

CONSUMER MOTIVATIONS TO BOYCOTT:
FOCUS ON NON-GREEN PRODUCTS

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ABSTRACT

Purpose: The purpose of this thesis is to study consumer motivations to boycott, while specifically focusing on non-green products. The present study investigates whether motivations to participate in consumer boycotts studied by previous research apply to boycotts of non-green products. In addition, motivations specific to boycotting non-green products were explored.

Methodology: This thesis uses a systems approach in studying consumer boycott motivations. Therefore, consumers were viewed as parts of a system that consists of other individuals, boycott targets, and other organizations. These different parts of the system could potentially affect an individual's motivations to boycott non-green products. A quantitative survey was conducted to study whether respondents identified with the boycott motivations proposed by previous studies. Also, qualitative questions were included to identify previously unmentioned motivations specific to boycotting non-green products.

Findings: The results of this study shows that previously researched boycott motivations have varying importance in motivating consumers to boycott non-green products. Based on the survey responses, the most significant boycott motivation in this context is the ability to make a difference on a boycott issue. Boycotting non-green products also seems to be motivated by improved self-esteem, but not social pressure. It was concluded that other individuals have relatively little significance on the boycott participation of a consumer. From open ended questions, boycott motivations specific to boycotting non-green products found were primarily health benefits for the self and secondarily altruistic benefits for the environment. The most significant de-motivations for boycotting were the lack of substitutes for non-green products and the high prices of green products.

Research limitations: The conclusions made in this study are limited by the use of a non-probability sample. Thus the ability to generalize the study results outside of the sample is limited, but was judged to be a representation of green consumers.

Practical implications: Consumer motivations to boycott non-green products can be valuable information both for possible targets of boycotts as well as companies providing green substitutes or promoting green consumption. These organizations may want to notice that these consumers are committed to make a difference on the boycott issues and their motivation does not seem to be affected by external pressure. Producers of green products should see that many of these consumers perceive the lack of green substitutes and high prices as a barrier for favoring green products.

Originality/value: This thesis contributes to the study of consumer boycott motivations by studying motivations that are specific for boycotting non-green products. In addition, this thesis studies the boycott of non-green products as a continuous practice instead of a one-time boycott participation, as consumer boycotts are traditionally viewed.

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1. INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background

Boycotts are a way for consumers not only to have a say on how organizations should operate, but to also have an impact on how their consumption decisions affect the environment. Consumer boycotts have been traditionally viewed as events coordinated by organizations asking consumers to abstain from buying the products of a specific company (Friedman, 1999). According to this idea, consumers seek to change the reprehensible behavior of the boycott target by refusing to conduct business with it for a certain period of time. However, there are consumer boycotts of various types, for different purposes, and for differing periods of times. In some cases consumers refrain from consuming certain products or dissociate themselves from certain organizations for an indefinite period of time to reach certain goals. One example of such a consumer boycott is the boycott of non-green products. While a consumer favors green products, he or she can be seen to simultaneously boycott products that are perceived as non-green by that consumer. In fact, consumers and companies have increasingly been paying attention to green issues due to environmental concerns and food scares (National Geographic, 2012). Despite the seemingly growing attention and concern, green consumerism seems to be the practice of relatively few individuals (Gleim *et al.*, 2013; Haws, Winterich, and Naylor, 2013). Moreover, although the topic of green consumption is nowadays a popular research topic, understanding on the drivers for green consumption is still incomplete (Haws, Winterich, and Naylor, 2013).

Although boycotts are not a new phenomenon, motivations to participate in consumer boycotts have been studied for little over a decade. Motivations behind consumer behavior are important information for organizations whether they are targets of boycotts or organizing them. However, consumer motivations are a complex object of study as they are diverse, they vary by individual, and are influenced by one's environment. Present research on boycott motivations have focused only on different single boycott cases. While research has studied the motivations of consumers to

participate in a boycott for instance against the unethical conduct of a company (Klein, Smith, and John, 2002), closing of a factory (Hoffmann and Müller, 2009), or seal hunting (Braunsberger and Buckler, 2011), consumer motivations to participate in a long term boycott of a specific group of products have yet to be included in the boycott studies.

1.2 Research Problem

The research problem of this thesis was defined by reviewing literature on consumer motivations to participate in boycotts. After a discussion on different boycott motivations studied by previous research, this thesis focuses on a specific type of a consumer boycott. By choosing a context in which consumers' boycott motivations were to be studied, the researcher was able to move from a general level of boycott motivations to a more specific level, as well as to study motivations of consumers to participate in a boycott type that has not been studied by previous research. The consumer boycott issue that was chosen to be studied for motivations to participate was the boycott of non-green products. In past research, boycott motivations have not been studied in the context of green issues using a wider range of participation motivations. In addition, studies on boycott motivations have focused on consumer boycotts as one time arranged events. As mentioned, studies have usually used one boycott case to study motivations for participating in that boycott. However, in this thesis, consumer boycott of non-green products is viewed as a part of a green ideology, and an ongoing consumption practice. Together with the current nature of green consumption as a research issue, the following research problem was formulated:

What motivates consumers to boycott non-green products?

To further break down the research problem and define the goals of this thesis, the following research questions were set:

RQ 1) What motivates consumers to boycott non-green products?

RQ 2) What motivates consumers not to boycott non-green products?

RQ 3) Does individual environment impact a consumer's motivation to boycott non-green products?

RQ 4) Does boycott frequency or socio-demographics affect motivations to boycott non-green products?

With the research questions defined above, the study aims to research motivations for consumers to boycott non-green products as well as motivations for not doing so. Furthermore, the thesis will investigate whether the environment of a consumer, such as other individuals, affect these boycott motivations. Finally, the thesis will investigate whether socio-demographic aspects of a consumer affect their boycott motivations and whether consumers can be grouped based on these factors.

1.3 Structure of the Paper

After introducing the thesis topic and the chosen research problem, the following chapter will review the literature on consumer boycott motivations which this research problem was based on. After the literature review, methodology for studying and solving the research problem within this thesis will be discussed. Once research methods for this thesis have been chosen and their purpose has been discussed, later chapters will present the results of the empirical study made for this thesis and a discussion of these results of research in connection with related literature. Conclusions on the research will be provided together with implications of the study results for businesses in the end of the paper. In addition, limitations to this study as well as suggestions for future research on the topic will be presented.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Consumer Boycotts

The term boycott originates from the name of Captain Charles C. Boycott, who was a prominent land manager. In 1880, the Irish Land League initiated an attempt to decrease rents by isolating Captain Boycott from his business connections. This later became known as a boycott. (Friedman, 1999) In the present, a boycott is defined as “A punitive ban on relations with other bodies, cooperation with a policy, or the handling of goods.” (Oxford University Press, 2014) Another frequently used working definition, specifically used in the study of consumer boycotts, is by Monroe Friedman: a consumer boycott is “an attempt by one or more parties to achieve certain objectives by urging individual consumers to refrain from making selected purchases in the marketplace” (1985, pp.97-98). From this definition of a consumer boycott it can be distinguished that the boycotters are individuals instead of organizations, change is made in the marketplace although the goal may not be in the marketplace (i.e. environmental policy), and consumers are persuaded to selectively withdraw their participation in the marketplace (Friedman, 1999).

Consumer boycotts are opportunities for consumers to gain influence and use social control over companies as well as public policy (Klein, Smith, John 2004). Boycott participants can use their purchasing decisions to support companies that have favorable social influences while avoiding companies that have negative impacts (Klein, Smith, John 2004). Consumer boycotts differ from personal decisions to withhold consumption in that consumer boycotts are “an organized, collective, but non-mandatory (i.e., no formal sanctions can be imposed on non-compliers) refusal to consume a good” (Sen, Gürhan-Canli and Morwitz, 2001, p.400). Although the decision to boycott and taking personal boycott actions are executed individually by boycott participants, consumer boycotts are often organized by parties attempting to raise public awareness and influence attitudes regarding the boycott causes. These organizers of consumer boycotts recruiting

consumers to participate are usually non-governmental organizations that are protesting against unethical or unfair corporate practices (Klein, Smith, John 2004).

Recently, as public attention to corporate social responsibility (CSR) has increasingly grown, and corporate reputations can easily be affected, consumer boycotts have become a substantial management consideration (Klein, Smith and John, 2004). A business targeted by a consumer boycott can be seen as having lost its focus on the market (Klein, Smith and John, 2004). Therefore understanding consumer boycotts is not only interesting for researchers but also important for companies. Hoffmann and Müller (2009) categorize present literature on consumer boycotts into three research areas: (1) the frequency, causes, and goals of boycotts; (2) the consequences of boycotts; and (3) the motivations of participating individuals. Although the third type of study, motivations to participate in a consumer survey, is important to managers, policy makers as well as boycott organizers, it has only recently become a point of study within the past decade (Klein, Smith and John, 2004).

In his book *Consumer Boycotts: Effecting Change through the Marketplace and Media* (1999), Friedman provides a taxonomy of consumer boycotts. To begin with, the location of boycotts varies from international boycotts to local boycotts. According to the historical review of boycotts by Friedman, national boycotts are the most common but international boycotts have grown in numbers as non-governmental organizations and the issues they are working on have become increasingly international. This is likely to be even more accurate in the globalized world of today in which information is even more accessible, nearly 15 years after the publication of the book by Friedman. Although the beginning and ending of a boycott are not always clear, the author also makes distinctions between long term boycotts lasting over two years, medium term boycotts lasting between one and two years, and short term boycotts lasting less than one year. Consumer boycotts also differ in what they are asking from the participants. In the case of a commodity boycott, all brands of a specific product or service category are to be avoided, whereas in a brand or firm boycott a single brand or a firm is to be boycotted. A partial boycott would avoid the purchase of specific products of a product category, such as

those which are seen as too expensive. A partial boycott could also take place only on specific days of the week for instance. (Friedman, 1999)

As the most common organizers of boycotts, Friedman names consumer groups, labour unions, environmental groups, religious groups, organizations representing ethnic and racial minorities, and women's right groups. Hence boycott causes can be violations of consumer rights, animal rights, women's rights, worker's rights and so on. The boycott actions that have taken place are divided into four types. *Action considered boycotts* only announce that a boycott has been considered. *Action requested boycotts* go further by announcing a boycott and requesting participation. In an *action organized boycott* the organization and preparations for a boycott are informed to the public. Finally, an *action taken boycott* proceeds to take concrete actions, for example by initiating demonstrations. Action considered boycotts can also be called media oriented boycotts because they gather media attention on the cause of their boycott. Often these boycott organizers lack the resources to actually organize a boycott. On the other hand, action organized boycotts and action taken boycotts focus on activities in the marketplace and thus can be called marketplace oriented boycotts, although they can be media oriented as well. Friedman also notes that sometimes these activities do not only focus on the negative and avoiding the disapproved boycott targets, but can also take the form of a boycott where companies with positive impact are supported with consumer purchases. (Friedman, 1999)

Friedman categorizes consumer boycotts into two types by their function. Instrumental boycotts have practical objectives whereas expressive boycotts are motivated by voicing the frustration of the participants at the boycott target (Friedman, 1999). Sen, Gürhan-Canli and Morwitz (2001) make another division of consumer boycotts into two main types by the goals of the boycott. The first type is an economic or marketing policy boycott which possesses the goal of changing the marketing practices of the boycott target. An example of such a boycott goal is the lowering of prices of sales products. The second and newer type of a boycott is a political, social, or ethical boycott which aims to change the conduct of the boycott target to be responsible in these areas.

An example of this type of a boycott is a boycott for responsible employment practices. (Sen, Gürhan-Canlı and Morwitz, 2001)

A division can also be made between the parties that function as the target of a boycott and the parties that have actually committed the abhorred actions that initiate the idea of a boycott. In some cases the offending party cannot be accessed directly by the public to boycott. Known as surrogate boycotts, in these instances another party is chosen to be boycotted in the hopes of that party having an influence on the actual offending party. An example of this is the case of condemning the actions of a foreign country but actualizing the boycott by targeting companies from that country, or boycotting travel to the area being boycotted. Thus political boycotts may turn into economic boycotts. Consequently, direct boycotts can be called non surrogate boycotts. (Friedman, 1999)

2.2 Human Motivation

The Oxford Dictionary defines motivation as “a reason or reasons for acting or behaving in a particular way” (Oxford University Press, 2014). A more detailed description explains;

“Motivation arises out of tension-systems which create a state of disequilibrium for the individual. This triggers a sequence of psychological events directed toward the selection of a goal which the individual anticipates will bring about release from the tensions and the selection of patterns of action which he anticipates will bring him to the goal.” (Bayton, 1958, p.282)

One of the first works on motivation was the 1938 publication “Explorations in Personality” by psychologist Henry Murray. Studying the relationship between motivation and behavior, Murray argued that humans tend to have various motivations for their actions. The list of motivations affecting behavior by Murray can be classified into six types of psychogenic needs: ambition needs, materialistic needs, needs to defend status, needs related to social power, social affection needs, and information needs. Material

needs are related to gaining and maintaining material possessions. The category of ambition needs includes needs for achievement, exhibition, and order. The needs to defend status are satisfied by dominance. The needs related to social power consist of abasement, aggression, autonomy, and blame-avoidance. The social affection needs by Murray are affiliation, nurturance, and succor. The information needs deal with the needs to gain and share information. (Murray, 1938)

While Murray's study offers a lengthy list of human needs, a 1943 article, "A theory of human motivation" by Abraham Maslow, introduced an entire theoretical model for understanding how human beings are motivated by needs. His model has often been cited up until the present, also in business contexts. In his article, Maslow argues that human needs can be organized into a hierarchy. The model (see figure 1 below) includes interrelated physiological, safety, love, self-esteem, and self-actualization needs in a specific order. Physiological needs are seen as the most important as they are basic needs that the human body requires to function. The next level needs concerning personal safety includes personal security, financial security, and health. After fulfilling physiological and safety needs, a human is seen to become motivated to seek belongingness and love from interpersonal relationships. As for safety needs, the lack of belonging and love can lead to psychological problems in an individual. The following level deals with the motivation to feel self-esteem and respect which are related to gaining recognition from others. The highest level on the hierarchy of needs is self-actualization; realizing one's full potential. (Maslow, 1943)



