

A hand is shown holding a small, vibrant globe. The globe is covered in green grass and features a variety of elements: three white wind turbines on the left, a small town with colorful houses in the center, a city skyline on the right, and a beach with palm trees and people on the bottom left. A rainbow arches across the middle of the globe. In the sky above the globe, there is a white airplane, a cluster of colorful balloons, and a flock of birds. The background is a bright blue sky with scattered white clouds.

Environmental Challenges of Leisure Travel and Consumer Behavior

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Abstract

Conventional tourism poses a threat to the environmental quality around the world. Air travel is continuously increasing in response to the rising number of international passengers. Pollution from aviation, amongst other modes of transportation, in form of carbon dioxide (CO₂) emissions has impacts on a global scale due to its contribution to climate change and other environmental issues. Even though the world has become increasingly aware of environmental issues relating to unsustainable production and consumption approaches, while claiming an urgency to change this, CO₂ levels are still significantly amplifying while the impacts of climate change are becoming progressively apparent. Consumers and tourists can be viewed as a part of the problem due to their support of, and engagement in practices such as air travel. This is why this study examines the current consumer behaviors of Danish tourists in regards to green consumerism across different contexts. However, practices in regards to transportation are the main area of investigation due to its omnipresence in tourism and its environmentally destructive impact. Moreover, the study investigates the motivational complexities of green consumerism and how green consumerism can be optimized through structural and behavioral changes. The study also explores how environmental sustainability can be enhanced in the tourism industry through different eco-oriented initiatives.

The primary data being examined is obtained through a qualitative survey, with responses from 354 informants, aimed at gaining insight into their travel behavior and approaches to practices of green consumerism. Presented by Politiken, a quantitative megaphone-measurement study of 1.044 Danish people involving similar research objectives will be used to support the survey findings. Additionally, document analysis is the second method of obtaining knowledge and information about the issues in examination and discussion.

The study found that majority of Danish tourists cannot be considered to be green consumers when it comes to travel behavior. Aviation is the most preferred transportation form when travelling abroad, and the respondents do not regard the environmental impact of their transportation choices. Additionally, the environmental impact of flying does not influence Danish tourists in their choice of going on long flight journeys. The most important factors in their choice of transportation are price, speed and availability. However, they agree that an environmentally compensational CO₂-fee on flight journeys would be all right, which shows an awareness of its destructive impact, but despite this, the respondents are not willing to change their behavior. In their everyday life, Danish tourist are more engaged in green consumer behaviors in terms of household practices, while the majority chooses to commute by bus and bicycle at home. The motivational complexities of green consumerism are very varied and can either enable or counteract a person to be an effective green consumer. Individuals have different possibilities and abilities to partake in green consumer practices, in which internal and external environments can influence a person in several ways. The study observed that the informants are more likely to participate in green consumerism if the practices involve similar costs as non-green alternatives. Lastly, the study proposes that the best way to enhance environmental sustainability in tourism is through collective action, where authorities, legislators, industries and consumers facilitate effective ways to transition to more sustainable approaches, where proper implementation of policies is necessary to ensure environmental sustainability throughout approaches of production and consumption.

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Introduction

Tourism is continuing to flourish and expand with tourists travelling greater distances and making more frequent trips (UNWTO, 2016). The advent of flight has globalized the world, and the motor vehicle has made travel to anywhere possible. Consequently, transportation has become an integral part of the tourism industry. However, the increase in tourism mobility has for many years been linked to environmental problems, especially climate change, due to the fact that physical travel is relying heavily on the use of fossil fuels, resulting in CO₂ emissions. Due to these environmental as well as sociocultural and economic conflicts, researchers, planners, tour operators and international tourism actors, such as the World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) and the United Nations Environmental Program (UNEP) are all working on a 10-year global framework of programs on sustainable consumption and production patterns, which has the objective of reducing destructive impacts on the environment while still upholding the national and local benefits of tourism (UNWTO, 2017).

By 2050, the EU has the goal of cutting greenhouse gas emissions to 80% below 1990 levels. Targets to achieve this are 40% emissions cuts by 2030 and 60% by 2040 (European Commission). In order to prevent a global temperature increase of more than 2°C, all sectors need to contribute including the tourism industry (Ibid). Tourism contributes to roughly 5% of the global emissions, in which transportation carries 75% of the emissions, and air travel accounts for the largest share of the sector's emissions with about 40% (UNWTO). Although transportation accounts for a relatively small share in current global emissions, there is a need to develop effective strategies to reduce the environmental impact considering its expected dynamic growth. Consequently, in order to make effective improvements in the tourism and transportation sector by developing more sustainable options and practices, there is a need to implement a mix of measures, including technological improvements, regulatory and market based measures, as well as foster behavioral changes of the consumers (UNEP, 2008: 9).

The welfare of tourists has always been a key priority for an economically driven business, and tourism researches have focused greatly on how to improve the industry

with the objective of catering to consumers needs in the best way possible. In that light, it seems like the market revolve around the consumers and the revenue that follows, with everything else being subsequent. However, international awareness is growing about the fast pace of climate change taking place on our planet, together with the bearings that such changes are having on the ecosystem, on humans and their economic activities (UNWTO – Climate Change & Tourism).

The environmental concerns of consumers are shaping a trend called green consumerism, generally defined as "individuals looking to protect themselves and their world through the power of their purchasing decisions. In their efforts to protect themselves and their world, they are scrutinizing products for environmental safety" (Ottman, 1992: 3). As a pro-social, conscious form of consumer behavior, green consumerism may though be characterized as a complex ethical issue, which involves ethical judgments and disputes over what should be done, in which way, and to what degree (Moisander, 2007). Additionally, the term 'green' in marketing describes people, products, or activities that are environmentally friendly or responsible (McDougall, 1990). Despite the increasing eco-awareness, it is generally recognized that there are still substantial barriers to the adjustment towards more environmentally oriented consumption patterns (Moisander, 2007: 404). In much discourse as well as in consumer research, these barriers are usually credited to the motivational and practical complexity of green consumption, such as individual consumers' personal or self-interested benefits as well as external constraints arising from cultural, infrastructural, political and economic circumstances in markets and in society (Ibid).

