable or unfavourable evaluation or appraisal of the behaviour in question (Azjen, 1991). Thus arguing that the more favourable the attitude with respect to the behaviour; the stronger is the individual's intention to perform the behaviour under consideration (Azjen, 1991). Suchard and Polonski (1991) stipulate that behaviour of the ecologically conscious consumers will be reflected in the different ways they try to protect the environment by such effort as recycling, checking that a package is made of recycled material and purchasing only green products. Balderjahn (1988) developed a causal model to predict environmentally responsible purchase behaviour, measured by three indicators which are: buy less packaged products, use

returnables, and use fewer detergents. His research reveals that there was no significant relationship between positive attitude towards pollution and purchase behaviour, but was able to find a weak positive relationship between attitude toward ecologically conscious living and behaviour (Follows and Jobber, 2000). A possible explanation for the low correlation between attitude and behaviour is the omission of intentions. According to the Theory of Reasoned Action the performance of a specific behaviour is determined by the intention to perform the behaviour (Azjen and Fishbein, 1980). The role of intentions in the attitudebehaviour relation is dependent upon the level of the effort needed to perform the behaviour (Bagozzi et al. 1990) thus the higher the effort, the less likely is the individual to behave in an ecologically favourable behaviour. Past findings hence indicate that having a positive attitude towards the environment does not necessarily result in higher ecologically favourable behaviour, nevertheless a positive but weak relationship does exists (Balderjahn, 1988; Diamontopoulous et al. 1994; Suchard and Polonski, 1999). Following the previous study we are in a position to assume that: H5: The more ecologically favourable behaviour an individual possesses, the more likely it is that he will behave in an

environmentally friendly way.

2.2. Environmentally Friendly Products

2.2.1. Environmentally Friendly Clothes

Like all conventional products, green products deliver benefits and costs to their customers. Most conventional marketing theories (Bradley, 1995; Kotler, 1997) assume that the customers try to maximise their benefits and seek to minimise cost. Following this economic approach, green products are brought only if their cost-benefit balance shows better performance in the eyes of the customers than the equivalent balance of conventional products (Meyer, 2001). In terms of cost and benefit of green clothing the most important criteria are appearance, functionality and price (Meyer, 2001). The most important cost for any type of products is price. However, unlike conventional clothing, the costs incurred in green clothing are much higher due to its more complicated production process. The way the material is produced, preference to use natural instead of heavy metal dyes are one such cause that results in the increased production cost hence ending in a higher retail price. Beside the tangible costs, there exist some intangible costs associated with green clothes such as higher search costs (Meyer, 2001) due to the products low availability.

Like conventional clothing, the benefits of green clothes are appearance and functionality that these clothes provide to the consumer. Design of the clothes is an important factor that contributes to the overall appearance of the wearer and a major influence in consumer purchase decision (BBC, 2007). However, according to Meyer (2001), most consumers neither directly nor indirectly perceive environmentally friendly clothes with high design aesthetics. One of the major reasons for this is that most consumers still perceive green clothes as boring, colourless and lack design quality (Joergens, 2006). Furthermore when it comes to organic materials, consumers are sometimes sceptical with the product credibility as, like all green products, the environmental advantages are hidden from customers (Frai and Martinez, 2006; Meyer, 2001). As a result, Meyer (2001) argued that green products will remain niche phenomena for pure green consumers as long as they only appeal to the consumer's environmental awareness and do not provide other benefits. Therefore it is clear that in order for organic clothes to compete with conventional clothes and appeal to the masses it is crucial that excluding the environmental benefits of these clothes must outweigh the costs. On the basis of above literature we are in a position to expect that:

H6: The more the benefit (design, material) that is associated with organic clothes; the more it is likely that the respondents will purchase the clothes.

H7: The higher the cost (price) associated with organic clothes; the less likely it is that the respondents will purchase the clothes.

2.2.2. Organic Food

Organic food is the product of organic farming. Organic farming as described in the EU entails

significant restrictions on the use of fertilisers and pesticides, which may have detrimental effects on the environment or result in the presence of residues in agriculture, produce (Roddy et al. 1994). The socio-demographic factor that distinguishes the organic food consumers from the non-organic food consumers according to the past literature lies on their age, sex and income (Skapinkar, 2005). A higher number of women than men hold more positive attitudes towards organic foods and are purchasers of organic foods (Lockie et al. 2002; Wandel and Bugge, 1997). This may be partly due to women's greater concern with health and their concern and responsibility for feeding children and family members (Lockie et al. 2002). Furthermore the proportion of people consuming organic food has been found to rise with income (Lockie et at. 2002; Torjusen et al. 2001). As with conventional foods, there exist certain costs and benefits that are linked to organic food. Health, contents and environmental benefits have been found to be important considerations in the choice of organic foods by consumers, whereas price and availability have been found to be the barriers (Lockie et al. 2002; Wandel and Bugge 1997).

Health is the most important platform driving the purchase of organic food as health benefits were perceived as an important attribute of organic foods (Mintel, 2008). This belief might correlate to findings of Davis et al. (1995) that consumers' perception towards organic foods is that the produce is healthy. Moreover health and the natural content of foods have been found to be pivotal in the food choices of organic consumers (Chinnici et al. 2002; Lockie et al. 2002; Pearson, 2002). Although consumer belief is that organic food is healthy, organic food is not necessarily always free of pesticide residues (Soil Association, 2008), as it is clarified that residues for organic food exist but are likely to be lower than that of conventionally grown foods (Soil Association, 2008). The highest barrier towards purchasing organic foods is the cost of the foods and the availability of the products (Batt and Giblett, 1999). Mintel (2008) report reveals that the average retail price of organic foods in the UK has increased by 60-70% compared to the ordinary equivalents. Its higher production

costs bring about high retail price for organic foods. Crops grown organically are more vulnerable to pests and disease therefore requiring higher maintenance. Additionally it is also more labour intensive and farmers pay more for organic animal feed. Besides price, the availability of organic foods is another restrictive factor in purchasing organic foods. However, the availability of organic food does appear to have increased in the UK. For example more supermarket chains in the UK such as Marks & Spencer and Tesco have carried more organic foods and currently carry its own organic lines (Mintel, 2008). Besides the demographic consumer, when it comes to environmental beliefs, a study by Worsley and Skrzypiec (2005) reveals that personal values related to nature and environment were found to positively predict pro-organic food beliefs. Worsley and Skrzypiec (2005) also argued that more environmentally conscious consumers are seen proven to be the majority of buyers of organic products. Following assumptions can be drawn on the basis of above literature.

H8: The more benefits (health, contents) that are associated with the organic food; the more likely it is that therespondents will purchase the food.

H9: The higher the costs (price) that are associated with the organic food; the less likely it is that the respondents will purchase the food. H10: The more associated the food is as an organic produce; the more likely it is that the respondents will purchase the food.