Figure 1. A hierarchy of needs. (Maslow, A. H., Frager, R., & Cox, R., 1970)

According to the model by Maslow, humans tend to satisfy basic physiological needs on the bottom of the hierarchy before looking to fulfill psychological and self-fulfillment needs that are placed higher in the hierarchy. On the other hand, once needs from a certain level of the hierarchy have been achieved, an individual will not be motivated by these anymore, but will look to the next level of motivations in the hierarchy. Still, Maslow notes that individuals may have different preferences over specific needs and the order in which the individual becomes motivated by them. In addition, an individual may be motivated by different levels of the need hierarchy at the same time, but is dominated by a certain need. (Maslow, 1943)

More generally, human needs have been divided into two categories: needs arising from physiological tensions and needs arising from subjective psychological tensions. While physiological needs such as sleeping and eating are fairly easy to list, there are differing views on the psychological needs. Nevertheless, psychological needs have

been clustered into three general categories: affectional needs, ego-bolstering needs, and ego-defensive needs. Affectional needs relate to maintaining relationships with other individuals. Ego-bolstering needs deal with emphasizing oneself and gaining recognition from others. Ego-defensive needs relate to avoiding physical or psychological harm. Similarly to Murray and Maslow, Bayton (1958) points out that an individual may be driven by multiple motivations in a specific situation, while one of the needs can be dominant. Bayton also notes that identical behaviors do not necessarily have identical motivational backgrounds, as two individuals or the same individual at different points of time may have differing motivations. Needs also have differing significances to individuals, and the higher the significance of a need is to an individual, the more cognitively the individual is seen to be involved with it. (Bayton, 1958)

An important notion and an obstacle for the study of consumer motivations is the possible difference true motives and rationalized motives. Individuals are not always aware what drives their behavior and thus may rationalize by naming motives that suit their personalities. Another possible reason for not disclosing true motives is that the motive may be socially unacceptable. In this case the individual is withholding the true motivation consciously. Noticing and dealing with these effects can be problematic for a researcher. Nonetheless, a rationalized motive can be a real motive for an individual as far as the cognition of the individual in the situation is concerned. (Bayton, 1958)

2.3 Motivations to Participate in a Boycott

Compared to the study of human motivation, motivations of consumers to participate in boycotts is a fairly recent area of research. While motivation in general was studied around the mid-20th century by psychologists and the results later applied to business contexts, the research on boycott motivations has become of interest, especially to business scholars, only during the past few decades. As businesses are often the targets of consumer boycotts and are threatened by their damaging effects, it is of interest for businesses to understand the motivations of consumers deciding to boycott or not to boycott. As studies indicate, consumers have differing motives to participate in a boycott

and they tend to have multiple motivations for participation as well (Klein, Smith and John, 2002). Similarly to the goals of consumer boycotts (Friedman, 1999), motivations to boycott can be divided into instrumental motivations, those that aim to make a concrete change on the target, and expressive motivations, those that aim to express the consumers' emotions such as anger with the target. Instrumental motivations that are related to making a change in the actions of the boycott target were found to be the most common motivations for participating in a boycott in the study of Klein, Smith and John (2002).

A study by Hoffmann (2013) suggests that different motivations justify different aspects of a boycott decision. In his paper Hoffmann also argues that consumers tend to rationalize their boycott participation with different motivations. Thus attitudes and beliefs would not be the only boycott motivations, but for example the relationship of the consumer with the boycott target should be taken into account. However most often the motivations to participate in a boycott are studied from a cost-benefit approach according to which consumers weigh the perceived costs and benefits of participating in a boycott (Sen, Gürhan-Canli and Morwitz, 2001). Sen, Gürhan-Canli and Morwitz (2001) also see boycott participation as a social dilemma where consumers have to decide between maximizing individual benefits, that is not to boycott but to continue consuming, and collective benefits by boycotting and refraining oneself from consumption.

In reality, the range of motivations to participate in a consumer boycott seems to be more complex than this. For example Kozinets and Handelman (1998) discuss the individual benefits of participating in a boycott. Thus deciding to participate or not to participate in a boycott cannot be merely seen as an effort to gain collective benefits or avoid personal costs. In addition to the effect of ethical judgements and personal benefits to motivations to participate in a boycott, the influence of the group organizing the boycott as well as the surrounding society need to be considered when studying consumer boycott motivations. In the following, a range of boycott motivations studied by earlier research will be discussed.

Making a Difference

The motivation of making a difference is an instrumental boycott motivation to create societal change through participating in a consumer boycott (Klein, Smith and John, 2004). By participating in a boycott a consumer can strive to change the behavior of the boycott target and voice the opinion of the consumer on correct conduct regarding the boycott issue. Making a difference could be viewed as the main purpose of participating in a boycott. A boycott participant could be motivated to make a difference on any boycott agenda, such as the ethical treatment of the environment or workers. From their study on consumer motivations to boycott, Klein, Smith and John (2004) concluded that perceiving a consumer boycott as an appropriate action in a specific boycott case and believing that a difference can be made through a boycott are both important motivations for consumers in considering to participate in a boycott.

Furthermore, Sen, Gürhan-Canli and Morwitz (2001) as well as Hoffmann (2013) found out that the perceived likelihood of boycott success and personal ability to make an impact on the boycott cause are important motivations for boycott participation. In the study of Braunsberger and Buckler (2011) on a Canadian seafood boycott, the boycott participants expressed that the most important motivation for participating in the boycott is making the boycott target change its egregious conduct. Thus, it seems that making a difference in society is an important motivation for individuals to participate in a consumer boycott. Nevertheless, an individual needs to see that he or she will be able to create the sought after change, by the means of a boycott. From a less altruistic viewpoint, the motivation to participate in a boycott in order to make a difference in society could also be explained by boosting one's ego through achievements. Self-enhancement will be discussed in the following.

Self-Enhancement

Based on theories indicating the importance of self-esteem in human behavior, Klein, Smith and John (2002) studied the connection between self-enhancement and boycott participation. The authors made a presumption regarding the enhancement of one's self-esteem by publicly supporting values that are perceived important or popular

attitudes being a motivation to participate in a consumer boycott. Thus individuals would have an egoistic motivation to participate in boycotts. However, any relationship between the motive of self-enhancement and boycott participation was not found in this study (Klein, Smith and John, 2002). In a following study, the same authors hypothesized on theories indicating that helping others is a significant source of self-enhancement. Thus, individuals could be motivated to enhance their self-esteem by helping others through boycott participation. Moreover, helping others by participating in a boycott would not only improve the self-perception of oneself, but also the perceptions other individuals have on that boycott participant. On the other hand, boycott participation could also be seen as an act of self-enhancement by avoiding negative perceptions of oneself that non-participation could cause (Klein, Smith and John, 2004). Thus individuals could be participating in consumer boycotts because of social pressure and to avoid guilt. From this later study the authors were able to conclude that self-enhancement is indeed an important motivation for and a reward gained from boycott participation (Klein, Smith and John, 2004).

In a study by Braunsberger and Buckler (2011), over 70 percent of the boycott pledgees to a Canadian seafood boycott indicated themselves being motivated to participate by seeing themselves as following their moral standards. Also Hoffmann (2013) acknowledged self-enhancement as a significant motivation for boycott participation, but views it, at least partly, as a rationalization to boycott rather than an intrinsic motivation. Kozinets and Handelman (1998) argued for boycott participation being an individualizing behaviour, a means to identify and express oneself morally as well as to be able to stand out from the crowd. This view of consumers becoming motivated to participate in boycotts by individualistic triggers differs from other study results in which boycott participation motivations have been related to following the masses and seeking acceptance from others. According to Kozinets and Handelman, the act of participating in a consumer boycott is in fact more motivating for an individual than a desirable end result of a boycott, as participation is an intrinsically valuable experience. In light of these study results, it seems that in addition to altruistic motivations, consumers can also have egoistic motivations to participate in a boycott. In this instance,

consumers participate in boycotts in order to feel better about themselves and boost their image in the eyes of other people.

Clean Hands

A studied boycott motivation closely related to self-enhancement is forbearing oneself from a boycott target by participating in the boycott. In the study by Klein, Smith and John (2002) having “clean hands”, referring to feeling good about oneself and avoiding the feeling of guilt by dissociating oneself from the boycott target, was a common motivation for participating in a boycott. Also Sen, Gürhan-Canli and Morwitz (2001) discovered social pressure to be a significant contributor to boycott participation, seemingly giving importance to the opinions of other individuals on one’s behaviour. However, in the study of Braunsberger and Buckler (2011) pledgees to the Canadian seafood boycott did not indicate the avoidance of guilt as a motivation to participate in the boycott, but expressed their wish to distance themselves from the boycott target and its behaviour by refusing to purchase its products. It seems that consumers can be motivated to participate in boycotts to stay away from the conduct of boycott targets both in their own minds and other peoples’ eyes.

Proximity to Boycott Issue

Through in-depth interviews and a survey on consumers who have previously participated in boycotts, Albrecht *et al.* (2013) discovered that involvement of the consumer with the boycott cause is the most important motivation for a consumer to participate in a boycott. The study results of Hoffmann (2013) support this argument by stating that proximity to the actions of the boycott target has the greatest influence on boycott participation of a consumer. However, this cannot be observed directly from the arguments of consumers as they tend to reason for their boycott participation with other motives that support the decision (Hoffmann, 2013). Another observation made in this study was that motivations speaking against boycott participation were made less significant by the respondents. Hoffmann argues that as consumers do not have a single strong and valid motive to participate in a boycott, they substitute quality with the quantity

of rationalizations to participate. Thus it seems that individuals may make up reasons for themselves to justify their boycott participation.

Nevertheless, according to the results of research, proximity to the boycott cause is an important motivation and denominator for boycott participation. Depending on the boycott case as well as the participants, proximity could mean physical distance to the effects of the boycott target's actions, effects of the boycott target's conduct to one's own life, or personal importance of the boycott issue. For example, a physically close political event can have a significant effect on one's life, whereas the appropriate treatment of animals can be a personally important issue for an individual. As an important motivation for boycott participation, proximity to the boycott issue could also determine other boycott motivations as well as how strongly an individual feels about these motivations.

Expressing Anger

Expressing anger is a non-instrumental motivation to participate in a consumer boycott. Around half of the respondents used expressing anger as a motive to participate in the boycott presented in the study of Klein, Smith and John (2002). Also in the netnography study conducted by Braunsberger and Buckler (2011), over half of the researched boycott participants expressed that they were motivated to participate in the boycott in order to express their anger at the boycott target. The degree of hostility in the responses was analyzed to be high. The boycott participants expressed their will to dissociate themselves from the boycott targets until changes in the policies of the boycott target would be made (Braunsberger and Buckler, 2011). Expressing anger may be dependent on the personality of the boycott participant, as individuals tend to express their emotions in varying ways and degrees. Logically the likelihood to express anger on a boycott target would also depend on the proximity of the boycott issue and the consumer; the motivation to participate in a boycott increasing as the boycott issue is closer to the individual.

Willingness to Punish

In the study on the Canadian seafood boycott, over 20 percent of the studied boycott participants expressed their willingness to punish the boycott target for its unacceptable conduct being a motivation for their boycott participation. For many of the boycott pledgees in this study, willingness to punish was connected to their motivation to express anger at the boycott target. In this boycott case, a number of the participants pledged to expand the boycott by boycotting the entire Canadian economy due to the country permitting seal hunting. (Braunsberger and Buckler, 2011) Willingness to punish as a motivation to participate in a consumer boycott can thus be seen as an extended expression of anger, but could also be a means to strongly oppose a misconduct and demand for change by demonstrating consumer power. Also willingness to punish could be linked to the importance of the boycott issue to an individual and degree of disapproval of the boycott target conduct.

Animosity

Studies on tension between countries have found that such tension negatively affects foreign product purchase behavior of consumers in these countries (Klein, Ettenson and Morris, 1998). Such tension may be triggered by territory disputes, economic arguments, diplomatic disagreements, or religious differences for instance (Riefler and Diamantopolous, 2007). Klein, Ettenson and Morris (1998, p.90) call this phenomenon consumer animosity, which they define as “remnants of antipathy related to previous or ongoing military, political or economic events.” Smith and Li (2010) studied the animosity of Chinese consumers towards Japan due to the long controversial history of the two countries as a motivation for the Chinese to boycott Japanese products. The results of the study indicated that a higher level of animosity towards the foreign country in question increased the boycotting of products produced in that country. This finding is in line with an earlier study by Ettenson and Klein (2005) where the animosity of Australian consumers towards France due to French nuclear tests in the Pacific was positively connected to their willingness to boycott French products. Thus animosity towards a foreign country that affects boycott participation can be caused by a single event or a

longer history of disputes between countries. Animosity shows how international businesses can suffer because of the actions of their home countries.

Political Consumerism

A study by Hoffmann (2011) discovered that political consumerism in which political views are expressed through purchasing behavior motivates individuals to participate in consumer boycotts. Hoffmann observed that the studied boycotters argued for their decision to participate in a boycott with the need to control the behavior of multinational corporations. Boycott participants may perceive governments as unable to moderate these companies and therefore decide to use their consumer power to influence the target companies. According to the results of the study, consumers that were seen to be highly politically motivated were also seen to actively seek for corporations that need to be retaliated against with a boycott. A number of the studied boycott participants also appeared ethnocentric in their efforts to protect their domestic economy by boycotting foreign corporations and products. (Hoffmann, 2011) Political consumerism can create many motivates for consumers to participate in boycotts. Various political views or ideologies, such as green ideas, can motivate individuals to pursue societal changes of their preference though purchasing behavior.