In order to assess how environmentally damaging impacts can be reduced in tourism, it is necessary to understand consumer awareness and attitudes towards sustainable tourism, moreover to identify the different choices made by individuals during leisure travels, as well as the reasons behind these choices. Hereafter, an important challenge facing international authorities, policymakers and different market actors is to identify how green consumerism and sustainable transportation practices can be enhanced.

The study of consumer behavior is an essential part in the development and marketing of many products and services, since it's success is dependent on the consumers' decision to purchase. However, it should still be emphasized that sustainable consumer behavior must be understood as a continuous process rather than a static state; meaning that it must be considered a long-lasting process of adaptation and

balance to adjust their relationship with ecological, economic and social systems (Pulido-Fernández & López-Sánchez, 2016: 3).

From a research perspective, a general problem in the study and analysis of pro-sustainability and consumerism is the series of variables that can be considered when analyzing behavior, which can vary according to how the researcher understands sustainability (Pulido-Fernández & López-Sánchez, 2016: 3). In response to that, this research will be relating to sustainability in regards to environmental issues, revolving around terms like green and ecological, rather than for example examining sustainability in terms of the social and cultural impact of tourism.

Research objectives

The purpose of the research undertaken for this project is to investigate people's behaviors in regards to environmentally friendly tourism practices, with transportation being the focal point. The study will revolve around results from a qualitative survey with the aim of studying the behaviors of Danish tourists, supported by recent study from Politiken with similar research objectives (Becke, 2018). The analyses will be organized in 5 chapters involving different investigations, where different theoretical perspectives will be used to analyze the findings, such as the push & pull theory, factors influencing travel demand, a simple motivational model and complex theoretical perspectives in regards to green consumerism.

To start with, an analysis concerning the reasons why the respondents travel abroad during vacations or why they might stay at home instead will be presented. The next chapter will focus on their choices of transportation and the reason behind those choices, in the context of travelling abroad, during their vacation abroad and in everyday life at home. In extension, a chapter regarding the most sustainable choices when flying will be presented, where the respondents' behavior for those practices will be studied, also in terms of how and where to steer the consumers in a direction where they would be inclined to choose more environmentally responsive options. The subsequent will be an examination of the respondents' behavior in regards to everyday sustainable undertakings, including an analysis of the motivations and influences behind those behaviors. In continuation, the motivational complexities of being and becoming a green consumer will be explored to account for the potential reasons for diverse behavioral outcomes. The last chapter will introduce different

green initiatives in a discussion of how these can be used to enhance environmental sustainability in the tourism sector, followed by a conclusion of the whole study combined.

Research question

The main guiding question for this study is:

What are the current consumer behaviours of Danish tourists in regards to green consumerism, with transportation being a focal point, and in which ways can environmental sustainability be enhanced in tourism?

Theoretical Approaches

PUSH & PULL

In the investigating of consumers travel behavior in the light of environmentally friendly practices, it is necessary to get a bit of background knowledge about the informants' travel patterns. Ultimately because of the fact, that in most cases, it is more environmentally friendly to spend your holiday at home, due to less use of transportation, thus contributing less to environmental pollution. The theory of push and pull will therefor be used to analyze the motivations behind forces in our lives that lead us to the decision of taking a vacation outside of our daily environment. Furthermore, the theory of push and pull will also be used to analyze the informants' choice of transportation, both in regards to the factors they view the most important in their choice of transportation, but more interestingly, in the discussion of how we can use the push and pull measures to guide development and steer consumers into using more sustainable forms of transportation.

The act of travelling for leisure is reasoned by motivations. These motivations has commonly been examined in the framework of the push & pull theory (Shi, Cole & Chancellor, 2012: 228). The theory claims that people travel because they are pushed into making the decision to travel by internal forces and pulled by external forces of the destination (Uysal & Jurowski, 1994: 844). Most of the push factors are very basic

motivators, such as the desire for escape, rest and relaxation, prestige, health and fitness, adventure, as well as social interaction, etc. Pull factors are those that emerge as a result of the attractiveness of a destination, including both tangible resources, such as beaches and cultural attractions, and intangible features such as the tourists' perceptions and expectations, such as novelty, benefit expectation, and marketing image (Ibid). Although push and pull measures have been viewed as relating to two separate motivational categories for decision-making, researchers have noted that they should not be viewed as operating entirely independent (Uysal & Jurowski, 1994). For instance, it has been suggested that people travel because their own internal forces push them, yet simultaneously, are pulled by the external forces of the destination and its attributes. Similarly, Dann (1981) noted that pull factors of the resort both respond to and reinforce the push factor motivation (Klenosky, 2002: 386). Additionally, although the studies of push and pull factors, which have been widely reported in the travel and tourism literature, sought to identify motivational influences, they differ in terms of whether the focus was on identifying both push and pull factors or pull factors only (Klenosky, 2002: 386). In this study, both factors will be used accordingly to the interpretation of the research findings.

Prominent among the push and pull studies are other terms such as "sunlust" and "wanderlust" (Crompton, 1979: 410), which are terms that embodies motivations from both push and pull factors. Gray (1970) suggested the term sunlust, which describes vacations that are motivated by the desire to experience different or better facilities for a specific purpose, than what are available in the environment one normally lives. Grey (1970) also suggested the alternative, term appealing to sunlust and that many destinations may satisfy, which is wanderlust. He defined wanderlust as basic traits in human nature that causes some individuals to want to leave things that they are familiar with, to go and see at first hand different existing cultures and places (Ibid). In that regards, the desire to experience something different or wanting to get away from the familiar can be a push factor, while the destination where the desire can be fulfilled in terms of what purpose or feature the tourist is searching for, accounts for the pull factor.

As for existing findings about tourists who are involved in the consumption of environmentally responsive products and services, Wood (2002) argues that the main motivations for ecotourism are observation and appreciation of natural features and

related cultural assets of their destination. Holden & Sparrowhawk (2002) state that the main intrinsic motivations for eco-tourists are being physically active and meeting people with a similar interest, while Wearing & Neil (2009) found that some eco-tourists travel to satisfy leisure, pleasure and recreational needs.