3. Methodology

3.1. Research Approach

In this research, method of triangulation will be used in which both the quantitative and the qualitative approaches can be both combined. Data triangulation allows for more than one method to be employed in the development of measures hence resulting in greater confidences in findings (Bryman and Bell, 2003). In addition triangulation allows for the crosschecking of data as well as allowing access to different levels of reality. Thus, the quantitative data analysis used in this research has been supported by the qualitative data. The use of qualitative data according to Bryman

and Bell (2003) can provide a deeper understanding of the phenomenon that would be obtained from the quantitative data. By this means, qualitative data will provide a more personal and rich information attained from the respondents relating to their experiences, understanding as well as their motivations (Zappe et al. 2006).

3.2. Research Sampling & Methods

The sample of respondents will consist of men and women with a varied age category living in areas where environmentally friendly programmes are placed and advertised as to avoid bias. A total of 40 questionnaires were distributed consisting of 20 South Asian and 20 British. From the total 40 respondents that have answered the questionnaire, a following in depth interview session was conducted. The interview compromised of 6 South Asian (3 Indians, 2 Pakistanis and 1 Bangladeshi) and 6 UK respondents.

Triangulation was employed in the data collection process. Questionnaire and in-depth interviews were carried out through surveys and were used as the main tool in the analysis. A five point Likert Scale from strongly agree to strongly disagree has been used as a research tool for the survey. The questionnaire was will

be administered directly and via the Internet to the respondents. A following in depth interview session was carried out in this research. A Standardised Open-Ended interview Approach has been used in this study in order to encourage a full, meaningful answer using the subject's own knowledge and or feelings. The sets of interview questions were designed and divided into the five main categories composing of values, behaviours, attitudes, knowledge and factors of green foods and clothes. To avoid bias all respondents were faced with the same initial type of interview questions.

4. Result and Analysis

4.1. Descriptive Statistical Analysis

A total of 40 respondents were included and 40 questionnaires were collected in this research. From the total 40, twelve respondents were then interviewed for the qualitative analysis.

4.1.1. Sex

The distributions of the respondent's based on sex was fairly equal, with female respondents accounting for 60% of the total respondents. Male respondents on the other hand accounted for the remaining 40%.

Table 4.1: Sex_wise distribution of the Respondents

Sex	Sample	(%)
Female	24	60
Male	16	40
Sum	40	100

4.1.2. Age

The distribution of the respondents by age shows preponderance in the age group 20-30 years. The 20-25 years age-category accounts for the highest rate of respondent in this research.

Table 4.2: Age-wise distribution of the Respondents

Age Group (Years)	Sample	(%)
20-25	26	65.0
25-30	7	17.5
30-35	5	12.5
35-50	2	5.0
Sum	40	100.0

4.1.3. Nationality

The distribution of the respondents by nationality was perfectly equal with the British citizens accounting for 50% while South Asian (Indian 8, Pakistani 4, Sri Lankan 4 and Bangladeshi 4) accounting for 50% of the total respondents.

Table 4.3. Respondent Grouping

4.1.4. Environmentally friendly and nonenvironmentally friendly Group

The distribution of the respondents between environmentally friendly, non-environmentally friendly and the undecided respondents was fairly equal. The undecided consumer accounts for 37.5% out of the total respondents followed closely by the non-environmentally friendly respondents at 32.5% and environmentally friendly respondents at 30%

Type	South Asian*	British@	Total #	(%)	
Environmentally Friendly	3 (15.0)	9 (45.0)	12 (30.0)	30.0	
Non-environmentally friendly	10 (50.0)	3 (15.0)	13 (32.5)	32.5	
Undecided	7 (35.0)	8 (40.0)	15 (37.5)	37.5	
Total	20 (100.0)	20 (100.0)	40 (100.0)	100.0	

^{*@#} Figures in the parentheses are percentages to the respective column

Our grouping was based on the result from the dependent variables measurement. The measurement for endogenous variables shows that the majority of the British respondents are categorised as the environmentally friendly consumers while the South Asian respondents are categorised overwhelming as the nonenvironmentally friendly consumers in this research. The result from the endogenous variable measurement showed that out of the 12 respondents, who are categorised as environmentally friendly, 9 were from the UK and 3 were from South Asia. On the other hand, from the 13 respondents classified, as nonenvironmentally friendly 10 were from South Asia whilst 3 were British. Out of the 15

undecided consumers, 7 were South Asian, while the remaining 8 were from the UK.

4.2. Reliability Assessment (Cronbach's α)

Cronbach's α is the most popular method of examining reliability. The Cronbach's α test ranges from zero (0) for a completely unreliable test to one (1) for a completely reliable test. Statisticians are agreed that 0.90 and above shows excellent reliability, 0.90 to 0.70 shows high reliability, 0.70 to 0.50 shows moderate reliability while 0.50 and below shows low reliability. The empirical result of this analysis shows that our average α for the entire items in the construct is > 0.50 and thus indicating that our questionnaire is acceptable to be used.

Table 4.4: Reliability Statistics:

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha based on Standardi sed Items	N of items	
.681	.512	14	

Table 4.5: Item Statistics

Assessment	Cronbach's Alpha				
Values Individualism Collectivism	.642 .737				
Attitudes Convenience Severity Importance	.552 .575 .575				
Behaviour	.615				
Knowledge	.723				
Organic Clothing Price Design Organic and Ethical	.691 .711 .569				
Organic Food Price Content Health Organic and Ethical	.676 .705 .742 .628				

4.3. Independent T-test

4.3.1. Values

Two types of values were used to measure and distinguish the environmentally friendly consumer from the non-environmentally friendly consumers. These two types of values are individualism and collectivism.

4.3.1.1. Individualism

Individualism denotes the degree to which people act as individuals rather than as members of a group in a society. The research

Table 4.6: Group Statistics

has verified that individualism values for the two groups are significantly different (Table 4.6). It is found that the mean for the environmentally friendly group is higher than that of the non-environmentally friendly group. That is, people who are environmentally friendly, on average, are likely to exert individualism value compared to the non-environmentally group. However this difference may not be significant and to ascertain whether it is significant or is due to chance, the Independent sample T-test must be examined.

Туре		N	Mean	Std Deviation	Std Error Mean	
Individual	Friendly	12	1.6875	.35556	.10264	
	Non Friendly	13	1.4038	.41506	.11512	

The Levene's Test for Equality of Variance reveals that the significance level is .375 that is, greater than .05 (Table 4.7). Therefore it is assumed that the variances are approximately equal. Finally the result of the Independent T-test shows that there is no significant difference between the mean of the two groups as the

significance level stands at .081, which is above the significance level of .05 (Table 4.7). Therefore the null hypothesis cannot be rejected, and we can validate that there is no significant difference between environmentally friendly and non-environmentally friendly group individualism.

Table 4.7 – Independent T-test:

	Leven Test	ie's	T-test for Equality of Means						ai H
Individual F S		F Sig. t df	df	Sig. (2 tailed) Mean	Std. Error difference	90% Confidence Interval of the Difference			
	y)	J.g.	·	ui		Difference		Lower	Upper
Equal Variance assumed	.819	.375	1.827	23	.081	.28365	.15522	0374	.60475

A past study by Triandis (1993) has tended to favour those people with less individual values as people who possess the profile of the environmentally friendly consumers. He believed that people who were less concerned about themselves would be more concern towards society and hence the environment. However, the result showed that both

environmentally friendly and non-friendly respondents placed the same value on individualism and no significant differences exist. The reason for this similarity could be caused by the fact that the majority of environmentally friendly respondents are from the UK and, according to Hofstede (1983). The British are known to have higher individualistic

values. Thus, this reason could explain as to why the environmentally friendly respondents place the same individualistic values as the non-environmentally friendly respondents.