Religious Beliefs

Some studies have focused on studying religious beliefs as a motivation for individuals to participate in consumer boycotts. By researching consumer boycotts organized by Christian groups, Swimberghe, Flurry, and Parker (2011) discovered that religious consumers make ethical judgments with their internal religious values, as opposed to a religious group's influence. The study also revealed that when comparing to liberal Christians, consumers that hold conservative Christian beliefs were more likely to boycott organizations holding contradictory values than those of the consumer. A study by Al-hyari *et al.* (2012) presented the idea that the Islamic religion has a significant influence on consumer behavior in the Middle East. As an example, the authors referred to the publication of cartoons on Prophet Muhammad in a Danish newspaper resulting in wide boycotts of Danish products in the Islamic world. This well-known case showed that

country animosity inflicted by religious incidents can change the perceptions of consumers on products and become a motivation to boycott companies and countries. A boycott based on religious conflict was also found to be longer lasting compared to boycotts with other motives behind them (Al-hyari et al., 2012). Religious beliefs can thus motivate consumers to participate in boycotts in order to punish parties with values that differ from or insult the values of the boycotting consumers.

2.4 Motivations for Non-Participation

Yuksel (2013) calls for the importance of studying the reasons why consumers decide not to participate in boycotts arguing that studying these motivations is equally important as the motivations to participate in a consumer boycott. While Klein, Smith and John (2004) explain that the reason for non-participation in a boycott is connected to the lack of motivations to boycott, Yuksel points out that motivations for non-participation are not necessarily the opposites of motivations to boycott, which makes giving attention to these motivations important. Thus, in the paper Yuksel concentrates directly on why consumers decide not to boycott and what are the motivations behind this choice. Although people could create excuses for not participating in a boycott in order to reduce disapproval from others or their own guilt, motivations of consumers who decide not to participate in a boycott could be important knowledge both for boycott organizers and boycott targets to take into consideration in their strategies. (Yuksel, 2013) Previously studied motivations for non-participation are discussed below.

Counterarguments

Counterarguments for boycott participation revolve around the consequences of boycott participation, such as causing workers to lose their jobs due to a consumer boycott on their employer (Klein, Smith and John, 2004). According to the study by Hoffmann (2013), participants to a boycott have the tendency to downplay any motivations for non-participation. However, as Hoffmann admits, studies where only consumers participating in a boycott are researched (Hoffmann, 2011; Hoffmann 2013) may not be applicable for finding out counterarguments for boycott participation. For non-

boycotters the counterarguments for boycott participation are likely to be stronger as they dominate possible motivations for boycott participation. In the Yuksel's research study (2013), non-boycotters argued for their decision of not participating with the inability to know all the details and aspects of the boycott case. Therefore, boycott targets could be seen to be wrongly accused and hence consumers may not want to take the risk of making uninformed decisions by boycotting a company based on the information provided by the boycott organizer. In addition, consumers may also feel that competitors of the boycott target may not be any better options for business and thus rationalize that a boycott on one company would be redundant (Yuksel, 2013). Counterarguments as a motivation to not participate in a consumer boycott may be a too generalized umbrella term, therefore they may not help to better understand consumer motivations for non-participation. Some more specific motivations that could be categorized under counterarguments are reviewed in the following.

Inefficiency

While perceived efficiency of a boycott can motivate consumers to participate in it, perceiving a boycott to be inefficient in accomplishing its goals can have the opposite effect. Consumers can decide not to participate in a boycott by thinking that their boycott actions will not have enough influence to make a change or that the overall consumer participation in the boycott will not be large enough, and thus their efforts and possible sacrifices made would be in vain (Hoffmann, 2011; Klein, Smith and John, 2004; Sen, Gürhan-Canli and Morwitz, 2001). In the study by Yuksel (2013), consumers argued for their decision not to participate in a boycott with perceiving the boycott claims made by the boycott organizer as unrealistic, as well as the boycott being too distant both physically and in terms of emotional attachment to the boycott issue. Therefore, consumers can feel unable to help with their participation or unattached to the boycott issue in order to take action. Yet Yuksel notes that the perceived distance of the boycott issue could also be interpreted as a mere excuse for forgoing a boycott. According to the interview results, non-participants also had trust issues with the credibility of the boycott organizer. In general, claiming that a boycott will be inefficient might be an excuse for

some consumers not to make an effort to participate in it and is destructive for the idea of a boycott where consumers seek change using the power of masses.

Free Riding

A demotivation to boycott related to the inefficiency of a boycott is “free riding”. Consumers can decide not to participate in a boycott by moving the responsibility of boycotting to other consumers. They may think that their boycott efforts will not be needed as the participation of other consumers will be enough for the boycott to reach its goals. The phenomenon of free riding can also negatively affect the motivation of consumers to participate in boycotts in another way, as possible free riders can be seen to unfairly take advantage of the sacrifices of other individuals participating in the boycott (Sen, Gürhan-Canli, and Morwitz, 2001; Klein, Smith and John, 2004). Free riding of other consumers is seen as a problem especially when the costs of boycotting are high and consumers participating in the boycott need to make large sacrifices. (Sen, Gürhan-Canli and Morwitz, 2001) Therefore, those consumers who participate in a boycott may feel as though their effort are futile and be demotivated to participate when seeing free riders.

Constrained Consumption

In some consumer boycotts, participants may be required to change their accustomed purchasing patterns. Klein, Smith and John (2004) as well as Hoffmann (2011) have discovered that this type of constrained consumption can be a motivation for individuals to not participate in a consumer boycott. Especially in the case where a consumer is a heavy user of a product or service that is to be boycotted, willingness to participate in that boycott decreases as the cost of participation for that individual increases (Klein, Smith and John, 2004). Also Sen, Gürhan-Canli and Morwitz (2001) concluded from their research that preference for a product to be boycotted demotivated participation in the studied boycott, and Albrecht *et al.* (2013) alike argued that commitment to a brand negatively affects motivation to boycott. The likelihood of not participating in a boycott seems to also be affected by the availability of substitute products worth considering for the product to be boycotted (Sen, Gürhan-Canli and

Morwitz, 2001). In the study of Klein, Smith and John (2004) some study participants saw a consumer boycott as an opportunity to try products they have not consumed before.

Respondents in the study of Yuksel (2013) emphasized the right of freedom to make one's own consumption decisions as the reason for non-participation in consumer boycotts. The attempts of the boycott organizer to influence consumers were viewed negatively and as obstructing the personal freedom of the non-participants in the research. By contrast, some of the participants to the Canadian seafood boycott claimed to expand on the targets of boycott, from a single company to the whole industry or the entire country, which seems to be in conflict with study results indicating that rising costs of a boycott affect boycott participation negatively (Braunsberger and Buckler, 2011). In some instances consumers may separate the boycott cause such as management problems and consumption of the product, thus foregoing the boycott (Yuksel, 2013). This could also be connected to the perceived inefficiency or distance of a boycott.

Trust in the Boycott Target

In a study of a consumer boycott targeting a multinational corporation that was relocating a factory abroad, Hoffmann and Müller (2009) discovered that the perceived reputation and trust towards the holding company of the local factory had the greatest impact on boycott participation. Therefore, for both customers and non-customers of the holding company, worse perceived reputation and lower trust towards the company increased the inclination of an individual to boycott that company in order to retaliate it for the offshoring decision. However, in a later study Hoffmann (2013) argued that for consumers participating in a boycott, trust towards the management of the boycott target company was a weak motivation for non-participation and its significance was also downplayed in the statements of the boycott participants. The motivation of trust in the boycott target could be linked to the proximity of an individual to a boycott target company and its products. Thus consumers who prefer a specific company would decide not to boycott it not only because a boycott would constrain consumption but because that individual feels emotionally close to the company itself as well. Boycott participation could

thus be a tradeoff between defending an ethical issue and personal preference for a company.

2.5 Focus of the Present Study

Research on motivations of individuals to participate in consumer boycotts has studied various boycott cases and issues. Although the studied boycott types and study methods have been versatile, the boycott motivations studied so far are rather general. Although this allows applying the motivations to different boycott cases, it maintains the analysis of boycott motivations on a universal level. However, boycott motivations are more complex than this and additional motivations to be studied are also likely to be specific to certain boycott issues.

Although single organized boycotts are easier to identify, research and theorize on, further studies need to focus on larger consumer movements based on ideologies that aim to change consumer culture (Kozinets and Handelman, 2004). Research reviewed in this chapter have not only focused on different boycott issues, such as protecting seals (Braunsberger and Buckler, 2011) or local employment (Hoffmann and Müller, 2009), but have also chosen particular boycott cases to study their specific motivations. Kozinets and Handelman (2004) argue that the study of consumer boycotts will remain incomplete until the larger ideological movements that motivate consumers to participate in these boycotts are researched.

One of these wider ideological consumer movements is green consumerism, which Cambridge Dictionaries (2014) defines as “the situation in which consumers want to buy things that have been produced in a way that protects the natural environment”. Therefore, refusing to purchase products that are seen as environmentally harmful can be a way for consumers to protect the environment as well. Examples of environmentally oriented boycotts organized in the past include the Australian boycott against France and its environmentally harmful nuclear testing in the Pacific (Ettenson and Klein, 2005) and the boycott against Canadian seal hunting (Braunsberger and Buckler, 2011). In fact,

according to a 2012 Greendex survey by National Geographic, 56 percent of the respondents from 17 countries all over the world described themselves as green by favoring environmentally friendly products while avoiding environmentally harmful consumption (National Geographic, 2012). Nevertheless, although environmental awareness has been increasing, especially in the Western markets during the past decades, ecological consumption has been meeting obstacles in becoming a mainstream consumer movement according to Moisander (2007). Much of these complexities are attributed to the motivations for and practice of green consumption (Moisander, 2007). Similarly to participating in consumer boycotts, behaving in an environmentally friendly way as a consumer carries motivational conflicts related to the collective goals of environmental protection and personal benefits (Moisander, 2007). Also the ideology of green consumerism is burdened by the problem of free riding (Moisander, 2007).

Similarly to how Kozinets and Handelman criticized the existing body of studies on consumer movements, Moisander (2007, p.404) argues that “Green consumerism has been studied as a motivational tendency of an individual consumer. There is a need to shift the focus of environmental policy measures from individual consumers and their decision making to more collective forms of social action.” Considering these suggested knowledge gaps, the present research will focus on studying the motivations of consumers to participate in boycotts that are focused on green issues. Although understanding motivations can be problematic for researchers and consumers, they may be easier to understand in a specific context such as green consumerism. Instead of studying the motivations of individuals to participate in a specific consumer boycott, participation in green consumer boycotts will be viewed as an ideology or a part of a consumer culture. Thus participation in a green boycott will be viewed as avoiding environmentally unfriendly products and companies while favoring green products. According to this idea, motivations for boycott participation studied in this paper could be applied to green consumer boycotts on a general level. This is not only interesting from an academic point of view, but can also be important information for companies to understand consumer behavior and serve their market better. In addition, consumer

boycott organizers, such as non-governmental organizations, can use this information to engage consumers better with their campaigns.

In order to investigate this research problem of “What motivates consumers to boycott non-green products?”, the following propositions for potential green boycott motivations have been formulated. They are based on previous findings on boycott motivations that were presented in this review. These propositions will be used to study their possible relationship with green boycotting. Some of the previously studied boycott motivations have been omitted from the propositions, as there is overlap in the motivations, some motivations can be judged to be less relevant in the context of green consumption, and the number of propositions would be too high to study within this thesis. First, motivations related to country animosity and religion are left out from the propositions as they are regarded as irrelevant in the context of green consumption. Second, trust in the boycott target as a motivation not to boycott is seen as contradictory in the case where a consumer judges a product to be non-green. Third, motivation to punish the boycott target can be seen to be included in the motivation to express anger, and motivation not to boycott because of counterarguments to boycotting is included in other motivations not to boycott. The nine propositions for green boycott motives to be studied in this thesis are as follows:

Proposition 1: Consumers are motivated to participate in green boycotts by being able to make a difference on the boycott issue.

Proposition 2: Consumers are motivated to participate in green boycotts by feeling better about themselves.

Proposition 3: Consumers are motivated to participate in green boycotts by keeping their hands clean.

Proposition 4: Consumers are motivated to participate in green boycotts by feeling close to the issue of boycott.

Proposition 5: Consumers are motivated to participate in green boycotts by their wanting to express anger at the boycott target.

Proposition 6: Consumers are motivated to participate in green boycotts by being able to express their political views through consumption.

Proposition 7: Consumers are motivated not to participate in green boycotts by boycott inefficiency.

Proposition 8: Consumer are motivated not to participate in green boycotts by the free rider problem.

Proposition 9: Consumers are motivated not to participate in green boycotts by constrained consumption.

In addition to setting the propositions to investigate on the research questions one “What motivates consumers to boycott non-green products?” and two “What motivates consumers not to boycott non-green products?”, the research will additionally investigate the effect of the individual’s environment on the motivations to boycott with research question three “Does individual environment impact consumer’s motivation to boycott non-green products?”, as well as the possible effects of boycott frequency and socio-demographic factors on motivations to boycott non-green products with research question four “Does boycott frequency or socio-demographics affect motivations to boycott non-green products?”. The methodology on how these propositions and research questions will be studied is discussed in the following chapter.

3. METHODOLOGY

As a frame of reference for structuring this methodology chapter, this project will use the following methodological framework presented by Arbnor and Bjerke in *Methodology for creating business knowledge* (2009). In this book the scholars discuss the relationships between the philosophy of science, methodology, and business. Accordingly, the framework presented below connects the different considerations that need to be made in the process of knowledge creation. Namely, these concepts are *ultimate presumptions, paradigm, methodological view, operative paradigm, and study area*. These concepts and their relation to each other will be discussed in the context of this research project in the following. However, for the convenience of the reader and because of the order of the research process in this study, the study area of this thesis has been discussed in the previous chapters.