Although push and pull measures have been viewed as relating to two separate motivational categories for decision-making, researchers have noted that they should not be viewed as operating entirely independent (Uysal & Jurowski, 1994). For instance, it has been suggested that people travel because their own internal forces push them, yet simultaneously, are pulled by the external forces of the destination and its attributes. Similarly, Dann (1981) noted that pull factors of the resort both respond to and reinforce the push factor motivation (Klenosky, 2002: 386). Additionally, although the studies of push and pull factors, which have been widely reported in the travel and tourism literature, sought to identify motivational influences, they differ in terms of whether the focus was on identifying both push and pull factors or pull factors only (Klenosky, 2002: 386). In this study, both factors will be used accordingly to the interpretation of the research findings.

As this research looks specifically at transportation during leisure travel, another way to use the theory of push and pull is from the standpoint of “where” tourists should be in terms of their travel demand and behavior towards transportation; as for where the authorities and market actors should “push” consumers away and from which transportation modes we should “pull” them towards, as well as which structural measures creating the push and pull effect can be influential in doing this (Modak, Jiemian, Hongyuan, & Mohanty, 2011: 10). In general, the idea of sustainable transport emphasizes the use of public transport, bicycles and walking and discourages the use of individual motorized modes of transport (cars and motorcycles) and of course also aviation. It also encourages the improvement of institutions, urban development plans, appropriate technologies and the development of promotional schemes that can inform, inspire and persuade people to adapt to more sustainable behavior concerning transportation (Ibid).

Ultimately, transport measures must develop strategies to “push them out” of automobiles, aviation and similar transport modes. To achieve the “pull” factor, there must be provided good quality service in public transport, while developing infrastructure for public transport and non-motorized transport and policies that

improve conditions for the use of these modes (Ibid). To arrive at a situation where people are “pushed” away from what motivates them to use unsustainable transportation modes, an approach economists generally use is a rationale of “price-driven-behavior”, where policies must be in place to discourage their use by eliminating fuel subsidies, creating charges/taxes and in general creating policies that increase the cost of using these modes, while using the revenue from those charges to enhance sustainable urban transport modes (Modak, et al., 2011: 10).

In connection to the above, the understanding of travel demand is essential, because factors which can affect and influence the demand side can be used in the discussion of where to push and pull consumers towards more sustainable travel behavior.

FACTORS INFLUENCING TRAVEL DEMAND

The decisions consumers’ make in terms of transportation reflect their options, needs and preferences (Litman, 2013: 1). People can meet their transport needs by making use of one or various travel options, such as bicycle, public transport, car travel or aviation, etc. There are various factors influencing the feasibility, suitability and desirability of these options, as well as several elements that influence consumers within the selection, purchase and usage decisions. These include, but are not limited to, cost, maintenance, availability, range of vehicle, refueling, recharging time, sociocultural considerations, safety, and greenness or provable non-polluting characteristics (Ewing & Sarigöllü 2000). From a sustainable, environmental perspective, it is important to understand these factors, so the development of strategies and effective transport policies can be implemented in the goal of enhancing green consumption. In general, factor analyses studies has revealed that individuals are fairly inconsistent in their environmental behavior (Steg & Vlek, 2009: 310). That is, one may behave environmentally friendly in waste recycling, while behaving in an environment-burdening manner in the transport domain (Gatersleben, Steg, & Vlek, 2002). Hence, the following influences may be contributing to the lack of environmental consideration in relation to transportation.

A key approach to promote sustainable transport is to introduce the right measures on the demand side, favoring more environmentally friendly options and thus encouraging positive travel behavioral changes (Litman, 2013: 1). The term

‘sustainable transport’ will in this study take it’s meaning accordingly to Richardson (1999, cited in Williams, 2017: 4), who describes a sustainable transport system as:

”One in which fuel consumption, emissions, safety, congestion, and social and economic access are of such levels that they can be sustained into the indefinite future without causing great or irreparable harm to the environment and future generations of people throughout the world.”

The aim here is to properly understand travel demand and the factors that may affect it, with the purpose of providing a more practical orientated perspective on how sustainable travel behavior can be enhanced.

People make decisions on how to spend their resources in form of time and money on transport. These decisions are based on factors such as their mobility needs, but also through their availability of options and preferences. Economists call these factors demands, which refers to the amount and type of goods people will consume under special conditions (Litman, 2013: 2). Many things can affect and influence peoples’ consumption patterns, including monetary costs and various non-monetary costs such as time, discomfort, risk, and status impacts (Ibid). Examples of non-monetary costs could be the time spent travelling to and from the bus stop or station, the exposure to weather and traffic or personal security conditions, as well as the quality, including features such as sitting vs. standing, space and comfort (Ibid). Other psychological factors, such as a loss of status among peers, etc. can also be a decisive factor, however, these more internal oriented influences will be clarified in the next chapter.

The following description of transport demand factors are based on existing studies that are decades old, and most of them were preformed in higher-income countries. However, it is commonly believed that these findings can be applied to other times and places (Litman, 2013: 3).

Travel demand reflects consumer’s ability and willingness to pay, and people consume the quantity of travel they can afford. Price changes can affect travel decisions in many ways. Often, when transport prices decline, the amount that people travel tends to increase and vice versa. This is called the law of demand (Litman, 2013: 2). Price changes can also affect trip frequency, route, destination, scheduling,

vehicle type, parking location and type of services selected (Ibid). In addition, people choose their preferred travel options, which can also be expressed in their willingness to pay for different options. For example, people may be willing to pay a higher price for flying to a destination, due to its unique advantages, rather than going on a train, thus reflecting not only their ability to pay but also their preferences (Litman, 2013: 5).

Presented by Litman (2013) are the following key factors affecting travel demand, thus influencing travel choices and behavior.

Demographics and tastes

Particularly car travel tends to increase with employment and wealth. Litman (2013) argues that in general, the choice of walking, cycling and the use of public transport tend to be higher for people who are young, older, poor, have injuries, are immigrants, enjoy exercise, and live in urban areas. These categories cover a wide range of people while those people in the same category may have very different transportation patterns, due to circumstances and means, which are individually dependent.