Qualitative Analysis: Both types of respondents revealed that they do have the same individualistic values. When asked whether they consider themselves as an individualist both, groups gave positive feedbacks. For the majority of UK respondents who were categorised as environmentally friendly, stated that factors which are seen as individualistic traits such as being independent, having a sense of accomplishment and self fulfilment are all values that they deemed important. According to them, placing great importance on values such as independency and self-reliance are important because Britain is such an individualistic society and thus having such traits is important for the wellbeing and interest. The high level of the British individualistic culture is supported by a study done by Hofstede (1983) where he has identified the pervasive fundamental differences of national culture and ranked the UK as a unique country that has the highest ratings on individualism value.

However, this result was suspect, on cultural differences, in identifying the green consumer as this result was not in consonance with the results of the study by Triandis (1993) which had concluded that environmentally friendly consumer are expected to have lower individualistic values. Likewise, when the non-environmentally friendly respondents who were in the majority in South Asia were asked

whether they considered themselves to be an individualist, responded largely differently to the British. Many of the respondents said that they had adapted some part of their lifestyle into the mainstream individualistic Western culture. As most of the South Asian interviewed are those who are open and familiar with the western culture and with some having lived in the UK for more than 2 year, this might explain why their values have shifted towards individualism. A study carried out by Fan and Karnilowicz (1997) revealed that among Chinese migrants in Australia, and who had been in Australia for a long period of time have adopted Australian values and beliefs as a result of acculturation. The previous study is supported by this result whereby most of the South Asian respondents stated that overtime they have become more of an individualistic type of person although they believe that their individualistic values are less than those of the Westerners.

4.3.1.2. Collectivism

Collectivism denotes the degree with which people act as members, rather than as individuals, in society. Research has verified that the collectivism value; either for people who are categorised as environmentally friendly or not, have showed the mean to be significantly different (Table 4.8). It is found that the mean for the non-environmentally friendly consumer group is higher than that of the environmentally friendly group. However, this difference may not be significant and to ascertain whether it is significant or is due to chance, the Independent sample T-test must be examined.

Table 4.8 – Group Statistics:

	Туре	N	Mean	Std Deviation	Std Error Mean
Individual	Friendly	12	1.3892	.39853	.11505
	Non Friendly	13	1.6923	.58471	.16217

The Levene's Test for Equality of Variance reveals that the significance level is .406, that is greater than .05 (table 4.9). Therefore, it can be assumed that the variances are approximately equal. Finally the result of the Independent T-test shows that there is no significant difference between the means of two groups as the significance level stands at .147, which is above

the significance level of 0.05 (Table 4.9). This implies that the null hypothesis cannot be rejected, as there are no significant differences between the environmentally friendly groups and the non-environmentally friendly group in terms of their collectivism. The research of Triandis (1993) and McCarty and Shrum (1994) suggest that collectivist people tend to be

friendlier to the environment. However this research found that collectivism value was not a good predictor of the green consumers' profile.

In fact, results from the t-tests indicated that the average collectivism score was exactly the same for both segments of the consumers.

Table 4.9 – Independent T-test:

L	100000000000000000000000000000000000000	ene's est	T-test for Equality of Means						F I
Collectivism	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2 tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error	Conf Interv	0% idence al of the erence
	Concentrism F Sig.		uı		Difference	difference	Lower	Upper	
Equal Variance				F 2	= 1				
assumed	.716	.406	1.502	23	.147	30314	.20189	72078	.11450

Qualitative Analysis: Interviews have revealed that both the types of respondents place the same level of collectivism values. As to how the South Asians view their relationship with others, most researchers point to their unique collectivist nature (Chan, 1999; Schwartz, 1990). Hofstede (1996) asserts that Asians emphasise the primacy of the interest of the specific social group (e.g. family) and the maintenance of group cohesiveness. This finding was in line with the interviews conducted with the South Asians. Although the overwhelming majority of the South Asian was not environmentally friendly, they showed high collectivism value. The South Asians care highly about their relationship with others such as the family members, friends and the society. Furthermore, the South Asian respondents have a strong propensity to conform to the norm of their social groups, and they are highly concerned whether their behaviour would make them look unpleasant within such group. The majority of respondents stated that they do care about the way they look and they are highly aware that their friends, especially the ones belonging in the same group as they, are looking at their appearance. Image, according to them is highly important, as many of the respondents believe that the right portrayal of their image will send out a positive message to others about themselves. The environmentally friendly consumers, which overwhelmingly consist of the British people also, have high collectivist values. Majority of the respondents from this group have stated that they do care about their relationship with others. The British people also consider themselves as social beings. According to them having a loving relationship with their family and friends is just as important to them as having a successful career. The difference between the South Asians and the British is that the latter do not place that high an importance on their image. It is true that they have to portray a good image in certain occasions such as at work but they do not feel that they have to conform to the societal norms. Most of the respondents do not really care as to whether other people judge them on the basis of way they look and dress. Another similar answer from the interviews was that both South Asian and British people seem concerned about the welfare of others. So it is verified in this research that collectivism is not a good predictor in profiling the green consumer, as the collectivism score was exactly the same for both groups.

4.3.2. Attitudes

The three most studied attitudes in the ecological literature, with respect to environmentally friendly behaviour which are: importance, convenience and severity of environmental problem.

4.3.2.1. <u>Severity of Environmental Problems</u> The severity of environmental problem can be defined as attitude and beliefs that consumers have towards the environment. Result from the

group statistics has verified the attitudes towards the severity of environmental problems, either for people who are categorised as environmentally friendly or nonenvironmentally friendly, have shown significant differences (Table 4.10). It is found that the mean for the environmentally friendly consumer group is higher than that of the non-environmentally friendly group.

Table 4.10: Group Statistics

Type		N	Mean	Std Deviation	Std Error Mean	
Severity	Friendly	12	4.4375	.60420	.17442	
	Non Friendly	13	3.0000	.57735	.16013	

The Levene's Test for Equality of Variance suggests that the significance level is .373 that is greater then .05 (Table 4.11). Therefore it can be assumed that the variances are approximately equal. Finally the result of the Independent Ttest shows that there is a significant difference between the two groups as the significance level stands at .00, which is below the significance level of .05 (Table 4.11). Therefore the null hypothesis can be rejected and confirm that there is a significant difference between environmentally friendly and non-environmentally friendly group's attitude. People who are environmentally friendly place

higher concern over the severity of environmental problem compared to the nonenvironmentally friendly group.

This finding is supported by a previous study done by Banerjee and Mckeage (1994), where according to them, green consumers strongly believe that current environmental conditions are deteriorating and represent serious problem facing the security of the world. Conversely, consumers who are not environmentally friendly tends to believe that problem within the environment is likely to be resolved by itself.