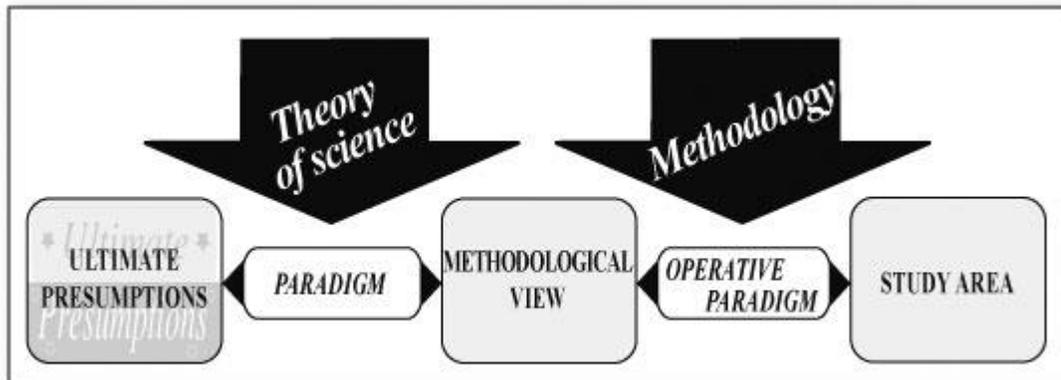


Figure 1.8. Theory of Science and Methodology

Figure 2. Arbnor and Bjerke (2009, p.15)

3.1 Ultimate Presumptions

According to Arbnor and Bjerke (2009), defining a research methodology starts with the ultimate presumptions that every individual holds either consciously or unconsciously. As the authors explain, “even to attempt to investigate, explain and understand reality we make certain assumptions about its quality, what it is like. These

assumptions become a guide for the creator of knowledge in his or her effort to research reality” (p.7). These presumptions held by individuals deal with the looks of the environment and one’s role in it in a philosophical demeanour. The ultimate presumptions of an individual are unlikely to change at least in the short run. Ultimate presumptions affect how problems as well as techniques to solve those problems are seen. (Arbnor and Bjerke, 2009)

The ultimate presumptions of the researcher in this paper include the environment being both objective and subjective. The researcher believes that the reality can be studied objectively, meanwhile the experiences of individuals are subjective in nature. In the study of consumer boycott motivations, the motivations to boycott are believed to vary among individuals and depending on the situation and environment. As the consumer is seen to be influenced by the environment including other individuals, companies and boycott organizers, consumers are seen as a part of a system where each part affects another. Thus, the motivations of an individual consumer to boycott are seen to be affected by the system the consumer is a part of.

3.2 Paradigm

The above described ultimate presumptions and the practical use of methodological views are connected by the concept of a paradigm (see figure 2) (Arbnor and Bjerke, 2009). These paradigms are studied by theorists of science (Arbnor and Bjerke, 2009). A scholar who is seen as one of the most significant founders of the concept of a paradigm is Thomas Kuhn (1922-1996) (Arbnor and Bjerke, 2009). Kuhn (1996, p.10) defines a paradigm as “some accepted examples of actual scientific practice-examples which include law, theory, application, and instrumentation together-provide models from which spring particular coherent traditions of scientific research.” While Arbnor and Bjerke consider the work of Kuhn in the theory of science as significant, they note that as a natural scientist he believed that paradigms are replaced by new ones in time, whereas in social sciences older paradigms remain as new ones emerge (Arbnor and Bjerke, 2009). However, unlike in natural science, social science paradigms are less

likely to shift as it would require a change in the ultimate presumptions (Arbnor and Bjerke, 2009).

According to the understanding of Arbnor and Bjerke (2009) a paradigm consists of the following four concepts:

Conception of reality comprises of the philosophical ideas a researcher has about the construction of reality. In the mind of a researcher the reality may exist independently or through the mediation of an individual. For example, the reality can be perceived as orderly with causes and effects, it may be chaotic and inconsistent in its nature, or it can be a combination of consistency and inconsistency at the same time. (Arbnor and Bjerke, 2009)

Conception of science of a person is influenced by knowledge gained through education. Education provides a researcher with different concepts, beliefs, as well as creates interests concerning study topics. (Arbnor and Bjerke, 2009)

Scientific ideal is connected to the persona of the researcher and his or her aspirations as a researcher. For instance, science can be viewed as objective and something that is not affected by partial interests. On the other hand, a researcher may believe that objectivity is not possible in science and intends to change society through knowledge creation. (Arbnor and Bjerke, 2009)

Ethics and aesthetics deal with the perceptions of what is viewed as moral or immoral, and beautiful or ugly according to the researcher (Arbnor and Bjerke, 2009).

Naturally, there are classifications of a paradigm created by other scholars as well. Another taxonomy recognized by business research is the classification of a paradigm by Burrell and Morgan (1979). The following philosophical assumptions “underwrite different approaches to social science” (Burrell and Morgan, 1979, p.1) and define a paradigm:

Ontological assumptions are associated with the essence of the studied phenomena. The reality can be assumed to be objective and external to the individual or it may be viewed as subjective and thus the reality is created in the mind of the individual. (Burrell and Morgan, 1979)

Epistemological assumptions concern the understanding and the communication of knowledge. These assumptions include the forms of knowledge that can be acquired and the ways to differentiate between true and false information. Epistemological assumptions also deal with the dichotomy of acquired and experienced knowledge. (Burrell and Morgan, 1979)

Human nature consists of the assumptions related to the relationship between human beings and their environment. As social sciences concentrate on studying the human life, assumptions on human nature lay in between the ends of humans and their experiences as a product of the environment and the human as the creator of the environment. (Burrell and Morgan, 1979)

Methodology is related to the three above assumptions as each of them define how knowledge on the social world can be acquired. The nature of the social world studied can be seen somewhere between the ends of an objective, external and hard view and a subjective, personal and soft view of the world. (Burrell and Morgan, 1979)

Despite these scholars uses of different terms, it is visible that there are similarities as well as overlaps between the classification of Arbnor and Bjerke and the classification by Burrell and Morgan. Either of these classifications could be used to choose an appropriate paradigm, but the researcher in this paper chooses to use the classification by Arbnor and Bjerke as the researcher views it as easily approachable and comprehensive in laying down the different considerations in defining a paradigm and further guiding the practical research.

Paradigmatic Assumptions of the Researcher

Conception of reality: the researcher in this project views reality as being filled with both objective and subjective facts. The researcher assumes that there is an objective reality that exist without the mediation of the mind of an individual. At the same time, the researcher believes that individuals experience the environment subjectively and can thus behave differently depending on the individual and the situation one is in. Therefore, in the context of this study, the researcher believes that consumers can have different motivations to participate in boycotts. In addition, the investigator in this research believes that the environment has a role in the motivations of a consumer to participate in a boycott. Moreover, a consumer is seen to be a part of a “system” consisting of different parts of the environment such as other consumer, companies, and boycott organizers. These system parts are seen to have an effect on the motivations and thus the behaviour of an individual consumer, as the consumer and the other parts of the system affect the functioning of each other and the whole system.

Conception of science: as the conception of reality could indicate, the researcher believes that consumers are to be studied as parts of systems where different parts of the whole systems, such as consumers and companies, affect the entire system. Thus, consumers cannot be studied in isolation but in the context of the entire system. In order to study the motivations of consumers to participate in green boycotts, the other parts of the system have to be taken into consideration.

Scientific ideal: the researcher sees the creation of knowledge as both objective and subjective. The investigator assumes that complete objectivity cannot be reached especially in the study of consumer behaviour as consumers are individuals who all behave differently. The researcher also believes that research cannot be fully objective because even though following pre-established codes of conduct in methodology, it is heavily influenced by the knowledge and interests of, and choices made by the researcher. On the other hand, the researcher believes in certain objectivity by following these pre-established rules of knowledge creation and not having too much influence of the results

of the study. The researcher also believes in being able to make generalizations to a certain extent, for example in researching the most typical motivations of consumers to participate in green boycotts. Nevertheless, in the study of a complex social phenomena, interpretations are needed in order to create further understanding as opposed to settling for numerical information. The researcher intends to improve the existing picture of consumer boycott participation.

Ethics and aesthetics: considering the ethical viewpoint on the knowledge creation process, the researcher believes that consumers should be studied only voluntarily so that they are aware what they are participating in. Therefore, individuals will be asked whether they are willing to participate in the research. Participants to the study will be promised confidentiality by not handing their responses to any third parties. The data collected will be held only by the researcher. In addition, participants will be informed about the purpose of the study for them to be able to make an informed decision on their participation. Questions inquired from the participants will be designed so that they are relevant and can be comfortably answered to. The responses gained will be analysed collectively and only within this research project. From an aesthetical point of view, the researcher will strive for a report which is clear and concise and where study results are reported understandably.

3.3 Methodological View

According to Arbnor and Bjerke, all paradigms in social sciences can be categorized into three methodological views. These views are titled as the analytical view, the systems view, and the actors view. These methodological views provide the prerequisites for the design of practical research instruments, which in the methodological framework is the development of an operative paradigm. The three methodological views, the analytical view, the systems view, and the actors view, can be placed between an objectivist-rationalistic and a subjectivist-relativistic ends of a conception of reality. In addition, the views differ in their goals to either explain or understand reality. (Arbnor and Bjerke, 2009) These three methodological views are briefly introduced in the following:

The analytical view perceives the reality as being objective and logical. In research with an analytical view the knowledge created is considered as independent of the observer. Within the analytical view the reality is seen as a whole that is the sum of its parts. In order to achieve the goal of the analytical view that is a generalizable observation of the reality, the parts of the whole need to be studied separately after which they are added together. The studied parts of reality are explained by making judgements that are verified by the research. (Arbnor and Bjerke, 2009)

The systems view can be placed between the ends of an objectivist-rational and a subjectivist-relativistic conception of reality. Thus in the systems view the reality comprises of facts that are either objective or subjective in nature. As in the analytical view, the reality consists of wholes, but the whole does not necessary equal the sum of the parts. This is caused by synergy between the parts that determine the whole. In the systems view the parts are either explained or understood by studying the characteristics of the whole. (Arbnor and Bjerke, 2009)

The actors view manifests that reality is socially constructed and comprises of meanings. In this methodological view human beings are actors that create the reality and at the same time the reality creates the human being. The whole is understood by the limited understanding of the actor on the subject. (Arbnor and Bjerke, 2009)

The Choice of a Methodological View

Considering the paradigmatic assumptions the researcher has made in this chapter, the researcher views the systems view as the best fitting methodological view for this thesis. The systems view is in accordance with the assumptions of the researcher concerning the reality of subjective and objective facts as well as viewing the studied objects as parts of larger systems.

The systems view emerged within business during the 1950's. Although the analytical view has been the most popular methodological view in business studies, the

systems view is seen to be very popular in business thinking. The paradigmatic thinking behind the systems view is based on three overlapping philosophies: systems theory, holism, and structuralism. What all of these philosophies emphasize is the importance of relationships between studied objects. Moreover, according to the assumptions behind the systems view, the factive reality is structured in such a way that the whole differs from the sum of its parts. Therefore, in addition to studying the parts of a system, the relationships between these parts are important due to the synergy effects. In the context of this research, consumers are viewed as active actors in their environment and their motivations cannot be studied without considering other parts in the system of green boycotts. These system parts that can effect consumer motivations are boycott targets, boycott organizers, as well as other individuals. The systems view uses system theory as its prerequisite, although theories are not followed rigidly as wholes in reality are assumed to differ from the sum of their parts. Thus, the prerequisites for research are analogies that are based on similarities in structure and form with other study findings. Accordingly, in addition to systems thinking, the prerequisites for this study and inspiration for analogies are the previously studied motivations explaining boycott participation. (Arbnor and Bjerke, 2009)

Within the systems view knowledge is created by seeking to explain or understand a system by reproducing finality relations. These “purposes behind a driving force” studied in this research are the motivations of consumers to participate in green boycotts. The results gained from studies within the systems view are structural models or representative interpretations. These study results in turn lead to typical cases or classification mechanisms. The goal of this study is to attempt to explain the system of green boycotts by studying the motives to boycott participation and how the other system parts affect boycott participation. (Arbnor and Bjerke, 2009)

3.4 Operative Paradigm

An operative paradigm relates the chosen methodological view to the specific study area. Unlike a paradigm, an operative paradigm can be altered according to the

study area in question. Therefore, depending on the chosen methodological view, there are different options for planning the methodological procedures, that are techniques or previous study results developed for the research, and methodics, which are the implemented methodological procedures.

This paper will use the following study plan for a study in the systems view to determine finality relations by Arbnor and Bjerke as a guide for planning the research.

A Plan of Studies (Arbnor and Bjerke, 2009)

1. Formulating potential finality relations
2. Planning the continuation
3. Designing methods for collecting data
4. Collecting data
5. Coding and arranging data
6. Controlling validity
7. Reporting the results

The potential finality relations of boycotting have been formulated based on the literature in the previous chapter. The continuation plan for the study is to research these motivations in the system of green consumption. In the next section the methods for data collection will be discussed.

3.4.1 Methods for Collecting Data

Quantitative and Qualitative Research Methods

For the choice of research methods, there are quantitative and qualitative methods to choose from. The both types of research methods have their own qualities as well as advantages and disadvantages. Therefore the choice of research methods needs to be critically assessed. Research methods can be labelled as “systematic, focused and orderly collection of data for the purpose of obtaining information from them, to solve/answer a particular research problem or question” (Ghauri and Grønhaug, 2005,

p.109). Thus, a research method that serves the research problem of this study regarding green boycott motivations best needs to be found.