However, it is rational to believe that a middle age person, with a steady job, living in a suburban area may have a higher probability of owning a car, compared to a young student, living off education grants and located in the city.

Additionally, as people's demographics and tastes can change over time, changes in travel demand may also occur (Litman, 2013: 6).

Geography and land use patterns

Factors such as roadway-connectivity, building design and parking supply can also affect travel demand. Vehicle ownership and travel tend to be higher in rural and automobile-dependent suburban areas, whereas walking, cycling and public transport travel tend to be higher in urban areas, particularly those developed more recently with transit-oriented or smart growth development policies (Ibid).

Information about options

Due to inadequate information, many travellers are unaware of the options available to them and the attributes of those options. Thus, proper information and marketing can change travel behaviors and increase usage of for example public transport (Litman, 2013: 6).

Quality of transport options

The quality of transport options can affect travel activity and behavior. Improving walking and cycling conditions, and public transport service quality tends to increase the use of these modes, thereby reducing e.g. automobile travel (Ibid).

Demand management strategies

Transportation Demand Management (TDM) refers to various policies and programs intended to affect travel activity for the purpose of reducing less sustainable transportation choices and travel behavior. These strategies also include improvements to alternative modes, such as walking, cycling, public transport and car sharing, as well as pricing reforms, smart growth, land use policies among other incentives (Litman, 2013: 7).

Price

The price of transport, which represents the monetary cost for the consumer, is argued to be one of the most important and influential factors affecting travel demand. Vehicle, road, parking, fuel, insurance, transport fares, among others, tend to affect travel activity in a particular way. As mentioned earlier, increased prices on these variables tend to reduce its consumption and sometimes cause shifts to alternatives (Ibid). It has also become evident that poorer people will tend to be more sensitive to price changes and rich people will tend to be more sensitive to changes in travel time or travel quality (Litman, 2013: 3). However, a challenging note to price being a determining factor comes with the so-called “sharing economy”, in which broad segments of the population can collaboratively make use of less-utilized inventory, such as cars, via fee-based sharing. From a the demand side, consumers benefit from the sharing economy by renting goods at lower cost or with lower transactional overhead than buying or renting through a traditional provider (Zervas, Proserpio, & Byers, 2017). And as a bonus, sharing or participation in collaborative consumption is generally expected to be highly ecologically sustainable (Prothero et al., 2011; Sacks, 2011).

Income

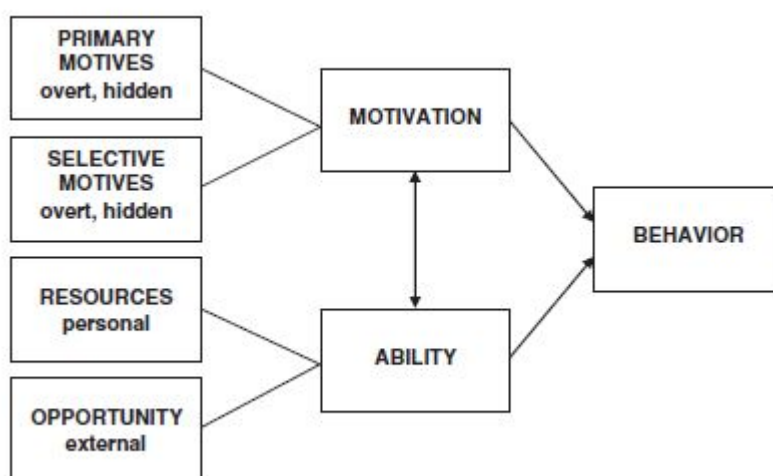
People’s ability to afford particular transportation forms is obviously also determined by their income. If an individual benefits from an increase in salary, their travel

behavior will most likely increase, both in terms of quantity, but also in price and quality (Litman, 2013: 7).

These individual influencing factors are described separately, and can thus be understood as one person being predominantly influenced by one of the factors, while another person may be affected by a mix of them all. Hence, the influences that individuals face in decision-making processes etc., may vary a lot from one person to another. As the above takes into account the more practical side of travel behavior and travel demand, the next important area to look at more psychologically oriented is influences, described as the motivational complexities that consumers encounter when being a green consumer or trying to become one (Moisander, 2017).

MODEL OF MOTIVATION AND THE COMPLEXITY OF GREEN CONSUMERISM

This chapter considers the motivational complexity of green consumerism, which is included to understand what may inspire or restrict such lifestyle and behavior. A simple model of motivation will be used as an analytical tool while having the objective of providing insights into the awareness of individual motivation and how internal and external environments can determine the effectiveness of green consumerism. Furthermore, other motivational perspectives on green consumerism will be outlined, which will be used in the analysis and discussion in relation to the behavioral findings of the respondents as well as supplementary data.



Model of Motivation. Figure 1 (theory).

In much of existing consumer research, green consumerism has been studied as a motivational tendency of an individual consumer (Moisander, 2007: 404). Although there is no agreed-upon definition for the term motivation, the term usually refers to the question of why a given behavior occurs. According to most scholarly literature about consumer behavior, the study of consumer motivation addresses questions of how consumption-related behavior gets started, sustained and directed, and stopped. Thus, a motive is commonly understood as a reason for behavior (Ibid).

Atkinson (1957) argues that there are two problems included in behavior, which any theory of motivation must come to grips with.

“The first problem is to account for an individual’s selection of one path of action among a set of possible alternatives. The second problem is to account for the amplitude or vigor of the action tendency once it is initiated, and for its tendency to persist for a time in a given direction.”

(Atkinson, 1957: 359)

Accordingly, motivation may be viewed as a selection of direction, which determines what type of behavior is chosen from all those possible and why, as well as the intensity or strength of that direction.