Table 4.11: Independent T-test

8		ene's est			T-t	est for Equali	ty of Means	4	
					Sig. (2 tailed)	Mean	Std.	Confi Interva	0% idence al of the rence
Severity	F	Sig.	, t	df		Difference	Error difference	Lower	Upper
Equal Variance assumed	.424	.373	6.083	23	.000	1.4375	.23633	.94862	1.92663

Qualitative Analysis: Interviews revealed that people who were grouped in the environmentally friendly category were mostly British people and they were very much concerned about the state of the current environment. Global warming seems to be the most pressing issue for them as the impact, according to them, is highly related to the current British weather which as one respondent remarked is 'very unpredictable'. The few of the South Asians, who were categorised as

environmentally friendly, came from the high level of pollution especially in the capital cities of South Asia. Most of the capital and commercial cities in South Asia do not have strict rules to protect the environment from pollution. But such rules exist in the UK. Meanwhile most of the South Asians who were largely categorised in the non-environmentally friendly group believe that there is no sudden concern for the environment. Although they believe that the

environmental issue does exist for them, it is not very pressing, as they do not face the problem of the state of the environment directly.

4.3.2.2. <u>Convenience of being environmentally friendly</u>

The level of convenience refers to how convenient it is perceived for the individual to

behave in an ecologically favourable fashion. This research findings show that convenience of being environmentally friendly for either respondent has shown significant differences (Table 4.12). It is seen that the mean for the environmentally friendly consumer group is higher than that of the non-environmentally friendly group.

Table 4.12: Group Statistics

	Type	N	Mean	Std Deviation	Std Error Mean
Convenience	Friendly	12	3.8892	.98798	.28520
	Non Friendly	13	1.8977	.64461	.17878

The Levene's Test for Equality of Variance reveals that the significance level is .07 that is greater than .05 (Table 4.13). Therefore it can be assume that the variances are approximately equal. Finally the result of the Independent T-test shows that there is a significant difference between the two groups as the significance level stands at .000, which is below the significance level of 0.05. (Table 4.13). p'['[p;)Therefore, we can reject the null hypothesis and statistically confirm that there exists significant difference between environmentally friendly and non-environmentally friendly group on the level of convenience towards the environment. People

who are environmentally friendly have a more convenient attitude towards the environment compared to those who are nonenvironmentally friendly.

Past research concerning people's attitudes and environmentally friendly behaviour has also supported this result. Mcarthy and Schrum (1994) and Laroche *et al* (2001) studied the impact of the importance and convenience of recycling on behaviour and found that the more the individuals believed that recycling was inconvenient the less likely were they to recycle.

Table 4.13 – Independent Sample T-test:

	Leve Te		Si Si		7	Γ-test for Equ	ality of Means		5
					Sig.	Mean	Std. Error	90' Confid Interva Diffe	dence l of the
Convenience	F	Sig.	t	df	tailed)	Difference	difference	Lower	Upper
Equal Variance assumed	3.595	.071	6.017	23	.000	1.99147	.33099	1.3067	2.67618

Qualitative Analysis: The level of convenience of being environmentally friendly for the two types of respondents differs significantly. Those respondents who were environmentally friendly stated that they do not feel it inconvenient to separate piles of garbage for recycling. One respondent stated that she would rather bring her own cup of drink rather than use the plastic one that school provides for her.

Making a further effort to be green for this type of a consumer is just normal according to one respondent. Other respondents revealed that living in the UK, in a way has made it easier, accessible and more convenient to be green as, according to her, places such as her school have provided separate trashcans for different types of waste. This, in the end, has made her ecological effort according to her more

convenient. Most of the responses were comparatively similar to those of environmentally friendly respondents. However, this was not the case for the nonenvironmentally friendly respondents who declared that being environmentally friendly is such a hassle. The availability of environmental products is one such cause. One respondent said that although buying a non-organic product was harmful to the environment she still bought them anyway because it was more convenient. Although many organic stores have cropped up in the last couple of years, accessibility, according to one respondent was still an issue. Therefore she would rather buy from a place closest to where she lived even though the product was not environmentally friendly. However, most of the respondents who were

grouped as non-environmentally friendly stated that they believed buying environmental products or recycling would help the environment. However they found, it 'just inconvenient' to do so.

4.3.2.3. <u>Importance of being environmentally</u> friendly

The importance of being environmentally friendly is seen as the degree to which one expresses concern about ecological issues. The research has examined as to whether there was a significant difference in means either for environmentally friendly respondents or not, (Table 4.14). We can see that the mean for the environmentally friendly consumer group is higher than that of the non-environmentally friendly group.

Table 4.14. Group Statistics

7	Гуре	N	Mean	Std Deviation	Std Error Mean
Importance	Friendly	12	3.0250	.27010	.07797
	Non Friendly	13	1.4077	.41726	.11573

The significance level is .400 that is greater than .05 (Table 4.15). Therefore we can assume that the variances are approximately equal. Finally the result of the Independent T-test shows that there is a significant difference between the two groups as the significance level stands at .000,

which is below our significance level of 0.05 (Table 4.15). Therefore we can reject the null hypothesis and conclude that there is a significant difference of attitudes between the environmentally friendly group and the non-environmentally friendly groups.

Table 4.15: Group Statistics

v	Leve Te		T-test for Equality of Means						
Importance	Б	S:-		16	Sig. (2 tailed)	Mean	Std.	Confi Interva	% dence il of the rence
Importance	F	Sig.	t	df		Difference	Error difference	Lower	Upper
Equal Variance assumed	4.734	.400	11.394	23	.000	1.61731	.14195	.132367	1.91095

The level of perceived importance of the green consumer has been one of the most studied attitudes in ecological literature. Past study has revealed that perceived importance is one of the factors that highly differentiate the two segments of the consumers (Laroche et al. 2001). Theses consumers who are

environmentally friendly mainly find it important to behave in an ecologically favourable way.

Qualitative Analysis: Respondents in this research have different views on the importance of environmentally compatible behaviour.

Those who favour importance as a defining factor in determining the profile of a green customer stated that it was imperative for individuals to understand the importance of becoming green. Respondents have also noted that believing in the cause on going green not only benefit the sole individual but also the benefits the society as a whole. When the respondents were asked if they believed that recycling was important and that it would save natural resources, the response of most of the environmentally friendly respondents was overwhelmingly positive. Such respondents felt that it was incumbent and important on their part to behave in a favourable ecological manner particularly in the backdrop of the current degraded environmental conditions. They believe that certain actions that they take such as recycling go to some extent to alleviate environmental problems. Many of the environmentally friendly respondents, mainly British, believe that their environmentally friendly actions can make a difference. One of the respondents noted that is since the importance of the environment does not appear to be much of a concern to the government and the business, it becomes the responsibility of people like her to find it necessary to behave green and if they do not, who will?