The difference between quantitative and qualitative research are the procedures in these methods. For the most part, the difference is that quantitative research includes measurement while qualitative research does not. Difference is also made in how knowledge and research objectives are perceived by these two approaches. Despite the differences, qualitative and quantitative methods can also be used in the same study. Qualitative methods are typically used when the research focuses on an experience or the behavior of an individual, or exploring a phenomenon of which little is known. When these topics cannot be studied with quantitative methods, qualitative research methods can deliver more complex information and understanding. Qualitative research most often uses interviews and observations as its data collection methods. The responses from qualitative data collection are unstructured and the researcher needs to extract meaning from these (Zikmund *et al.*, 2010). Because of the close involvement of the researcher, qualitative research is seen as subjective (Zikmund *et al.*, 2010). On the other hand, quantitative methods are often used when individual data are collected and aggregated to numerically analyze entire systems and the relationships between different variables (Ghauri and Grønhaug, 2005; Punch, 2003). Quantitative research requires less interpretation from the researcher and can thus be seen as more objective (Zikmund *et al.*, 2010).

In this study, a quantitative research method could be used to study the consumer motivations that are connected to the relationships between the different parts in the green boycott system. As quantitative methods use predetermined instruments, the picture of the reality created may be limited. This may be caused by the use of inappropriate instruments or that these are used to measure separate pieces of reality and then combined into a statistical mass. The downside of using a quantitative approach in this study is that the possibility of exploring and probing deeply into underlying boycott motivations that have not been researched before is weak. (Ghauri and Grønhaug, 2005)

Despite the stated disadvantages of quantitative methods, their use can be justified for example in the case where earlier qualitative research has been made and these results need to be tested by the means of quantitative methods (Ghauri and Grønhaug, 2005). Such is the case in this study where earlier research on consumer boycott motivations has been conducted, and now these motivations are to be studied in the context of green boycotts. Ideally, a quantitative study method with a large amount of observations would allow the researcher to make conclusions on the most relevant motivations of consumer to participate in green boycotts. With qualitative research methods, where the study of a phenomenon is made in-depth, the plausible amount of observations is limited and thus the ability make generalizations on the most important boycott motivations in the system of green boycotting is weak.

After ruling out experiment methods as they are not used in the study of real systems, what are left in quantitative research methods are surveys (Punch, 2003). The use of a survey in this study will be discussed in the following.

Survey as a Research Method

Surveys can be either quantitative or qualitative research methods, this study combining both approaches using numerical data produced by the measurement of variables as well as open ended questions. Quantitative survey questions will enable to study the predetermined propositions by researching to which extent these apply to green boycotts. On the other hand, with open ended questions the researcher is able to discover boycott motivations that have not emerged in the past studies on boycott motivations. Because of the high number of participants needed for a survey study, in-depth qualitative answers cannot be inquired as it would complicate the analysis of the answers. Instead, ideally different boycott motivations could be identified from the responses to these qualitative questions. (Punch, 2003)

Before conducting a newly created survey, a pilot test needs to be made. A pilot test enables the researcher to make sure that the survey can be easily understood and responded to by the participants. In addition to its contents, the length of a the survey is

an important consideration. A survey that is too long can decrease both response rate and quality. Testing the survey also allows the researcher to experiment with the data collection process in general. The survey created for this study was pretested with five individuals and any confusions these individuals came across with the survey were corrected before the actual conduction of the survey. (Punch, 2003)

In the survey, the units of analysis will be individuals, which allows investigating the importance of different motivations to their boycott participation. The survey will be administrated by the researcher as a face-to-face interview. This allows recruiting survey respondents actively as well as assisting them with filling out the survey when needed. On the other hand, the presence of the surveyor could lead to socially desirable responses. The survey will be a cross-sectional survey in which data is collected from respondents at one point in time. The data collection will follow the ethical code of conduct discussed earlier in this paper. In practice, the respondents will be promised full confidentiality and anonymity. The responses will only be used for analysis in this project and will not be handed out to third parties. In addition, the respondents will be approached professionally with a well prepared survey. This should also ensure high data quality on its part. (Punch, 2003)

Sampling

The purpose of a survey as a research method is to collect information from a group of people or a sample (Punch, 2003). A sample is a subset of a larger group named population. A population is “the universe to be sampled” (Fink, 2002, p.1), which could be all Finns or all green consumers in Finland for example. Often entire populations cannot be surveyed efficiently, therefore representative samples of these populations are sought and studied. A sample is regarded as representative if the important characteristics of the population, such as age or gender, are similarly distributed in the sample. When a sample is representative of the population, it allows the generalization of the survey results to the larger population, such as a system of green boycotts. Sampling helps to define the characteristics which are important for the study, as opposed to studying an entire population. (Fink, 2002)

In this study, compared to studying Finnish consumers in general, it is of more interest to survey individuals that are more likely to be interested in green consumption and boycotting non-green companies and products. Various studies have attempted to profile the green consumer, but there is no consensus regarding the gender, age, income, or education of a green consumer (Akehurst, Afonso, and Gonçalves, 2012). Hence there seems to be no reason to define the sample according to certain socio-demographic variables. Nevertheless, the lowest age for respondents will be set for 18 years as under aged can be seen to have less responsibility over their consumption choices.

For sampling there are two general types of methods to choose from: probability sampling and non-probability sampling. Probability sampling statistically ensures that a sample represents the population by giving the members of the population an equal probability to be included in the sample. In probability sampling the sample is chosen randomly and objectively. On the other hand, in non-probability sampling the respondents to the survey are chosen based on the judgement of the researcher. In creating a non-probability sample, the characteristics of the population and the needs of the research are considered. In comparison with probability sampling, in non-probability sampling some individuals of the population have a chance to be a part of the sample while some do not. (Fink, 2002)

Non-probability sampling may be used when the sample appears representative or the sample can be composed conveniently (Fink, 2002). In this study, a non-probability sample will be used because the identification of green consumers is difficult and there is no access to a list of green consumers in Finland of which a statistical sample could be taken. Specifically, the sampling method used in this study is called convenience sampling. A convenience sample consists of individuals who are ready and willing to participate in the survey (Fink, 2002). The chosen sampling method can also be called judgment sampling as it is chosen based on the judgment of the researcher about the representativeness of the sample (Ghuri and Grønhaug, 2005). Voluntary participation in a survey may cause sampling biases, as some individuals can be more inclined to participate than others (Fink, 2002). Considering the fore mentioned, the researcher

judges that a sample representing green consumers can be gathered from customers of an eco-store. The researcher reasons that green consumers who want to consume environmentally friendly products, while avoiding environmentally unfriendly products, would be inclined to visit a store that offers ecologically and ethically produced goods.

The target size for the sample was set for 200 participants, as a sample of this size was considered to be reasonable for making analyses within this study. This sample was collected during three days by individually approaching customers outside of an eco-store in Helsinki, Finland. The survey was conducted in Finnish (see appendix for survey). Two out of three individuals approached were estimated to agree on participating in the survey. Seventy-one percent of the respondents were female while twenty-nine percent were male. A majority of thirty-four percent of the respondents fell into the age category of 25 to 34 year olds, next largest group was 35 to 44 year olds with twenty-eight percent. Nineteen percent of the respondents were 18 to 24 year old, twelve percent were 45 to 54 year old, 5 percent were 55 to 64 year old, and the smallest group was 65 year old or older with two percent.

Measurements

Measurement in data collection can be defined as “rules for assigning numbers (or other numerals) to empirical properties” (Ghauri and Grønhaug, 2005, p.76). These numbers have no qualitative meaning until a researcher gives them some. Once numerals have been given meanings in a study, they can be mathematically and statistically analyzed for descriptive, explanatory, or predictive purposes. Different scales of measurement have their own properties which determine the possibilities for mathematical and statistical procedures. There are two types of scales used in this research. A *nominal scale* allows the classification of objects or observations by using numbers or other symbols. In the survey of this research, nominal scales will be used for answering questions regarding socio-demographic information such as gender. For the question regarding gender for example, survey participants will be provided with options ‘female’ and ‘male’. Participants will be asked to cross the correct answer. When coding the data, females can be assigned the symbol 1 and males assigned with 2.

Another scale to be used in this study is the *ordinal scale* which allows the ranking of studied variables on a continuum. Although the precise distance between the variables is unknown, the variables exhibit a relation such as different grades on a grading scale. Within this survey, this scale will be used to measure attitudes towards different statements regarding motivations to boycott non-green products using a five point scale. In the scale 1 equals to disagree, 2 equals to somewhat disagree, 3 equals to neutral, 4 equals to somewhat agree, and 5 equals to agree. Participants will be asked to circle the number that corresponds their attitude. In addition, the survey respondents will be asked to estimate the frequency of their boycotting of non-green products with an ordinal scale consisting of options 'always', 'often', 'sometimes', 'rarely', and 'never'. (Ghauri and Grønhaug, 2005)

Validity and Reliability

The *validity* of measurements means that the measures capture what they are intended to capture. Errors in measurements may lead to the observed measurement scores to differ from true scores. These errors can be caused by the different ways individuals respond, as some may have the tendency to choose a response from an extreme end of a scale while others may lean towards giving answers from the middle of scales. Also the state of the respondent, such as mood, as well as the response situation, such as time pressure, checking the wrong box, or confusion in the survey may lead to errors in measurement validity. For an observed score to be validly measured it should equal or be close to the true score. Validity in this research will be improved by pre testing the survey and making judgements on whether questions posed in the survey and their measurements are relevant and clear or not. (Ghauri and Grønhaug, 2005)

The *reliability* of a measure refers to it being stable. (Ghauri and Grønhaug, 2005) In general, reliability means whether the same participant would answer a survey with the same responses if they participated again. This not only depends on the variables and scales used but also on the state of mind of the respondent. (Puch, 2003) Because a single indicator often does not capture a construct well, multiple indicators will be used to

investigate the different motivations more confidently. This should decrease the random error in the measurement. (Ghuri and Grønhaug, 2005)

Data Analysis

After collecting the data, the survey forms will be gone through to check whether there are any data missing or unclear responses. Untruthful answers could be identified if there were repetitive answers for different questions from the same respondent (Ghuri and Grønhaug, 2005). The data will be fed into an Excel spreadsheet by assigning numbers for the different classes of responses (Ghuri and Grønhaug, 2005). In order to analyse whether there are relationships between boycott frequency or socio-demographics and motivations to boycott non-green products, chi-square tests will be performed on Excel. Percentages of answers to scale questions will be analysed to find out the distribution of answers. Open ended questions will be analysed by searching for repeated themes in the responses of different individuals.

4. FINDINGS

This chapter will present the results of the consumer survey on boycotting non-green products conducted for this thesis. The findings will be discussed in order of the propositions made in this thesis. Although the open ended questions were asked in the beginning of the survey in order to receive top of the mind answers from the respondents, these will be discussed after the predetermined scale questions to see whether there are other motivations to boycotting non-green products apart from the propositions discussed in the following.

In the survey targeted for green consumers, the respondent were first asked to estimate how often they consciously boycott products that are not green while purchasing any products. The respondents were requested to provide their answer on a five point scale by choosing from 'always', 'often', 'sometimes', 'rarely', or 'never'. These expressions of time were used in order for the respondent to be able to match them into their own consumption behavior instead of using specific time frames. This question was used to see whether the individuals surveyed at the eco-store would represent green consumers. The largest group with 40 percent of the respondents replied to sometimes boycott products that are not green. The second largest group with 34 percent of the responses indicated to boycott non-green products often, while eight percent replied to always forgo non-green products. 18 percent of the respondents replied to boycott only rarely. None of the 200 respondents indicated to never boycott non-green products, which would have disabled a consumer from answering most of the other questions regarding boycott participation.

The respondents were also asked to estimate how often they feel unable to boycott non-green products because of any undefined reasons. There may be various reasons to this inability to boycott and survey questions that can explain these will be discussed later in the chapter. Nearly half of the respondents, specifically 49 percent reported to often feel unable to boycott non-green products. 39 percent of the surveyed consumers replied to sometimes feel unable to boycott non-green products. Only seven percent

indicated the rare inability to boycott while five percent of the respondents answered that they never feel unable to boycott non-green products.

The consumer survey included a number of claims regarding boycotting non-green products based on the propositions made in this paper. The respondents were asked to provide their answers to the claims on a five point scale including 'disagree', 'somewhat disagree', 'neutral', 'somewhat agree', and 'agree' as the response options. The first proposition the survey respondents were inquired about was related to the motivation to boycott non-green products in order to make a difference. With a share of 49.5 percent of the participants, nearly a half replied to somewhat agree on the statement 'I boycott non-green products because I want to make a difference'. 22 percent agreed on the statement while 18.5 percent of the respondents remained neutral to this motivation for green boycott participation. Meanwhile a minority of eight percent somewhat disagreed and two percent disagreed on the claim. The respondents were also inquired whether they believe that they can make a difference by boycotting non-green products. While making a difference can be seen in many ways, such as in a small or large scale change, the researcher believes that without making questions too specific the respondents can adjust the questions according to their own beliefs and experiences on boycotting. 44.5 percent of the respondents somewhat agree to being able to make a difference with their boycott actions. 16 percent agreed with the claim while 29 percent remained neutral. Nine percent of the respondents somewhat disagreed on their ability to make a difference by boycotting while three percent disagreed on it.

The next claims posed at the respondents regarded the proposition of boycotting non-green products being motivated by feeling better about oneself. Respondents were first asked whether boycotting non-green products makes a person better. The responses to this claim were divided, 33 percent somewhat agreeing, 17 percent somewhat disagreeing, and 31 percent of the respondents feeling neutral. Ten percent of the respondents agreed with the claim while nine percent disagreed with it respectively. Contrastingly, when asked whether boycotting non-green products makes the respondents feel better about himself or herself, a majority of 53 percent of the

respondents replied to somewhat agree on the claim. 20 percent of the respondents agreed on the claim whereas 18 percent felt neutral about it. Only seven percent of the respondents somewhat disagreed on the statement and two percent disagreed. It seems boycotting non-green products makes most of the respondents feel better about themselves, although it is unknown whether this is a motivation to boycott or an effect of boycotting.