It is often an underlying assumption in discussions and studies on ‘consumer motivation’, that consumer behavior is purposive, meaning that people either aim to satisfy needs or achieve goals, among other things (Moisander, 2007: 405). However, even though behavior is assumed purposive, it is usually believed that motives can be both *overt* and *hidden*, meaning that consumers may or may not be aware of their motives for a given behavior (Ibid). Another distinction can be made between *primary* motives and *selective* motives. Primary motives refer to the purposes behind the decisions of consumers to engage or not to engage in whole classes of behavior, such as green consumerism, while selective motives refer to the purposes behind the decisions of consumers to engage in very particular behaviors, such as recycling, eating organically or avoiding products that contain plastic (Ibid). Additionally, consumers’ behavior is often expected to be determined by their *ability* to perform a behavior (Pieters, 1991; 65). Ability is argued to be a function of the personal *resources*, such as money, time, and the physical or mental efforts that are needed and involved to perform the given behavior. *Opportunity* is another factor that is required

to perform the behavior, which is determined by various external circumstances of the immediate environment one finds themselves in, that may either obstruct or enable behavior (Moisander, 2007: 405).

The reasons and intentions for the actions and practices that environmentally conscious consumers engage in when choosing, purchasing and using products and services are multitudinous and of continuous process, which makes it hard to agree upon the appropriate consumption strategies for 'green consumerism'. Initially, there may be different views on the basic objectives and strategies of environmentally responsible consumption and behavior. One view, which could arguable be the most radical, claim that to truly care for the environment, one has to drastically reduce the number of purchases of everything to a bare minimum, or refuse to buy anything which is not entirely necessary (Elkington, Hailes, & Makower, 1990: 5). In response, there are also views that acknowledge that such a radical environmentalist approach to consumption is not easy to adopt in our increasingly consumption-oriented society and would be a far to intensive transformation to encourage, as it would most likely fail. A more liberal view on green consumerism involves behavior that carefully chooses products and services that are the least destructive to the environment without significantly compromising one's consumption or way of life, though some may also engage in more minimalistic consumption approaches (Moisander, 2007: 405).

Secondly, the difficulty of defining environmentally sound consumption also stems from the fact that there are no agreed-upon criteria for what constitutes an ecologically/environmentally sound or safe product or service. However, there are some general properties of green products and services, which are often identified to guide environment-friendly consumption. The following criteria are illustrative of the depictions of green products (Elkington et al., 1990: 6).

- They are not dangerous to the health of people or animals
- They do not cause damage to the environment during manufacture, use, or disposal
- They do not consume a disproportionate amount of energy and other resources during manufacture, use, or disposal
- They do not cause unnecessary waste due either to excessive packaging or to a short life span

- They do not involve the unnecessary use of or cruelty to animals
- They do not use materials derived from threatened species or environments.

While these criteria seem reasonable in principle, they still remain somewhat obscure in practice. For example, it is impossible to objectively define what constitutes unnecessary waste or disproportionate amount of energy. Evaluations of these qualities involve problematic value judgments, and hence, vary among people and different interest groups (Moisander, 2007: 406).

Protection of environmental quality requires not only morally responsible and carefully selective shopping behavior, but also more sustainable ways of managing daily routines and chores of everyday life, which also involves choosing sustainable modes of transportation on a daily basis as well as on travels. Hence, it can be argued that only few environmentally conscious consumers do everything right. More probably, the majority of consumers do only what they perceive as their fair share, which they know and have come to think of as environment-friendly behaviors that can be done, while still considering themselves as environmentally responsible, green consumers (Moisander, 2007: 406). Understanding the environmental effects of various consumption activities often requires specialist knowledge. It is not self-evident, for example, that people understand the real sources of the greenhouse effect caused by CO₂ emissions from energy production and transport, etc., and the degree of which a product or service is the most damaging (Kempton, 1997). Moreover, environmentally responsible consumption requires that the consumer have certain practical skills and task knowledge, which they have to get informed about. This is where the motivational complexity of green consumerism is further perplexed; by the controversial and dubious nature of ecological information, as well as the disagreements among environmentalists and researchers (Moisander, 2007: 407). Due to contradicting beliefs and information about climate change, etc., Antil (1984: 27) states that is reasonable to assume that consumers are only really concerned with the environmental issues that negatively affect their immediate environment.

In order for consumers to recognize green products and services, it may be necessary to provide extensive marketing and labeling. For products and services where consumer choice can have a substantial impact on the environment, successful implementation of eco-information programs may be cost effective and desirable

(Teisl, Rubin, & Noblet, 2008: 141). Eco-information programs could include eco-labeling and certifications, which of course are based on research and tests that supports their environmentally responsiveness. Thus, when properly executed, these programs allow customers to make choices that reflect their environmental conscious behavior and preferences while simultaneously achieving policy objectives, such as reductions in fossil fuel use and air emissions (Ibid). However, eco-information programs might also fail in achieving these objectives if the consumers do not notice, believe, and understand the eco-information offered to them (Teisl, et al., 2008: 141). Nevertheless, when looking at studies that have identified the segments of consumers who are already highly involved in protecting the environment (Dunlap, 2002) or in more specific environmental and/or ethical issues related to consumption (de Ferran and Grunert, 2007), it is usually assumed that these consumers are highly involved in the purchase of eco-labeled products (Zanoli and Naspetti, 2002). Yet, studies also show that consumers often fear being cheated by dishonest sellers when products are promoted with “green” entitlements (Ellison, 2008). The risk of being cheated when trusting eco-labels is reason to expect a high effort of adoption process for a new eco-label (Hoyer and MacInnis, 2006).