For the majority of the South Asian respondents who are categorised as non-environmentally friendly the opposite holds true. They do not believe in the importance of behaving in a favourable ecological way. The reason for this attitude is because they feel that the environmental problem is too large and the preservation of the environment is the

responsibility of the government and large companies. Another concern raised by most of these respondents was that of priority. One respondent stated that the importance of being green was not her priority at the moment as there were other matters that she found more important. This type of response was overwhelmingly the majority answer for the non-environmentally friendly consumers mainly hailing from the South Asia. Countries in South Asian are still faced with myriad problems, and therefore the society places greater importance on more basic needs than ecological needs (Roberts; 1996, Solomon and Askegaard, 2004). Furthermore, unlike the British those consumers in the South Asia who do care for the environment do not have a proper outlet to raise their voices. Hence, as one respondent stated, any action that they take would have little impact on the environment anyway as the governments there usually are slow to react. Thus our finding reveals that the importance of environmentally compatible behaviour is a good predictor in profiling and separating the green consumers from the nongreen consumers.

4.3.3. Knowledge (Eco-literacy)

Knowledge measures the respondents know how towards environmental issues and conditions. The research has verified that knowledge on the environment for both respondents, showed significant differences (Table 4.16). We can see that the mean for the non-environmentally friendly respondents is higher than that of the environmentally friendly respondents.

Table 4.16 – Group Statistics:

ž.	Туре	N	Mean	Std Deviation	Std Error Mean
Knowledge:	Friendly	12	1.3333	.49237	.14213
	Not Friendly	13	1.3846	.50637	.14044

The Levene's Test for Equality of Variance tells us that the significance level is .614 that is greater than .05 thus indicating that the variances are approximately equal. The result of the Independent T-test shows that there is no significant difference between the two groups as the significance level stands at .800, which is above the significance level of 0.05. (Table

4.17). Therefore we cannot reject the null hypothesis and confirm that there is no significant difference between environmentally friendly and non-environmentally friendly groups' knowledge on environment. This means that both the groups hold the same knowledge about the environment and no significant differences exist.

Table 4.17: Independent Sample T-test

		ene's est			T-	test for Equal	ity of Means		
			8		Sig.	Mean	Std. Error	90 Confid Interva Diffe	dence l of the
Knowledge	F	Sig.	t	df	tailed)	Difference	difference	Lower	Upper
Equal Vari ance assumed	.261	.614	.256	23	.800	05128	.20005	.46511	.36255

Past research has shown contradictory findings on the relationship between knowledge and behaviour. For example, eco-literacy is recognised as one main characteristic that influences ecologically favourable behaviour (Alba and Hutchinson, 1987). Here the findings however are largely supported by previous research conducted by Maloney and Ward (1973), which show that the correlation between consumer's ecological knowledge and ecologically favourable behaviour does not exist.

Qualitative Analysis: Both groups of respondents were able to present a sound and accurate feedback relating to their knowledge towards the environment with many respondents capable of naming more than one type of ecological issue. The most common environmental issues that the respondents named in descending order are global warming, pollution, deforestation and the landfill issue. When asked what type of actions resulted into these issues both the groups were able to provide detailed answer and gave a large number of examples. Most of the respondents who stated global warming as an issue, believed that the root of the problem was cause by the large quantity of carbon dioxide release in the air from cars, aviation and power plants. Meanwhile the waste and the landfill issues according to the respondents, was caused by throwing away non-recyclable waste, and also by the low efforts by humans to recycle. Most of

Table 4.18 – Group Statistics:

	Туре	N	Mean	Std Deviation	Std Error Mean
Behaviour:	Friendly	12	3.3333	.66864	.19302
	Non Friendly	13	2.6408	.39794	.11037

the respondents were able to identify the green recycling symbol as well as the Fair-trade symbol and what they meant. Moreover, they were able to explain what these symbols were associated with. One of the respondent answered that sweatshops, which are closely associated with the Fair-trade symbol, were places where people (most likely women and under age children) work under very harsh conditions under unfair wages. Both types of respondents were able to name stores that carry organic food such as Marks & Spencer and Whole Foods. However, most of the respondents were able to name environmentally friendly clothing brands or stores such as Stella McCartney, People Tree and Oxfam as places where they can acquire green and ethical clothing. When asked as to where their knowledge about the environment came from the stated that feature movies, television documentaries, celebrity, magazines and friends as a source of their information. However, most of the respondents replied that the media and celebrity are their biggest source of environmental knowledge.

4.3.4. Behaviours

Behaviour measures concrete actions that individuals take to be green. With respect to behaviour, the research has verified that both types of respondents have shown significant difference in t-value (table 4.18). It is found that the mean for the environmentally friendly consumer group is higher than that of the non-environmentally friendly group.

The Levene's Test for Equality of Variance suggests that the significance level is .132 that is greater than .05 (Table 4.19). Therefore we can assume that the variances are approximately equal. Finally the result of the Independent T-test shows that our T value is 3.177 with 23 degrees of freedom. There is a significant difference between the two groups as the significance level stands at 0.004, which is

below our significance level of 0.05 (Table 4.19). Therefore we can reject the null hypothesis and confirm that there is significant difference between environmentally friendly and non-environmentally friendly groups behaviour. People who are environmentally friendly possess a more favourable behaviour towards the environment than those who are non-environmentally friendly.

Table 4.19. Independent Sample T-test

	Leve Te		=		T-te	st for Equality	y of Means		
Behaviour					Sig. (2 tailed)	Mean	Std.	-	
=	F	Sig.	t	df		Difference	Error difference	Lower	Upper
Equal Variance assumed	2.446	.132	3.177	23	.004	0.69256	0.21796	0.24168	1.14345

Suchard and Polonski (1991) stipulated that the ecologically conscious consumers try to protect the environment in ways such as recycling, checking that a package is made of recycled material and purchasing only green products. Those previous findings are in line with this research result whereby the behaviour of the environmentally friendly respondents is statistically more favourable to the environment.

Qualitative Analysis: Behaviours among the two sets of consumers differ significantly towards the environment. Environmentally friendly respondents are continuously making sure that he/she has carried out some actions that are ecologically favourable. Their behaviours are mirrored in actions such as recycling, buying green products and consuming less environmentally harmful products, as a solution that they believe would improve the environment. One respondent stated that she always tried to buy less environmentally harmful products and usually carried a shopping bag when doing grocery shopping as opposed to using the plastic bags provided by could protect the environment but she is certain that her action does have an impact on the environment. On the other hand, non-environmentally friendly respondents have just done the opposite. This type of respondents mostly revealed to a large extent that no environmental notion is justified when taking any sort of actions. One respondent stated that he just throws waste in any available trashcans, and does not really care whether his actions have any impact on the environment. Such behaviour is one factor that distinguishes these respondents apart. Environmentally friendly respondents justify their behaviour through clear-cut action while non-environmentally respondents do just the opposite.

4.3.5. Environmental Clothing

Table 4.20 shows that the mean for both the types of respondents is different for all variable that represent organic clothing. However this difference may not be significant and to ascertain whether it is significant or is due to chance, the Independent sample T-test must be examined.