The following question regarded the motivation of avoiding guilt by boycotting non-green products. The largest portion of the respondents with 40.5 percent answered to somewhat disagree with the statement that they would boycott non-green products in order to avoid feeling guilt. 27.5 percent of the respondents felt neutral to the statement while 20 percent somewhat agreed on it. Only eight percent of the respondents disagreed with the claim and four percent agreed on it. Similar boycott motivation the respondents were inquired about was maintaining a clear conscience. The answers to this claim were somewhat more divided, with 36 percent of the respondents somewhat disagreeing to the statement and 11 percent disagreeing. While 23 percent of the respondents remained neutral, 25 percent somewhat agreed to boycotting in order to maintain a clear conscience. Only five percent of the consumers agreed on the statement.

Next the respondents were asked about other people's effect on their boycott decisions. The survey respondents were first asked whether other individuals' opinions affect their consumption decisions in general. The majority seemed to disagree on the statement as 31 percent of the respondents somewhat disagreed and 24 percent disagreed. A large group of 32 percent of the consumers remained neutral towards the claim while only eight percent somewhat agreed and five percent agreed. The second related questions asked the respondents whether they boycott non-green products in order to look better in other people's eyes. The responses were similar to the previous questions, as 39.5 percent somewhat disagreed and 29 percent disagreed on the claim. 26.5 percent of the respondents answered neutral to this question while only three percent somewhat agreed and the rest two percent agreed. It seems that at least

consciously or openly consumers do not boycott non-green products because of other individuals' opinions on them.

The next questions regarded the proposition on boycotting non-green products because of proximity to the issue of boycott, which in this context are green issues. The respondents were first asked whether green issues are important to them. None of the respondents completely disagreed on the claim, which could be expected as the respondents were visiting an eco-store. A majority of 58 percent of the respondents indicated to agree on green issues being important to them. 23.5 percent somewhat agreed on the statement while 14.5 percent remained neutral. Only four percent of the respondents somewhat disagreed on green issues being important to them. The respondents were also asked whether they boycott non-green products because they feel close to the issues of boycott, to which less respondents agreed. The largest group of 33 percent of the respondents remained neutral to this claim. 30 percent somewhat agreed to boycotting non-green products because of the proximity of the boycott issue and 17 percent agreed on it. 14 percent of the survey participants somewhat disagreed on the claim while the remaining six percent disagreed on it.

The following proposition examined was related to expressing anger as a motivation to boycott non-green products. The survey participants were first asked about their opinion whether boycotting non-green products is a good way to express anger at the boycott targets. The largest group with 45.5 percent of the respondents answered neutral to this claim. 21.5 percent of the surveyed consumers somewhat agreed to boycotting being a good way to express anger and nine percent agreed on the statement. However, 14.5 percent of the respondents somewhat disagreed on the statement and ten percent disagreed on it. Therefore the answers were divided between the center of the scale. Next the participants were asked whether they boycott non-green products in order to express anger at the boycott targets themselves. Compared to the previous, more general question, more respondents disagreed on this claim. While 34 percent remained neutral, 25 percent of the participant somewhat disagreed on the claim and 17 percent disagreed on it. 20 percent somewhat agreed on boycotting non-green products to

express their anger and only four percent indicated to agree on it. The respondents were also asked about their wish to punish the boycott targets by their boycotting of non-green products. In previous studies this has been seen as an extension of expressing anger at boycott targets. Compared to the two previous questions on expressing anger, answers to this claim were more agreeing to some extent. The largest portion of respondents with 31.5 percent somewhat agreed on boycotting non-green products in order to punish their producers. 11 percent agreed on it while 21 percent answered neutral. Nevertheless, 23.5 percent somewhat disagreed and 13 percent disagreed on the claim, making the responses dispersed yet again.

The next questions posed at the participants to the survey regarded the proposition on boycotting non-green products in order to express one's political views. According to this proposition consumers would boycott non-green products in order to express their green ideologies. 20 percent of the survey participants agreed to boycotting non-green products being a good way to express political views and 23 percent somewhat agreed on the statement. A large group of 42 percent indicated to feel neutral to the statement while 12 percent somewhat disagreed and three percent disagreed. When the respondents were directly asked whether they boycott non-green products in order to express their political views themselves, more consumers disagreed compared to the previous question. In fact, 22 percent of the respondents somewhat disagreed and seven percent disagreed on the claim. Again, the largest group of 39 percent of the participants answered neutral while 23 percent indicated to somewhat agree and nine percent agreed on the claim. It seems that more consumers agree on the idea of expressing political views through boycotting non-green products than actually boycott because of it.

Next the survey participants were inquired about the propositions on boycott inefficiency and freeriding demotivating consumers to boycott non-green products. First the participants were asked if they were motivated not to boycott non-green products because they see boycotting not having an effect. Most consumers seem to disagree with the statement, as 22.5 percent indicate to disagree and 33.5 percent somewhat disagree. 27 percent answered neutral while 15 percent somewhat agreed and two

percent agreed. Next the respondents were asked to provide their opinion on whether consumers should boycott non-green products more for the boycott to have an effect. Nearly half of the respondents, namely 46 percent, agreed that more consumers should boycott for the boycott to have an effect. 29 percent somewhat agreed while 13 percent remained neutral. Only nine percent somewhat disagreed and three percent disagreed on the statement. The respondents were next tested with a similar question inquiring whether other consumers do not boycott non-green products enough for the boycotting to have an effect. Slightly more, 49 percent of the respondents agreed with this statement. 35 percent somewhat agreed, while this time only six percent answered neutral. Respectively, eight percent replied with somewhat disagree and two percent disagreed. The respondents were also asked whether they are motivated not to boycott non-green products because of other consumers not boycotting. In other words, they were asked whether the free rider problem stalls them from boycotting non-green products. Largest group of 35.5 percent of the respondents disagreed on this statement, indicating that other consumers' non-participation would not affect their boycott decisions. 25.5 percent somewhat disagreed while 29 percent answered neutral. Only six percent of the participants somewhat agreed and four percent agreed on the claim.

Another motivation for non-participation studied in the survey was constrained consumption. First the respondents were asked whether limited product choice motivates them not to boycott non-green products. Largest percentage of 35.5 percent answered this claim with neutral. The second largest group with 27 percent disagreed on the statement, while only eight percent agreed. 15.5 percent of the respondents somewhat agreed and 14 percent somewhat disagreed on limited products choice stopping them from boycotting non-green products. The respondents were also asked whether they think there are too little green products to choose from. 37 percent of the participants to the survey disagreed on the statement. 25 percent of the respondents somewhat disagreed while only seven percent remained neutral. 17 percent of the respondents somewhat agreed and 14 percent agreed on a too small selection of green products available. It must be noted that this product availability can be seen in different ways, as on one hand the survey participants were visiting a sizeable eco-store and the other

available product selection can be seen on a much larger perspective, outside of the specific store. The respondents were also asked to answer a claim on whether they do not boycott non-green products because of the unavailability of green substitutes for the products to be boycotted. More consumers agreed with this claim as 18 percent answered to agree and 20.5 percent somewhat agreed. 27.5 answered neutral, while 21 percent somewhat disagreed and 13 percent disagreed. Therefore, limited product choice seems to be a less of a problem for boycotting non-green products than the perceived non-availability of substitutes for the products to be boycotted.

The last set of scale questions regarded the price of green products as a motivation not to boycott non-green products. The participants were asked whether green products are too expensive for them to purchase regularly, and 37 percent of the respondents somewhat agreed to this statement while 29 percent agreed on it. Only seven percent replied neutral, as 18 percent somewhat disagreed on green products being too expensive for them to purchase regularly while nine percent disagreed on the claim. The respondents were also asked whether expensive green products motivate them not to boycott non-green products, and more consumers seem to disagree on this compared to the previous question. 34.5 percent somewhat agree on too high expenses disabling them from boycotting non-green products while 21 percent agree on the claim. Seven and a half percent answered neutral, while 21 percent somewhat disagreed and 16 percent disagreed on the statement. Thus, there is slight indication that even though green products are perceived expensive by many, it is not seen as much of a barrier for boycotting non-green products.

The possible interdependences between the answers on boycott motivations and socio-demographics or boycott frequency were investigated with chi-square tests. In this test, the asymptotic significance value tells whether the interdependence between two items is significant or not (Zikmund *et al.*, 2010). In general the asymptotic value should be less than 0.5 percent in order for the interdependence to be considered significant (Zikmund *et al.*, 2010). In addition, cells with an expected count of less than 5 should be below 20 percent for significant interdependencies (Zikmund *et al.*, 2010). In the chi

square tests performed for these study results, none of the combinations met both of the set requirements and therefore no significant relationships between boycott motivations and boycott frequency or socio-demographic factors could be determined with confidence.

In addition to the scale questions regarding the different boycott motivations proposed in this study, the survey participants were also asked to answer to a number of open ended questions. These questions dealt with both their motivations to boycott non-green products as well as motivations for not boycotting. The open ended questions were placed in the beginning of the survey in order for the proposed boycott motivations not to affect the answers of the participants. With these questions the researcher aimed to find out motivations that would be specific for boycotting non-green products in addition to the more general boycott motivations. Even though many respondents left the answer fields empty, repeated motivations for boycotting and not boycotting non-green products could be found in different survey forms.

In order to study consumer motivations for boycotting non-green products, questions regarding reasons for boycotting, concerns initiating boycotting, and goals of boycotting. One of the most frequently given reasons for boycotting non-green products was health. It appears that consumers associate green products with well-being of themselves as well as their family. It seems many of the respondents identify non-green products primarily as food products, as a number of the respondents explained their boycott decision by perceived risks of non-green food, such as the use of pesticides and other chemicals. Moreover, in the responses green products were often seen as of high quality and value. Some replies explained that by purchasing green goods it is possible to be aware of the production location and production conditions of the product, leading to the boycott of non-green products.

Another evident theme in the responses for reasons to boycott non-green products was concern for animal welfare as well as the environment. These two seemed to have varying importance depending the respondent, and they were not as much reported as

the health reasons were. Nevertheless, environmental protection and animal rights seem to be motivations specific for boycotting non-green products.

The survey respondents were also inquired about the motivations not to boycott non-green products through a set of open ended questions. Two motivations that were also included in the scale questions following the open ended questions were the availability of green products and their high prices. Some of the survey participants explained their lack of boycotting non-green products with the inability to purchase green products instead of non-green products. Green products were seen to lack in availability by their range of different products as well as sales locations. Some participants also reported the perceived high prices of green products to unable them from boycotting non-green products.

The open ended questions in the survey also included questions concerning feelings towards boycotting non-green products. Judging by the number and consistency of responses to these questions, respondents seemed had more difficulties to answer these questions compared to the two previous themes. The survey participants were asked about feelings that boycotting non-green products makes them feel, and responses received revolved around feeling better about oneself and feeling accomplishment. Thus, it appears, some consumers could be motivated to boycott non-green products not just to make themselves feel better but also feel that they have done something, perhaps towards a benefit external to the consumer. The respondents were also asked about feelings expressed at the targets of boycott. The reason for lack of responses to this questions may be that besides boycotting non-green products by avoiding their purchase, consumers may not act to express any feelings directly to the producers of these products. Nevertheless, a few survey participants reported to express disapproval or anger at the targets of non-green product boycotts. Finally, the respondents were asked about green boycott issues that make them feel anger. Answers to this question were similar to the question related to concerns that motivate the consumers to boycott non-green products. Participants reported that they are angered by producers that mistreat the environment or animals with their actions. Some respondents also answered to be angry about food

that they perceive as not clean, which could be caused by using chemicals or even genetically modifying food.

5. DISCUSSION AND ANALYSIS

In this chapter the survey results reported in the previous chapter will be discussed. This will be done by reflecting on the results for each proposition together with the previous results of research on boycott motivations reviewed earlier in this thesis. Judgements on the significance of the research findings as well as analysis for further understanding on the topic of consumer motivations for boycotting non-green products will be made.

The first proposition made in this thesis suggested that consumers would be motivated to participate in green boycotts, or in other words to avoid the purchase of non-green products, because of being able to make a difference on a green boycott issue. Literature on boycott motivations presented that making a difference is an important motivation to participate in a boycott (Braunsberger and Buckler, 2011; Klein, Smith and John, 2004). However, scholars also argued that it is important for the consumer to feel that he or she can make the wanted difference by participating in a boycott (Hoffmann, 2013; Sen, Gürhan-Canli and Morwitz, 2001). In this study, 71.5 percent of the survey respondents agreed or somewhat agreed on making a difference being a reason for their decision to boycott non-green products. Therefore, making a difference on green issues indeed seems to be an important motivation for many to boycott non-green products. Targets of non-green product boycotts should vary that consumer boycotters are after a change in how their non-green products affect the environment and will not accept their products as they are, opting for greener choices. The respondents were also asked about their perceived ability to make a difference, as suggested by the literature. 60.5 percent of the respondents either agreed or somewhat agreed to feeling able to make a difference on a green issue by boycotting. Although it appears that more people boycott to make a difference than actually believe in the ability to make a difference, the majority of the

survey respondents believe that they are able to make an influence with their boycott actions. Therefore, making a difference can be seen as a significant motivation also in the case of boycotting non-green products. This can be viewed as a sign of certainty and determination these consumers have for making a change on a green issue by boycotting non-green products.