Green consumerism can be thought of as a question of normative ethics, which involves ethical judgments and disputes over what should be done to protect the environment. Various studies have examined the value-basis of environmental beliefs and behavior (De Groot & Steg, 2008; Nordlund & Garvill, 2002; Schultz & Zelezny, 1999). These studies revealed that the more strongly individuals indorse values beyond their immediate own interests, the more likely they are to engage in pro-environmental behavior (Steg & Vlek, 2009: 311). Another line of research focuses on moral obligations to act pro-environmentally (Ibid). As such, it also is a philosophical question that involves questions of both individual and social morality, which adds to the motivational complexity (Moisander, 2007: 407). Environmentally concerned consumption is in principle motivated by two different types of consumption goals or motives: the individual objectives of the consumer and collective long-term environmental protection-related objectives of society (Ibid). The integration of individual and collective consumption goals is complicated, because the choice situations associated with green consumerism often involve a type of social dilemma or conflict, or a many-party case of the prisoners’ dilemma (Uusitalo, 1990,

Moisander, 2007: 407). This morally social dilemma stems from the fact, that environmental quality, clean air and water for example, are collective or public “goods”, but can only be produced if consumers are willing to co-operate, that is, if they are willing to contribute to environmental protection and quality by not engaging in environmentally destructive behaviors (Ibid). Moisander (2007: 407) argues, that in an individual choice situation, a consumer may be tempted to defect and choose the environmentally destructive alternative and leave the responsibility of environmental quality to others. So, even a green consumer may be lured to act as a free rider because environmentally sound products and services often cost more, both in money, time and other resources, compared to other, non-green alternatives in the market, and because consumers often feel that their contribution to environmental quality is minimal in the bigger picture.

Roberts (1996: 219) suggests that in order to motivate behavioral changes, consumers must be convinced that their behavior has an impact on, for example, the environment or will be effective in fighting environmental degradation or social inequality. This relates to the concept of perceived *consumer effectiveness*, which is a measure of the subjects judgment of their individual ability to affect environmental resource problems (Antil, 1984: 27).

Uusitalo (1990) points out, that environmentally responsible consumption may involve an individual-collective paradox, where cooperation in the production of environmental quality maximizes the long-term collective utility of society, but free riding maximizes the individual utility of the consumer. Consequently, green consumerism encompasses a commitment problem; being willing to be environmentally responsible and wanting to cooperate and contribute to the production of environmental quality, but as the contribution of a single consumer is only minimal, the temptation of consuming differently is highly probable (Moisander, 2007: 407).

In response to the restraints people may encounter when becoming a green consumer, the Theory of Planned Behavior claims that it should be possible to influence intentions and behavior by designing an intervention that has significant effects on one or more of the antecedent factors, that is, on attitudes toward the behavior, subjective norms, and perceptions of behavioral control (Bamberg, Ajzen, & Schmidt, 2003: 176). Here it should be noted the relationship between attitudes and behavior is,

according to existing research, often mediated through the psychological variables, such as moral norms, social norms, and perceived behavioral control (Anable, Lane & Kelay (2006). According to the theory of planned behavior, human action is guided by three kinds of considerations: beliefs about the likely consequences of the behavior (*behavioral beliefs*), beliefs about the normative expectations of others (*normative beliefs*), and beliefs about the presence of factors that may further or hinder performance of the behavior (*control beliefs*) (Bamberg, et al., 2003: 175). In their respective combinations, behavioral beliefs produce a favorable or unfavorable attitude towards a behavior, normative beliefs result in perceived social pressure or subjective norms, and control beliefs establish perceived behavioral control, which is the perceived ease or difficulty of performing a certain behavior. In combination, attitude towards a behavior, subjective norms, and the perception of behavioral control will lead to the formation of a behavioral intention. The general idea is that the more favorable the attitude and subjective norms is, the greater the perceived control will be and the stronger a person's intention to perform a specific behavior (Bamberg, et al., 2003: 176).

The Theory of Planned Behavior also predicts that introduction of new information, e.g. about climate change, natural habitat destruction, etc., may change the cognitive foundation of intentions and behaviors. Even in the case of a behavior that has become routine with time and practice, the behavior can be expected to be regulative at some level of awareness, so that the relevance of new information can be noticed and taken into consideration thus forming a change in attitudes, subjective norms, or perceptions of behavioral control (Bamberg, et al., 2003: 177). As a result, it is likely that the frequency of past behavior will lose some of its predictive power (Ibid).

These theoretical perspectives will be used throughout the analysis to let the study of green consumption and sustainable behaviors come to terms with various nuanced understandings of the phenomenon and why people act differently towards it. The research data and the theories intertwined will therefor expand upon something that initially looks simple when looking at the theoretical perspectives as individual factors and influences, which will also help to support the qualitative features of the study.

Methodology

Course of Action

The thought process of this study began with wanting to investigate sustainability in tourism, which is a massively broad topic involving wide-ranging issues. Therefore, the topic of sustainability was narrowed down to focus on sustainability concerning the environment in relation to the impact of tourism, because of the increasing knowledge about climate change and environmental destruction, as well as a personal and passionate interest of conserving the natural world, while still upholding the wonders and profitability of tourism. In terms of consumer behavior, tourists can be argued to be responsible for buying into the products, services and activities that the tourism industry is providing, which are contributing to several environmental issues. Hence, the travel practices and behavioral patterns in which tourists' carry out during leisure travels became the subject matter. However, the thought of investigating the environmental impact in terms of every aspects of consumption during leisure travels was too far reaching and would include too many problematics, which was why transportation was chosen to be main object of investigation, due to its omnipresence in the tourism industry and its polluting features. Furthermore, tourists are found everywhere globally, which was why the target group of investigation became Danish tourist, as they were the easiest to obtain information about, due to my already established network. Lastly, due to expansion of tourism and the accompanying growing past of CO₂ emissions, it is necessary and relevant to explore solutions of how enhance more sustainable forms of transportation, as well as increase the level of engagement in green consumerism among tourists.

Research Paradigm and Approach

Transformative

The transformative paradigm represents a family of research designs influenced by various philosophies and theories with a common theme of emancipating and transforming communities through group action (Mertens, 2009). In the transformative research, specific issues need to be addressed that express the importance of current social issues, such as empowerment, inequality, oppression,

domination, suppression, and alienation (Creswell, 2014: 10). Moreover, transformative research provides a voice for reform and change for those participants, raising their consciousness or spreading an agenda for change to improve their lives (Ibid).