Table 4.20: Group Statistics

Туре	Mean	Std Dev	Std Error
Price			
Friendly	1.7500	.45227	.13056
Not Friendly	1.7692	.43853	.12163
Design			
Friendly	1.2500	.45227	.13056
Not Friendly	1.7692	.43853	.12163
Organic			
Friendly	3.4750	.34145	.09857
Not Friendly	0.1746	.56068	.15555

The Levene's Test for Equality of Variance reveals that the Significance level is greater than 0.05. Therefore we can assume that all the variances are approximately equal. Finally the result of the Independent T-test shows that there is a significant difference on all the variables between the two groups as the significance level for price stands at 0.008 followed by design at

.008 and organic material at .000 which is all below our significance level of 0.05 (Table 4.21). Therefore we can reject the null hypothesis and can confirm that there is a significant difference in attitudes between environmentally friendly groups and non-environmentally friendly groups towards organic clothing.

Table 4.21: Independent Sample T-test

Туре	F	Sig	t	df	Sig (2 tailed)
Price	0.046	0.831	2.914	23	.008
Design	0.046	0.831	-2.914	23	.008
Organic	0.379	0.544	9.219	23	.000

Qualitative analysis: Price is the number one factor that highly differentiates the environmentally friendly consumer and the non-environmentally friendly consumers on their clothing purchase. Design and materials were the major factors that differentiate the two types of groups. The environmentally friendly consumer supports this green clothing concept. However interview findings have revealed that although they support this concept they have bought very little, (and some never purchased) environmentally friendly clothing before due to high prices and lack of availability and credibility. Respondents revealed that they supported green clothing, but they have also stated that price plays a major role in their purchase decision for clothes. This answer is related to the majority of sample respondents who were mostly students, therefore, having a lower disposable income. However, it is very important to note that the environmentally friendly respondents have also stated that they were willing to pay is related to the green

clothing is availability. Most of the respondents who have never bought green clothing were interested in purchasing them but the lack of accessibility for these clothing acted as a hindrance. Credibility is also one factor that they found to be a problem. Although the majority of environmentally friendly respondents would buy these types of clothes they were sceptical about the reliability of the products. When it comes to clothing, these respondents could not differentiate whether the material is really organic or not.

Price is the number one factor that greatly influences the non-environmentally friendly respondents for purchasing clothes. Apart from price design, materials and production produce also constitute considering factors for them too. For these respondents, ethical issue takes a backseat on their purchasing decisions. The clothes that they buy should reflect their personal tastes and not environmental concerns. These respondents would opt to buy those clothes that were less expensive and not

110

produced ecologically rather than the opposite. Respondents were aware of the ethical issue in the fashion industry. However when they shop, these issues were the least of their worries. Environmental issues caused by clothing production are even less of an interest. When asked whether they know that stores such as Top shop and H&M were going green, some respondents were positively surprised. They have always assumed that ethical and green fashion would be boring and unfashionable. The majority of the non-environmentally

friendly respondents, reveals that when they buy clothes they buy the image of the product and not because it was produced according to environmentally friendly methods or not.

4.3.6. Organic Food

Table 4.22 shows that the mean for both types of respondents is different for the construct of organic food. However, this difference may not be significant and to ascertain whether it is significant or is due to chance, the Independent sample T-test must be examined.

Table 4.22: Group Statistic

Type	Mean	Std Dev	Std Error
Price			
Friendly	1.5833	.51493	.14865
Not Friendly	1.3077	.48038	.13323
Content		Action	Bro pa
Friendly	2.0833	.79296	.22891
Not Friendly	2.2308	.59914	.13323
Health	V		
Friendly	2.2500	.86603	.25000
Not Friendly	2.4615	.77625	.21529
Organic			
Friendly	2.0000	.56408	.16283
Not Friendly	1.4231	.49355	.13689

The Levene's Test for Equality of Variance reveals that the Significance level is greater than 0.05. Therefore we can assume that all the variances are approximately equal. Finally the result of the Independent T-test shows there is no significant difference on variable such as health, content and price. The significance level for price stands at .179 followed by contents at .603 and health at .526, which are all above our significance level of .05 (Table 4.23). Therefore, for those variables we cannot reject

the null hypothesis and can confirm that there is no significant difference between both the group's attitude towards health, price and contents of food. However, statistics show significant difference on the variable organic whereby the significance level stands at .01, which is below our significance level of .05. Therefore for this variable we can reject the null hypothesis and verify that there exists difference for both types of groups on the likelihood of purchasing organic food products.

Table 4.23: Independent T-test

Туре	F	Sig	t	df	Sig (2 tailed)
Price	1.056	0.315	1.385	23	0.179
Contents	0.711	0.408	-0.527	23	0.603
Health	0.362	0.553	-0.644	23	0.526
Organic	0.042	0.84	2.727	23	0.012

Qualitative analysis: Findings reveal that both the types of respondents are more open and willing to buy organic foods compared to

organic clothing. The most important factors that influence consumer food purchasing decisions are contents of food and health followed closely by price. Both types of respondents answered that the content of the food is one major factor that influences their food purchasing decisions. The content of the food relates to whether it is more nutritious and has more vitamins which the respondents feel would directly affect their health. Unlike organic clothing, nonenvironmentally friendly respondents are willing to purchase more organic food. The reasoning was that respondents were more concerned about their health and felt that their food intake would directly affect their health. Moreover, most non-environmentally friendly respondent believed organic foods to be healthier compared to normal foods. This confirms the finding of earlier studies that the most frequent motives for buying organic foods is the consumers' perception that the organic foods are healthier (Davies et al. 1995). Consequently previous study has shown that the main factor that reverse consumer favourable attitude towards organic product is price (Davies et-al 1995).

Again when asked whether respondents were willing to pay 10% higher on organic foods compared to normal foods, both types of respondents stated that they would. However, the non-environmentally friendly consumers were only willing to buy certain organic produce and combine it with normal produce. The answer was supported by our statistically significant findings where the nonenvironmentally friendly respondents would buy less organic food than the environmentally friendly consumer. This implies that although non-environmentally friendly respondents are willing to pay more for organic foods but the types of foods that they are willing to buy are very limited and less diverse than the environmentally friendly consumer's. If this is the case then we can conclude that the nonenvironmentally friendly respondents are more selective when purchasing organic food products.

5. Conclusion

The aim of this research was to simultaneously find differences and similarities between the green and non-green consumers as well as examining whether diverse cultural backgrounds provide any significant differences in separating both of these respondents. The findings from this research demonstrate enough evidence to separate these two respondents based on environmental and cultural backgrounds.