According to the second proposition made in this thesis, consumers are motivated to participate in boycotts of non-green products by feeling better about themselves. The literature on boycott motivations identified self-enhancement as a motivation dependent not only on self-perception but also on the acceptance of others (Braunsberger and Buckler, 2011; Klein, Smith and John, 2004). However, Kozinets and Handelman (1998) argued contrarily, saying that people are less interested in the opinions of other people and focus more on standing out as individuals. In this study less than half, 43 percent of the respondents somewhat agreed or agreed that boycotting non-green products makes a person better. According to this statement, it seems that less than half of these consumers would judge other people or themselves based on non-green product boycott decisions. Nonetheless, a majority of 73 percent of the participants still reported to feel better about themselves when boycotting non-green products. Thus the results of this research indicate that while consumers make themselves feel better by boycotting non-green products, boycotting or not boycotting non-green products would not make a person better or worse per se. This conclusion on the relative irrelevance of others' opinions is also backed by the results to the additional survey questions related to this proposition. When asked whether other people's opinions affect their product decisions, the majority of 55 percent of the respondents either somewhat disagreed or disagreed. Moreover, only five percent of the respondents somewhat agreed or agreed to boycott non-green products because of other people's opinions. Therefore, it seems people are motivated to boycott non-green products making themselves feel better but overlooking the opinions of others. The proposition is thus only partly accepted. This result contradicts with the study outcomes of Sen, Gürhan-Canli and Morwitz (2001) who believed that social pressure is a significant contributor for boycott participation. From the viewpoint of a boycott organizer, if social pressure does not affect the motivation of

consumers to boycott non-green products, it would be an ineffective method to gain participants for a boycott of non-green products.

The third proposition made in this thesis suggested that consumers are motivated to participate in green boycotts by keeping their hands clean. In the study of Klein, Smith and John (2002) avoiding guilt and maintaining a clear conscience were common motivations for boycott participation. However in the study of Braunsberger and Buckler (2011), rather than avoiding guilt, the studied boycott participants wanted to distance themselves from the conduct of the boycott targets by participating in the boycott. The survey conducted for this thesis gave divided responses to guilt being a factor in the boycott decision for non-green products. Nevertheless, 48.5 percent either disagreed or somewhat disagreed on the effect of guilt on their boycott decisions, overpowering those who indicated to agree. Somewhat similarly, 47 percent of the respondents disagreed or somewhat disagreed on the importance of maintaining a clear conscience in the decision to boycott non-green products. Therefore, judging on the results of this study, it seems that keeping hands clean is not a prominent motivation for boycotting non-green products for most consumers and the proposition for this cannot be accepted in this thesis. Similarly to the previous motivation, how this result could be applied into practice is that using the emotion of guilt in recruiting consumers to boycott non-green products appears to be an ineffective mean to do this.

Motivation to participate in green boycotts because of feeling close to the issue of boycott was suggested by proposition number four. Some studies reviewed in this thesis suggested that proximity to boycott issue is the most important motivation for boycott participation (Albrecht *et al.*, 2013; Hoffmann, 2013). Within the focus of this study, it would mean that consumers are motivated to boycott non-green because they feel close to green issues by regarding green issues as personally important or having an effect on their own life. 81.5 percent of the survey respondents either agreed or somewhat agreed to green issues being important to them. However, a considerably smaller percentage of the participants, 47 percent of the respondents agreed or somewhat agreed that they boycott non-green products because they feel connected to the issue of boycott.

Therefore, it seems that even though many regard green issues as important, they do not at least report to be consciously motivated by the proximity of the green issues of boycott. As Hoffmann (2013) argued in his article, despite the importance of this motivation for boycott participation, consumers may explain their boycott participation with other motives. It should also be noted that the question on boycott proximity may be interpreted in different ways. Respondents might have disagreed because of not boycotting every time even if the issue of boycott would have felt close. Closeness may also be perceived only as physical distance, which could be a reason why a respondents would not recognize this a motivation to boycott. Nevertheless, with these results the proposition could be cautiously accepted, as green issues seem to be important for these consumers but proximity of boycott issue is not at least consciously reported as a reason to boycott.

The fifth proposition made in this thesis suggested that consumers are motivated to boycott non-green products by their want to express anger at the boycott targets. In previous research, around half of the studied consumers expressed to be motivated to participate in boycotts in order to express anger (Braunsberger and Buckler, 2011; Klein, Smith and John, 2002). The present study indicates less importance to expressing anger as a boycott motivation for non-green product boycotts, as 30.5 percent of the respondents disagreed or somewhat disagreed to boycotting non-green products being an effective way to express anger. Meanwhile only 24 percent agreed or somewhat agreed to expressing anger at boycott targets by the means of boycotting non-green products. The responses to these claims may be divided because willingness to express anger could depend on the personality of the individual as well as the importance of a specific boycott issue. Nevertheless, the study result suggests that consumers perceive the boycott of non-green products as an ineffective way to express anger. As the boycott of non-green products most likely actualizes as the avoidance of purchase of non-green products, as opposed to other demonstrative actions, the perceived inefficiency of expressing anger is understandable. However, 42.5 percent agreeing or somewhat agreeing on boycotting non-green products being an effective means to punish the boycott targets signals that this sort of an instrumental expression of anger is viewed as more effective compared to a purely expressive motivation in the case of boycotting non-

green products. Therefore, the proposition can be declined for an expressive motivation for displaying anger while accepted for an instrumental statement of anger. This observation may act as a warning for possible boycott targets, as a considerable portion of the surveyed consumers indicated to boycott non-green products in order to punish their producers.

Expressing political views as a motivation to boycott non-green products was suggested by proposition six. This proposition was brought forth by the study of Hoffmann (2011), who suggested that consumers participate in boycotts being motivated by expressing their political views and controlling companies. 43 percent of the survey participants in this study agreed or somewhat agreed to boycotting non-green products being a good way to express political views. A smaller percentage of 32 percent of the participants either agreed or somewhat agreed to boycott non-green products in order to express political views themselves. Dispersion in the answers may be caused by several reasons. The act of boycotting non-green products or green ideology in general may not be perceived as politics in the minds of some consumers. Also, the survey respondents are likely to vary in their political activeness in general. Anyhow, political expression does not seem to be a motivation for boycotting non-green products for most consumers, and thus this proposition is not accepted.

The propositions made in this thesis also included propositions for motivations not to boycott non-green products. The seventh proposition suggested that consumers would be motivated not to participate in green boycotts because of the inefficiency of boycotts. In the literature on boycott motivations, many scholars suggested that consumers are motivated not to participate in boycotts because they perceive that boycott actions will not generate a desired effect or that the overall participation will be too low for boycott success (Hoffmann, 2011; Klein, Smith and John, 2004; Sen, Gürhan-Canli and Morwitz, 2001). In the present study, only 17 percent of the survey respondents agreed or somewhat agreed to boycotts of non-green products being ineffective. Therefore for the majority it does not seem to be a motivation not to participate in green boycotts. Nevertheless, 75 percent agreed or disagreed on the claim that more consumers should

participate in order for green boycotts to be effective, while 84 percent of the respondents agreed or somewhat agreed on a claim that other consumers do not participate enough for the boycotts to be effective. Therefore, although consumers seem to believe in the effect of non-green product boycotts, most consumers call for larger participation in order to reach better boycott results. Related to these statements, proposition eight suggested that consumers do not participate in boycotts of non-green products because of a free rider problem. Although literature suggests that free riding discourages consumers from participating in boycotts (Sen, Gürhan-Canli, and Morwitz, 2001; Klein, Smith and John, 2004), the majority of 61 percent of the respondents disagreed or somewhat disagreed on this problem stopping them from boycotting non-green products. Therefore motivations not to boycott non-green products suggested by the propositions are not accepted.

Literature also suggested that consumers would be motivated not to participate in boycotts because it limits their product choices (Hoffmann, 2011; Klein, Smith and John, 2004) or because substitute products for the products to be boycotted cannot be found (Sen, Gürhan-Canli and Morwitz, 2001). When asked whether limited product choice motivates the consumers not to boycott non-green products, more respondents disagreed than agreed with 41 percent either disagreeing or somewhat disagreeing on the claim. Also, 62 percent of the respondents disagreed or somewhat disagreed on a too small selection of green products. Green consumers can be expected to be committed to purchasing green products, so loyalty among these consumers for non-green products is less likely compared to consumers in general. However, 38.5 percent of the participants agreed or somewhat agreed on the lack of green substituted for products to be boycotted. Therefore, it seems that while limited product choice is not a problem for boycotting non-green products for most of the survey participants, a considerable portion of the consumers experience the lack of green substitutes as a hindrance for boycotting non-green products. In addition to the lack of substitutes, the price of green products seems to be a constraint for boycotting non-green products. As 66 percent of the respondents replied to agree or somewhat agree on too expensive prices of green products and 55.5 percent of the respondents agreed or somewhat agreed on the high prices to constrain

their boycott participation, high expenses seem to be a motivation for many not to boycott non-green products. Therefore, the ninth proposition regarding constrained consumption as a motivation not to boycott non-green products is difficult to either accept or reject because of these different aspects of it. While these consumers showed commitment to boycotting non-green products by disregarding the problem of limited choice, they experience difficulties due to lack of green substitutes and the high prices of green products. Producers may take this consumer opinion as suggestion to provide more green substitutes for non-green products with more affordable prices.

In addition to studying the propositions suggested in this thesis, the survey results provided boycott motivations specific to non-green product boycotts in the answers of the open ended questions. Many of the motivations for boycott mentioned in the answers dealt with the benefits of green products and on the other hand the disadvantages of non-green products. These motivations to boycott non-green products included personal benefits such as perceived health benefits of green products and altruistic benefits for the environment, animals, and production workers. It appeared that the personal benefits of boycotting non-green products were more frequently reported than the collective benefits. This could be explained by the hierarchy of needs by Maslow (1943), according to which physiological needs, related to own health for example, come before other needs. As discussed earlier, Sen, Gürhan-Canli and Morwitz (2001) argued that boycott participation is a social dilemma where a consumer decides between personal benefits and benefits for others. While the authors regarded independent consumption decisions as a personal benefit gained by not boycotting, it seems that boycotting non-green products is not simply a decision between personal benefits and altruistic benefits, or not boycotting and boycotting. Instead, boycotting non-green products can be motivated by benefits for the self as well as benefits for others and the environment. To measure the importance of these motivations for boycotting non-green products further survey studies should be made.

In addition to comparing benefits for self and others gained by boycotting or not boycotting, this comparison between self and others can also be observed from the

viewpoint of boycott motivations coming from the boycott participant and motivations influenced by others. For example, according to the results of this study, boycotting non-green products increases boycotter's self-esteem but is not dependent on the opinions of other people. Other significant motivations for boycotting non-green products seem to be coming for the boycott participant himself or herself as well, such as interest in green issues, willingness to make a change, or punish boycott targets. Although these motivations may be influenced by the environment of the consumer, it is not explicit in these motivations. Another interesting contrast in the results is the perceived lack of boycott participation from other consumers while this does not seem to motivate the respondents not to boycott non-green products. In addition, while the survey respondents reported a lack of substitutes for non-green products, many of the surveyed consumers were not demotivated to boycott because of limited choice products. Overall these results tell about the commitment these consumers have for green consumerism and boycotting non-green products.

This study gave significance to some of the proposed motivations to boycott non-green products more than others. Most noticeably, the instrumental motivation of making a difference by boycotting non-green products was judged to be important. Also the positive impact of boycott participation on self was observed, while the impact of others on boycott motivations was deemed as unimportant. In addition, most reported motivation specifically for boycotting non-green products was the health benefits after which came benefits for the environment. Despite some of the boycott motivations suggested by literature rising above others, it must be borne in mind, that as Maslow (1943), Bayton (1958), and later scholars researching boycott motivations, such as Klein, Smith and John, (2002) have stated, individuals can have multiple motivations for their behavior that differ from the motivations of other individuals in their specific time and situation. In addition, people are not necessarily aware of the real motivations driving their behavior, or may not want to disclose these for a reason (Bayton, 1958). These complicate the goal of defining universal motivations for a specific behavior such as boycotting non-green products, but also keep this field of research developing.

6. CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

This thesis has studied consumer motivations for boycotting non-green products. Boycotts of non-green products were studied as a part of a green ideology instead of one-time arranged events as consumer boycotts are traditionally viewed as. In this thesis, a variety of previously researched motivations for boycott participation were studied in the context of boycotting non-green products. Varying significances for different boycott motivations were found. The first research question made in this paper presented the question on motivations for consumers to boycott non-green products. The most significant motivation for boycotting non-green products was found to be the instrumental motivation of making a difference on a boycott issue. On the other hand, expressive motivations, such as expressing anger at the boycott target, were not perceived as important. Another significant finding on boycott motivations was that boycotting non-green products makes an individual feel good about oneself. Consumers also seem to boycott non-green products in order to gain personal benefits, such as health benefits, as well as altruistic benefits for the environment and society.

Research question number two inquired about the motivations not to boycott non-green products. The notable motivations for non-boycotting found were the lack of green substitutes for products to be boycotted and the perceived high prices of green products. Consumers also hope for increased participation in these boycotts, but do not perceive inefficiency as a demotivation for boycotting. Research question three looked into the role of the individual's environment in the motivations of consumers to boycott. The survey results implied that on one hand consumers do not feel pressured by other individuals to boycott, and on another hand they are not demotivated to boycott non-green products because of the lack of boycott participation from other consumers. The fourth research question asked whether boycott frequency of socio-demographic factors affect motivations to boycott non-green products. In the analyses any connection between motivation and these factors could not be verified confidently. This continues the general view that green consumers cannot be grouped by socio-demographic factors.

This research contributes to the knowledge about consumer motivations for boycotting non-green products. Understanding these motivations for boycott participation can be important information for parties that are interested in promoting green consumerism, such as green retailers or organizations promoting green values. On another hand, producers of products that are competing with green products and might be perceived as non-green by consumers could consider this information as the attitudes of a consumer group in their market towards their business. Managers may take notice on the observation that consumers are willing to make changes by boycotting products that are perceived as non-green and want to punish the producers with this means. It is also noteworthy that these consumers believe in the ability to make a change by boycotting. Although the respondents did not experience limited choice as an obstacle for boycott participation, the producers of green products may pay attention to the perceived lack of substitutes for non-green products as well as high prices of green products being an obstacle for boycott participation. The conclusion on social pressure not affecting the motivations of consumers to boycott non-green products signs that organizations may have difficulties in affecting the boycott decisions of consumers through pressure. In conclusion, businesses should consider the added value these consumers perceive to gain by boycotting non-green products and the determination they have for this practice.

7. LIMITATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

Limitations to potential conclusions are brought by the use of a convenience sample in this thesis. The use of a non-probability sample limits the ability to generalize the study results. As the survey research was conducted at a store for green products, the results are better applied to green consumers as opposed to the general public. Nonetheless, defining a population of green consumers and drawing a representative sample would be problematic. The validity of the research findings are also limited by the amount of statistically based analysis made in this project. In addition, the study was conducted in Finland, and applications of the results to other cultures may be limited.

National culture could affect consumers boycott behaviour and motivations and this possibility can be investigated by future research.

Another limitation to the results of this study is the use of self-reported measures in the survey study. By asking the survey respondents to estimate their opinions and tendencies themselves, actual behaviour and motivations behind boycott participation may differ from the indicated answers. The ability to study the true motivations behind boycott behaviour may be limited because individuals might not be aware of them. What may also limit the ability of individuals to report on their boycott motivations is that they may not perceive their green consumption practices as boycotting non-green products per se. Consumers also may not recognize the possible impact of other individuals or organizations on their boycott motivations. Respondents to a survey may also answer questions in a way that they seem ideal instead of how they think or behave in reality. Measuring consumer boycott motivations is also challenged by how different individuals understand the survey questions. Although questions are made as simple and understandable as possible, respondents may perceive them differently as their experiences on boycotting non-green products differ as well. The concept of green products being elusive, consumers are likely to have different opinions on their importance and impact. As motivations vary by individual, the ability to make simple generalizations on boycott motivations is limited.

The results of this thesis raised many new questions to which future research could look for answers. Especially the relationships between boycott motivations could be studied further to understand how these affect each other. Possibilities to create profiles of different green boycotters could be looked into. To further study and validate the motivations to boycott non-green products, motivations specific to green boycotts could be added into quantitative study and analysis. Additionally, qualitative research methods could be used to investigate consumer motivations for boycotting non-green products more in depth. By interviewing a selected group of consumers committed to green consumption, a deeper understanding on the motivations to boycott non-green products

could be sought. In addition, with a qualitative study method, the potential to discover underlying boycott motivations is greater.

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The purpose of this survey is to study consumer attitudes towards boycotting or avoiding the purchase of products that they perceive as non-green. The definition of boycotting in this survey is avoiding the purchase of certain products. Green products are defined as ecologically and ethically produced products whereas the production of non-green products may not have taken these into consideration. Please answer the questions according to your own perceptions and experience with green consumption and boycotting non-green products. The survey has four pages and a total of 39 questions. Filling it out takes approximately four minutes. Your responses are fully confidential and will be used only for research purposes within this thesis.

1. When purchasing any products, how often do you consciously boycott products that are non-green? Choose the best option.

- Always Often Sometimes Rarely Never

2. How often do you feel unable to boycott products that you perceive as non-green? Choose the best option.

- Always Often Sometimes Rarely Never

Answer the following questions (numbers 3 to 10) by listing your answers on the lines below the questions.

3. Why do you boycott non-green products?

4. Why do you not boycott non-green products?

5. What prohibits you from boycotting non-green products?

6. What kind of concerns make you boycott non-green products?

7. What do you want to achieve by boycotting non-green products?

8. How does boycotting non green products make you feel?

9. What kind of feelings do you express at boycott targets?

10. What kind of green boycott issues make you angry?

Answer the following claims (numbers 11 to 34) on a scale from 1 (Disagree) to 5 (Agree) by circling the best fitting number.

	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neutral	Somewhat agree	Agree
11. I boycott non-green products because I want to make a difference.	1	2	3	4	5
12. I believe I can make a difference by boycotting non-green products.	1	2	3	4	5
13. Boycotting non-green products makes a person better.	1	2	3	4	5
14. Boycotting non-green products makes me feel better about myself.	1	2	3	4	5
15. I would feel guilty if I did not boycott non-green products.	1	2	3	4	5
16. I boycott non-green products in order to maintain a clear conscience.	1	2	3	4	5
17. The opinions of other people affect my product choices.	1	2	3	4	5
18. I boycott non-green products because it makes me look better in other people's eyes.	1	2	3	4	5
19. Green issues are important to me.	1	2	3	4	5
20. I boycott non-green products because I feel connected to the green issues of boycott.	1	2	3	4	5
21. Boycotts of non-green products are a good way to express anger at the boycott targets.	1	2	3	4	5
22. I boycott non-green products in order to express my anger at the boycott targets.	1	2	3	4	5

	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neutral	Somewhat agree	Agree
23. I boycott non-green products in order to punish the boycott targets.	1	2	3	4	5
24. Boycotts of non-green products are a good way to express political views.	1	2	3	4	5
25. I boycott non-green products in order to express my political views.	1	2	3	4	5
26. I do not boycott non-green products because I see it does not have an effect.	1	2	3	4	5
27. Consumers should boycott non-green products more for the boycott to have an effect.	1	2	3	4	5
28. Other consumers do not boycott non-green products enough for the boycott to have an effect.	1	2	3	4	5
29. I do not boycott non-green products because other consumers do not boycott either.	1	2	3	4	5
30. I do not boycott non-green products because it limits my product choices.	1	2	3	4	5
31. There are too little green products to choose from.	1	2	3	4	5
32. I do not boycott non-green products because there are no green substitutes for these products.	1	2	3	4	5
33. Green products are too expensive for me to purchase regularly.	1	2	3	4	5
34. I do not boycott non-green products because it is too expensive.	1	2	3	4	5

The following information will only be used for classification. Please answer the questions by crossing the correct box.

35. Which of the following age groups do you belong to?

- 18-24 years old
- 25-34 years old
- 35-44 years old
- 45-54 years old
- 55-64 years old
- 65 years or older

36. What is your gender?

- Female
- Male

37. What is your educational background? (Choose current or latest)

- Elementary School or similar
- High School or Vocational School
- Polytechnic
- University
- None of these

38. How much is the estimated yearly income of your household before taxes in euros?

- Under €10.000
- €10.000 - €19.999
- €20.000 - €29.999
- €30.000 - €49.999
- €50.000 - €74.999
- €75.000 - €99.999
- €100.000 - 150.000
- Over €150.000
- I don't know/ I prefer not to answer this question

39. Which life stage are you in?

- Single, living with parents
- Living alone
- Married/domestic partnership, no children
- Married/domestic partnership, children living at home
- Single parent living with children
- Married/domestic partnership, children no longer living at home
- Other

Thank you for your participation!

Kuluttajakysely Ei-Vihreiden Tuotteiden Boikotoimisesta

Tämän kyselyn tarkoitus on tutkia kuluttajien asenteita ja kokemuksia ei-vihreiden tuotteiden boikotointia kohtaan. Tässä kyselyssä boikotointi määritellään tiettyjen tuotteiden ostamisen välttämiseksi. Vihreät tuotteet määritellään ekologisesti ja eettisesti valmistetuiksi, kun taas ei-vihreiden tuotteiden tuotannossa näitä seikkoja ei ole saatettu ottaa huomioon. Ole hyvä ja vastaa kysymyksiin omien näkemystesi ja kokemuksiesi pohjalta liittyen vihreään kuluttamiseen ja ei-vihreiden tuotteiden boikotointiin. Kyselyssä on neljä sivua ja yhteensä 39 kysymystä. Kyselyn täyttäminen kestää noin neljä minuuttia. Vastauksesi ovat täysin luottamuksellisia ja niitä käytetään ainoastaan tutkimustarkoituksiin tässä lopputyössä.

1. Ostaessanne mitä tahansa tuotteita, kuinka usein tietoisesti boikotoitte ei-vihreitä tuotteita? Valitkaa sopivin vaihtoehto.

Aina Usein Joskus Harvoin En koskaan

2. Kuinka usein tunnette olevanne kykenemätön boikotoimaan ei-vihreitä tuotteita? Valitkaa sopivin vaihtoehto.

Aina Usein Joskus Harvoin Ei koskaan

Vastaa seuraaviin kysymyksiin (numerot 3 – 10) luettelemalla vastauksesi kysymysten alla oleville viivoille.

3. Miksi boikotoit ei-vihreitä tuotteita?

4. Miksi et boikotoi ei-vihreitä tuotteita?

5. Mikä estää sinua boikotoimasta ei-vihreitä tuotteita?

6. Minkälaiset huolet saavat sinut boikotoimaan ei-vihreitä tuotteita?

7. Mitä haluat saavuttaa boikotoimalla ei-vihreitä tuotteita?

8. Mitä ei-vihreiden tuotteiden boikotointi saa sinut tuntemaan?

9. Minkälaisia tunteita ilmaiset boikottien kohteille?

10. Mitkä vihreät boikottialheet saavat sinut vihaiseksi?

Vastaa seuraaviin väittämiin (numerot 11 - 34) asteikolla 1 (Eri mieltä) - 5 (Samaa mieltä) ympyröimällä sopivin numero.

	Eri mieltä	Jokseenkin eri mieltä	Neutraali	Jokseenkin samaa mieltä	Samaa mieltä
11. Boikotoin ei-vihreitä tuotteita koska haluan tehdä muutoksen.	1	2	3	4	5
12. Uskon voivani tehdä muutoksen boikotoimalla ei-vihreitä tuotteita.	1	2	3	4	5
13. Ei-vihreiden tuotteiden boikotointi tekee ihmisestä paremman.	1	2	3	4	5
14. Ei-vihreiden tuotteiden boikotoiminen saa minut tuntemaan itseni paremmaksi.	1	2	3	4	5
15. Tuntisin syyllisyyttä jos en boikotoisi ei-vihreitä tuotteita.	1	2	3	4	5
16. Boikotoin ei-vihreitä tuotteita pitääkseni omantuntoni puhtaana.	1	2	3	4	5
17. Muiden ihmisten mielipiteet vaikuttavat tuotevalintoihini.	1	2	3	4	5
18. Boikotoin ei-vihreitä tuotteita koska se saa minut näyttämään paremmalta muiden silmissä.	1	2	3	4	5
19. Vihreät aiheet ovat minulle tärkeitä.	1	2	3	4	5
20. Boikotoin ei-vihreitä tuotteita koska tunnen yhteenkuuluvuutta vihreiden aiheiden kanssa.	1	2	3	4	5
21. Ei-vihreiden tuotteiden boikotointi on hyvä tapa ilmaista vihaa boikottien kohteita kohtaan.	1	2	3	4	5
22. Boikotoin ei-vihreitä tuotteita ilmaistakseni vihaa boikottien kohteita kohtaan.	1	2	3	4	5

	Eri mieltä	Jokseenkin eri mieltä	Neutraali	Jokseenkin samaa mieltä	Samaa mieltä
23. Boikotoin ei-vihreitä tuotteita rangaistakseni boikottien kohteita.	1	2	3	4	5
24. Ei-vihreiden tuotteiden boikotointi on hyvä tapa ilmaista poliittisia kantoja.	1	2	3	4	5
25. Boikotoin ei-vihreitä tuotteita ilmaistakseni poliittisia kantojani.	1	2	3	4	5
26. En boikotoi ei-vihreitä tuotteita koska sillä ei ole vaikutusta.	1	2	3	4	5
27. Kuluttajien pitäisi boikotoida ei-vihreitä tuotteita enemmän jotta boikotilla olisi vaikutusta.	1	2	3	4	5
28. Kuluttajat eivät boikotoi ei-vihreitä tuotteita tarpeeksi jotta sillä olisi vaikutusta.	1	2	3	4	5
29. En boikotoi ei-vihreitä tuotteita koska muutkaan kuluttajat eivät boikotoi.	1	2	3	4	5
30. En boikotoi ei-vihreitä tuotteita koska se rajoittaa tuotevalintojani.	1	2	3	4	5
31. Vihreitä tuotteita on liian vähän valittavana.	1	2	3	4	5
32. En boikotoi ei-vihreitä tuotteita koska näille tuotteille ei ole vihreitä vastineita.	1	2	3	4	5
33. Vihreät tuotteet ovat liian kalliita minulle säännöllisesti ostettavaksi.	1	2	3	4	5
34. En boikotoi ei-vihreitä tuotteita koska se on liian kallista.	1	2	3	4	5

Seuraavia tietoja käytetään ainoastaan luokitteluun. Ole hyvä ja vastaa kysymyksiin rastittamalla oikea ruutu.

35. Mihin seuraavista ikäryhmistä kuulut?

- 18-24 vuotta
- 25-34 vuotta
- 35-44 vuotta
- 45-54 vuotta
- 55-64 vuotta
- 65 vuotta täyttäneet

36. Mikä on sukupuolesi?

- Nainen
- Mies

37. Mikä on koulutustaustasi? (Valitkaa nykyinen tai viimeisin)

- Peruskoulu tai vastaava
- Lukio tai ammattikoulu
- Ammattikorkeakoulu
- Yliopisto
- Ei mikään näistä

38. Kuinka paljon ovat taloutesi arvioidut vuositulot ennen veroja euroina?

- Alle €10.000
- €10.000 - €19.999
- €20.000 - €29.999
- €30.000 - €49.999
- €50.000 - €74.999
- €75.000 - €99.999
- €100.000 - 150.000
- Yli €150.000
- En tiedä/ en halua vastata tähän kysymykseen

39. Mihin elinvaiheeseen kuulut?

- Naimaton, asun vanhempien luona
- Asun yksin
- Naimisissa/avoliitossa, ei lapsia
- Naimisissa/avoliitossa, kotona on lapsia
- Yksinhuoltaja, aikuinen, asun lasten kanssa
- Naimisissa/avoliitossa, lapset eivät asu enää kotona
- Jokin muu

Kiitos osallistumisestasi!