Ontology

The transformative paradigm implements the viewpoint that social reality is historically bound and is constantly changing, depending on social, political, cultural and power based factors (Neuman, 1998). The paradigm also adopts the stance that reality is out there to be discovered, yet bearing in mind that social reality is constantly changing (Chilisa & Kawulich, 2012: 12). The transformative ontological assumption also holds the opinion that there are diversities of viewpoints with regard to many social realities, but it is necessary to place those viewpoints within a political, cultural, and economic value system to understand the basis for the differences (Mertens, 1999: 5). Therefore, the researcher has a responsibility to interrogate from where different versions of reality come from, in terms of issues of power (Ibid). Additionally, it is believed that reality has multiple layers; the surface level reality, which is visible, and the deep structures that are unobservable, which theories can help to unmask (Mertens, 2012: 5).

Epistemology

Regarding the question of what is the truth, the researchers within the transformative paradigm maintain the idea that knowledge is true, if it can be turned into practice that empowers and transforms the lives of the people (Chilisa & Kawulich, 2012: 12). Theory will be the tool helping the researcher to find new information and facts. The facts are built into theory that is consistently improved by connecting it to practice (Neuman, 1998). True knowledge is constructed from the participants' frame of reference, and it lies in the collective meaning making by the people, which can inform individual and group action for improvement of various issues (Chilisa & Kawulich, 2012: 12).

Methodology

In the transformative paradigm, the purpose of research is to empower people to act to transform society positively (Chilisa & Kawulich, 2012: 13). Transformative scholars

assume that knowledge is influenced by human interests, that all knowledge reflects the power and social relationships within society, and that an important purpose of knowledge construction is to help people improve society (Banks, 1993: 9).

Both quantitative and qualitative methods are used in the research process, yet the transformative methodological assumptions suggest that researchers start with qualitative data collection to learn about the people. Afterwards they can supplement their qualitative data collection with quantitative data that might be available from existing data sources (Mertens 2012: 8). The research would rarely occur as a data collection with one type of data. Hence, the most likely scenario would be a mixed methods design (Ibid). Participants are often involved in identifying the problem, defining the problem, and using the findings to inform practice (Chilisa & Kawulich, 2012: 13). For this research, participants are involved in identifying the problem, but more indirectly than directly. This is because of the way the researched participants/respondents are being investigated in terms of their behavior, through answering questions about fragments that are underlying the main issue, which then can provide knowledge to aid the identification of the problem as a whole, rather than the researched being incorporated to intentionally acknowledge the way in which their behavior contributes to a bigger problem, which could possibly create biases.

The transformative paradigm's emphasis on current social situations and issues with the goal of bettering the lives of the people, should in this study be seen in regards to the environment, because the environmental state of the world and the conditions of our surroundings are ultimately affecting our economic and social welfare. The transformative worldview approach has thus been chosen for this research in the belief that environmental challenges should be reframed and examined through a sociocultural lens, because it is ultimately us, as people, who can change and improve the way we consume and preserve our planet. Consumer behavior can be seen as a part of the problem by contributing to the environmental pollution and destruction, through the purchase and use of products and services such as transportation. However, consumer behavior can also be seen to assist improvements of environmental quality, if change and transformative thinking is implemented, where, in accordance to the transformative paradigm, collective action is required.

Methods

With the development and perceived legitimacy of both qualitative and quantitative research in the social and human sciences, mixed methods research, employing the combination of quantitative and qualitative approaches, has gained popularity (Creswell & Creswell 2017: 203). Both quantitative and qualitative data will be used in order to assess and answer the research question. The premise of this methodology approach is that such mixed integration allows for a more complete deployment of data. However, the majority of data, which will be analyzed, will be derived from qualitative research and documents, because of the importance to understand the social reality of individuals, groups and cultures where an interpretive approach will be employed when analysing the consumer behavior of the informants. The quantitative research will be used in order to measure the answers of the survey respondents in order to generalize data from the sample of the population of interest. Additionally, the mixing of quantitative and qualitative methods can be especially useful to uncover possible contradictions between quantitative results and qualitative findings. The mixing of methods will thus allow for an integration of the two databases by merging the quantitative data with qualitative data (Creswell & Creswell 2017: 208). However, the primary aim is to collect qualitative oriented data, while other forms of data will provide supportive information (Ibid).

Survey (Appendix 1)

According to Dillman (1999), the most significant advances in the survey methodology during the twentieth century were the introduction of random sampling in the 1940s and telephone interviewing in the 1970s. However, researchers today are witnessing similar, if not bigger, advances in the field of survey methodology with the introduction of technology-based surveys (Cobanoglu 2003). Yet, the analysis of past research surveys with the Internet as a medium has shown that there is an extensive variation in response rates, speed of response and response quality (Cobanoglu, Moreo & Warde, 2001).

An Internet based survey that was distributed and circulated on Facebook and in Aalborg University's mail system, was used in this research in order to reach a good amount of people who could represent Danish tourists. The survey method was also chosen due to its anonymous features, because of the assumption that consumer behavior in regards to environmentally responsible and sustainable consumption may

be a theme that involves personal and sensitive characters, which makes it more appropriate that people are able to answer and elaborate totally anonymous and on their own terms. This approach may also cultivate more honest answers.

A questionnaire was produced for respondents to read and fill out themselves. The final survey was produced in Survey Exact and involved 21 questions with the goal of getting knowledge about individuals' consumer behavior, largely revolving around their transportation choices and practices, during leisure travels but also in general. Additionally, in regards to environmental awareness and responsiveness, questions were also aimed at exploring their consumer behavior in terms of day-to-day practices of green consumer acts. The reason for wanting to investigate both the tourists' consumer behavior during leisure travel together with their general consumer behavior was grounded upon the preposition that people who are environmentally conscious at a day-to-day level would be more prone to practicing sustainable behavior when going on holiday.

Designing a good survey instrument includes selecting the questions that are needed to meet the research objectives, testing them to make sure they are formulated well enough to be asked and answered as intended, then positioning them into a form that will maximize the ease with which respondents and the researcher can do their jobs most effectively (Fowler, 2012: 2). To maximize the ease of the survey as well as preventing instances of exiting the survey halfway in, it was important that the survey involved simple and unmistakably, comprehensible questions; some which should be very straightforward for the respondents to answer, but also some that requires personal contemplation.