- 1. 'Values' was one factor that failed to differentiate the environmentally friendly respondents from the non-environmentally friendly ones. The research initially presupposed that values would differ between these two types of respondents. However, this hypothesis was not accepted as the score for individualistic values and collectivism value showed no significant differences. This finding indicates show that we can reject the notion that environmentally friendly consumers have higher collectivism values and lower individualistic values than those of the nonenvironmentally friendly consumers. Among the many reasons that would explain the similarities in values is the process of acculturation. Qualitative findings reveal that both the British and the South Asian respondents have shifted their presupposed cultural values and as a result are neither high on individualistic or collectivism values.
- 2. A very important result from the quantitative and qualitative data indicates that attitudes are very good predictors of the environmentally friendly consumer. This is consistent with many previous studies (Chan, 1999; Laroche et al. 2001; Webster, 1975) in which attitudes were found to be good predictors of ecologically friendly behaviour. All of the t-tests have revealed that all three attitudes (importance, convenience and severity of environment) differentiate the two segments in statistically significant ways. Therefore we can accept the validation that attitude is a good indicator in separating the environmentally friendly consumers from the nonenvironmentally friendly consumers.
- 3. Knowledge about the environment was not a good predictor in profiling the green consumers as both respondents had similar knowledge about the current state of the environment. Besides having higher knowledge, both types of respondents were able to elaborate the many reasons for the current environmental degradation. This result confirms the conclusion proposed by Maloney and Ward

- (1973) and again states that environmental knowledge alone cannot be identified as a factor that distinguishes between the green customers and the non-green customers.
- 4. As shown by the results, the respondent's behaviour differs significantly towards the environment. Those categorised as environmentally friendly take clear and direct action in protecting the environment in different ways. However, those who were not friendly have just done the opposite. Similar to other studies (Suchard and Polonski, 1991) the outcome of this research revealed that the behaviour is a factor that determines and distinguishes these two types of respondents from one another.
- 5. It is evident from the present quantitative and qualitative analysis that the behaviour towards green clothing differs between the two types of respondents. Environmentally friendly respondent showed a higher willingness to purchase ethical clothing despite higher price and limited design availability. Nonenvironmentally friendly respondents on the other hand are reluctant to buy ethical clothing on the basis of price, credibility and lackluster design. The different attitudes towards ethical clothing could be attributed to the qualitative findings. These findings show that the respondents' involvement process towards purchasing environmentally friendly clothing is a much more complicated process compared to buying organic food products.
- 6. The attitude towards organic food for either of the groups was comparatively more positive compared to green clothing. It seems that for both of these respondents, organic food products hold more importance than clothes mainly because foods directly affect health. Therefore both respondents' attitudes towards organic food's price, contents and health factor show no significant differences. The underlying difference was that, unlike the environmentally friendly respondents who seek out to buy as many varieties of organic foods as possible, non-environmentally friendly respondents are more selective in the types of organic products that they consume.

6. Recommendation

The result obtained from this study allows us to state that the environmentally friendly groups of consumers are characterised by their attitudes and behaviours. Knowledge and values on the other hand were poor factors in characterising the environmentally friendly respondents. As attitudes provide significant profile of the green consumers; marketers could advertise the convenience of purchasing environmentally friendly goods. More companies are educating their consumers about the convenience of buying ecologically safe products. The Body Shop for example produces and promotes its product lines with environmental and social sensitivity as a major theme (Laroche et al. 2001). Importance of being environmentally friendly was another attitude that has significant differences on both types of respondents. Thus one way for marketers to persuade more consumers into going green is by communicating to the audience on the important and significant impact of this consumption will have on the wellbeing of the environment. Likewise marketers should also communicate to their target audience the severity of environmental problems and in what ways has the company tied to prevent any further degradation of the environment.

For companies that produce environmentally friendly clothes, it is advisable that their products are 'fashion forward' with acceptable designs. The propensity for consumer to purchase clothes that are well designed and green is higher than the propensity to purchase this type of clothing on the basis of green alone (Solomon and Askegaard, 2004). For organic food companies and producers, it is advisable for more of their produce to be available at neighbourhood grocery stores. The higher level of availability would make it easier for consumers to purchase these products regardless to where they live. It is further recommended that marketers should try to formulate realistic marketing strategies so that they can capture the segments that would have the potential to spend more on environmentally friendly products and thereby become market leaders in their respective fields.

7. Limitations of the Study

It has to be acknowledged that there are some limitations to bear in mind when interpreting the results of this study. Firstly, the author has conducted this research in the UK during his short visit there for 3 months only. Due to time constraints the sample size for the respondents in qualitative and quantitative data analysis was small and thus could not represent the overall picture of green consumers. Secondly, many of

the South Asian respondents in this research are familiar and open to the British culture, thus there are possibilities of giving biased responses. Thirdly, the choice of factors in the conceptual framework included in this study may not be exhaustive enough and additional variables could be added to get more realistic results. It is therefore, necessary to conduct research on a larger scale in the future on this topic.

References

- Aaker, J. and Maheswaran, D. (1997) The Effect of Cultural Orientation on Persuasion. *The Journal of Consumer Research*, 24(3):315-328.
- Aaron A. and Wong N. (1995) Materialism: Origins and Implications for Personal Well-being. *European Advances in Consumer Research*, 2:172-178.
- Azjen, I and Fishbein, M. (1980) Understanding Attitudes and Predicting Social Behaviour, Prentice-Hall, Englewood Cliffs, NJ.
- Azjen, I. (1991) The Theory of Planned Behaviour. Organizational Behaviour and Human Decision Processes, 50(2):179-211.
- Alba, J.W. and Hutchinson, J.W. (1987) Dimensions of Consumer Expertise. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 13:411-54. Bagozzi, R.P., Yi, Y. and Baumgartner, J. (1990) The Level of Effort Required for Behaviour as a Moderator of the Attitude-Behaviour Relation. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, 20:45-59.
- Balderjahn. I. (1988) Personality Variables and Environmental Attitudes as Predictors of Ecologically Responsible Consumption Pattern, *Journal of Business Research*, 17(1):51-56.
- Batt, P.J. and Giblett, M. (1999) A Pilot Study of Consumer Attitudes to Organic Fresh Fruit and Vegetables in Western Australia. *Food Australia*, 51(11):549-550.
- Banerjee, B. and Mckeage, K. (1994) How Green is My Value: Exploring the Relationship Between Environmentalism and Materialism. In: Allen, C.T., John. D.R. (Eds), *Advances in Consumer Research*, 21:147-152.
- BBC (2007) Organic clothes. Available: http://www.bbc.co.uk/thread/ [29 June 2008]
- Berkowitz, L. and Lutterman, K.G. (1968) The Traditional Socially Responsible Personality, *Public Opinion Quarterly*, 32:169-185.
- Bradley F. (1995) Marketing Management. Providing, Communicating and Delivering Value. Prentice Hall: London.
- Bryman, Allen and Bell, Emma (2003) Business Research Method, Oxford University Press: Oxford.
- Chan, K. and Yam, M. (1995) Determinants of Chinese Green Purchase Behaviour, Journal of Psychology and Marketing, 18(4) 389-413.
- Chan, K. (1999) Market Segmentation of Green Consumers in Hong Kong, Journal of International Consumer Marketing, 12(2):7-24.
- Chinnici, G.D., Amico, M. and Pecorino, B. (2002) A multivariate statistical analysis on the consumers of organic products, *UK Food Journal*, 104(3/4/5):187-199.
- Cooperative Bank Consumers Report (2007) http://www.goodwithmoney.co.uk/servlet/Satellite/ 1200903577501, CFSweb/Page/GoodWithMoney.
- Dahab, D.J., Gentry, J.W. and Su, W. (1995) New Ways to Reach Non-Recyclers: an Extension of the Model of Reasoned Action to Recycling Behaviours. In: Kardes, F.R., Sujan, M. (Eds), *Advances in Consumer Research*, Association for Consumer Research, Provo, UT, pp. 251-256.
- Davies, A., Titterington, A.J. and Cochrance, C. (1995) Who Buys Organic Food? A Profile of the Purchasers of Organic Product in N. Ireland, *UK Food Journal*, 97(10):17-23.
- Dispoto, R.G. (1977) Interrelationships Among Measures of Environmental Activity, Emotionality and Knowledge. Educational and Psychological Measurement, 37:451-459.
- Diamantopoulos, A., Bohlen, G.M. and Schelegelmilch, B.B. (1994) Predicting Green Purchasing Decisions From Measures of Environmental Consciousness: A Two Sample Comparison, Coleraine, pp. 252-261.
- Fan, Chynthia and Knilowicz, Wally (1997) Measurement of Definitions of Success Among Chinese and Australian Girls. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 28(5): 589-599.
- Fellows, Scott B. and Jobber, David (2000) Environmentally Responsible Purchase Behaviour: A Test of Consumer Model. *European Journal of Marketing*, 34(5/6):723-746.
- Fishbein, M. and Azjen, I. (1975) Belief, Attitude, Intention, and Behaviour: An Introduction to Theory and Research, Addison-Wesley, Reading, MA.
- Fisk, G. (1973) Criteria for a Theory of Responsible Consumption, Journal of Marketing, 37:24-31.

- Fraj, Elena and Martinez, Eva (2006) Environmental Values and Lifestyle as Determining Factors of Ecological Consumer Behaviour: An Empirical Analysis, *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, 23(3):133-144.
- Hines, J., Hungerford, H. and Tomera, A. (1987) Analysis and Synthesis of Research on Environmental Behaviour: A Meta-Analysis, *Journal of Environmental Education*, 18(2):1-8.
- Hofstede, G. (1983) The Cultural Relativity of Organizational Practices and Theories, Journal of International Business
 Studies
- Hofstede, G. (1996) Cultures and Organizations: Software of the Mind, McGraw-Hill Education.
- Joergens, C. (2006) Ethical Fashion: Myth or Future Trend? Journal of Fashion Marketing and Management, 10(3):360-371.
- Kotler, P. (1997) What Consumerism Means of Marketers, Harvard Business Review, 50:48-57.
- Laroche, M. Bergero, J. and Forleo, Guido (2001) Targeting Consumers Who Are Willing to Pay More for Environmentally Friendly Products, *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, 18(6):503-520.
- Lockie, S., Lyons, K., Lawrence, G. and Mummery, K. (2002) Eating 'Green': Motivations Behind Organic Food Consumption in Australia", *Journal of Sociology*, 42(1):23-40.
- Maloney, M.P. and Ward, M.P. (1973) Ecology: Let's Hear From the People: An Objective Scale for the Measurement of Ecological Attitudes and Knowledge, *American Psychologist*, 7:583-586.
- Maheswaran, Durairaj and Shavitt, Sharon (2000) Issues and New Directions in Global Consumer Psychology, *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, 9(2):59-66.
- McCarty, J.A. and Shrum, L.J. (1994) The Recycling of Solid Wasters: Personal Values, Value Orientations, and Attitudes About Recycling as Antecedents of Recycling Behaviour, *Journal of Business Research*, 30 (1):53-62.
- Meyer, A. (2001) What's in it for the Customers? Successfully Marketing Green Clothes, *Business Strategy and the Environment*, 10:317-330.
- Mintel (2008) Organics UK. Available: http://academic.mintel.com.wam.city.ac.uk:80/sinatra/oxygen_academics/search_results/show&/display/id=220215 [6 July 2008]
- Organic Exchange (2007) Organic Cotton Report, Available: http://www.organicexchange. org/Documents/fiber 2007.pdf[17 July 2007].
- Pearson, D. (2002), Marketing Organic Food: Who Buys it and What do They Purchase? Food Australia, 54(1):31-34.
- Roberts, J.A. (1996) Green Consumers in the 1990s: Profile and Implications for Advertising, *Journal of Business Research*, 36(3):217-232.
- Roddy, G., Cowan, C. and Hutchinson, G. (1994) Organic food: a description of the Irish Market, *UK Food Journal*, 96(4):3-10.
- Schahn and Holzer (1990) Studies of Individual Environmental Concern: the Role of Knowledge, Gender and Background Variables, Environmental and Behaviour, 22(6):767-786.
- Schlegelmilch, Bodo B. (1994) The Link Between Green Purchasing Decisions and Measures of Environmental Consciousness, *European Journal of Marketing* 30(5):723-746.
- Schwartz, S.H. (1994) Are There Universal Aspects in the Structure and Contents of Human Values? *Journal of Social Issues*, 50(4):19-45.
- Schwartz, S.H. (1990) Individualism-Collectivism Critique and Proposed Refinements, *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 21(2):139-157.
- Skapinker, M. (2005) The Boom in Organic Food Sales Defies Science and Sense. Available: http://www.ft.com/cms/s/0/a007b3c6-c73b-11d9-a70000000e2511c8.html? nclick_check=1 [5 July 2008]
- Solomon, Bamossy and Askegaard, Hogg (2004) Consumer Behaviour, A European Perspective, New York: Prentice Hall.
- Suchard, H.T. and Polonski, M.J. (1991) A Theory of Environmental Buyer Behaviour and its Validity: the Environmental Action-Behaviour Model. In: Gilly, M.C. (Eds), AMA Summer Educators, Conference Proceedings, American Marketing Association, Chicago, IL, Vol. 2 pp. 187-201.
- Soil Association (2008) Organic Market Report Available: http://www.soilassociation.org [15 July, 2008].
- Triandis, H.C. (1993) Collectivism and Individualism and Cultural Syndromes, Cross-cultural Research, 27(3):155-158.
- Thogersen, J. and Grunert-Beckmann, S.C. (1997) Values and Attitude Formation Towards Emerging Attitude Objects: From Recycling to General Waste Minimising Behaviour. In: Brucks, M., Machlnnis, D.J. (Eds), *Advances in Consumer Research*, Association for Consumer Research, Provo, UT, Vol 24 pp. 182-189.
- Torjusen, H., Lieblein, G., Wandel M. and Francis, C.A. (2001) Food Systems Orientation and Quality Perceptions Among Consumers and Producers of Organic Food in Hedmark Country, Norway, Food Quality and Preference, 12(3): 207-216.
- Wandel, M. and Bugge, A. (1997) Environmental Concern in Consumer Evaluation of Food Quality, Food Quality and Preference, 8(1):19-26.
- Webster, F.E. Jr. (1975) Determining the Characteristics of the Socially Conscious Consumer, *Journal of Consumer Research*, 2:188-196.
- Worsley, A., and Skrzypiec, G. (2005) Teenagers Social Attitude and Red Meat Consumption, Meat and Human Health, The Royal Society of New England, Wellington, pp. 10-15.
- Zappe, Cristhoper, Winston, Wayne, and Albright, Christian (2006) Data Analysis and Decision Making, 3rd ed. New York: Thompson.