The survey instrument design has two components: deciding what to measure and designing and testing questions that will be good measures (Fowler, 2012: 2). The first step is usually to define the survey objectives, even though those objectives may be revised based on subsequent question testing. After, the process of choosing and testing questions takes place (Ibid). The survey questions were tested and critically examined by 4 family members who I chose because I knew they would be give an honest review of the questions, while also being somewhat disconnected from the research, which allowed them to view and understand the survey questions as the random tourists who the survey was indented to reach. The questions were adjusted about two times because of unnecessary content as well as bettering the formulation

to make the questions more precise and comprehensive. Once the questions had been drafted and revised by my thesis supervisor, the questions were applied to the survey program.

Firstly, it should be noted that all the survey questions besides ‘occupation’ had pre-formulated options to choose from, whereas their ‘occupation’ should be manually written. Checking a box, clicking on a response, or circling a number should be the tasks required of the respondents (Fowler, 2012: 8). Yet, in nearly all survey questions, there was the option of checking a box stating “other”, which the respondents could choose if neither of the options listed were the right answer for them. They were therefor able to write a personal answer as well as having enough characters to elaborate; either in extension of their own answer, or to comment on the options they chose. The respondents’ opportunity to elaborate if desired were included with the aim of obtaining more qualitative survey replies. Furthermore, the questions allowed for respectively 1, 1-2 or 1-3 checking of boxes.

Many researchers like to start with relatively easy, straightforward questions that help easing the respondents’ into the survey, while questions requiring a greater amount of thought, or those believed to be sensitive, are often reserved for the middle or later sections of the survey instrument (Fowler, 2012: 7).

The first set of questions was the standard age, gender, civil status and occupation, which were included to get an idea of who the respondents are. Then, going into the topic of leisure travel, questions were asked that involved factual travel choices, such as which form of transportation they most often travel with and which they most often use during their vacation and at home, while other questions required them to be more thoughtful since they had to decide on which factors in relation to those choices are the most important to them. Accordingly, these questions would give a picture of the respondents travel patterns and preferences as well as what stand to ground for their choices. Subsequently, a jump to concrete, hands on questions of everyday sustainable practices, in the search of knowledge about the respondents’ behavior at home in terms of what can be argued as well-known green consumer acts. Additionally, these questions had options, which were aimed at making the respondents reflect and realize specifically the extent to which they actually performed these practices. The three next questions were asked exclusively in regards to particular choices and behaviors regarding flight travels. These questions were

based on recognized knowledge of how to most effectively minimize one's carbon footprint when flying. The last question, which is one that has received the largest amount of elaborations from respondents, is a hypothetical question, which ties the subject of travel, sustainable consumer behavior and aviation all together. The question sounds; 'Hypothetically, how would you feel if you had to pay an aviation fee, which would go to climate protection projects to compensate for the amount of CO₂ emitted on the flight journey?' Here, it should be noted that the aviation fee in mention is not a CO₂ taxation, which some airlines already pay, but a fee that is calculated by the amount of CO₂ emitted pr. Passenger. Moreover, the purpose of the question was designed to explore the feelings or reactions the respondents would have when wanting to fly, but having to compensate for the damaging impact. The reactions can also implicate perceptions of with who- and where the responsibility of decreasing CO₂ emissions lie, which is a central discussion in the light of sustainable consumer behavior and change thereof.

As mentioned, the survey was distributed on Facebook and on the notice board of Culture and Global Studies through the email system of Aalborg University. The survey was linked with this message (officially in Danish):

“Are you 20 years or more, and have you been travelling abroad? - Then I would be very pleased if you would answer 21 questions regarding your approach to travel and travel transportation. The research is in connection with my master thesis in Tourism.

The questionnaire is in Danish, and it is completely anonymous.”

As written, the age limit of the survey is from 20 years and anything above that, and the reason for that is simply the fact that people under the age of 20 can be categorized as a teenager, whereas turning 20 will arguably become the age where it is more common to travel without the influence of one's parental figures. Thereby not saying that family or friends, etc., stop influencing one when travelling, but at the age of 20, one will most likely make choices based on personal preferences, attitudes and behavioral patterns. The survey was articulated in Danish, because it would naturally target people from Denmark, which is the group of people who are being investigated.

Even though it is more ethically correct to tell the respondents beforehand, what the survey entails in terms of what is actually being measured, the topic of sustainability

and environmentally responsive behavior were deliberately left out in the message, due to the possibility that people who has a neutral or negative attitude towards such proposals would most likely ignore the post. Conversely, the topic of travel and travel transportation is the overall topic mentioned in the message, which is a subject many associate with something good, suggesting that it would expectedly attract more respondents. Additionally, an important aspect of the survey was that the respondents would answer the questionnaire without any biases or prepositions before filling out the survey in the hope of obtaining realistic responses.

The period of where the survey was available to answer was from the 21st of February 2018 to the 14th of Marts 2018. A total number of 346 people responded.

Once data have been collected and a data file created, the next step is to examine the data to make statistical estimates and reach conclusions (Fowler, 2012: 2). When producing multiple-choice questions as has been done in this specific survey, the survey program will tabulate and graph the answers, making it easy for the researcher to read how many answered what, both in numbers and percentages. This provides quantitative data, which will be analyzed together with qualitative premade and personal responses. The personal responses and elaborations have to be reviewed and organized manually. If many personal answers are vastly similar, they will be counted and analyzed as the premade options, while unique responses will be analyzed separately. Throughout the analysis, the theoretical perspectives presented in the theory chapter will be provided to guide, interpret and discuss the findings and issues relevant for answering the research question.

The survey will be supported by a so called “megaphone study” made by the newspaper Politiken (Bencke, 2018), that has a similar research objective and a focus on aviation, which includes answers of 1.044 Danish people. It was included as it was published the 18th of Marts, right after the survey ended. As the study is newly obtained and thus very relevant, this will strengthen the validity of the findings about the current consumer behaviors of Danish tourists regarding travel transportation.

Limitations

Firstly, presenting a self-administered instrument such as an Internet based survey can cause problems of comprehension and difficulties with answering the questions,

which are issues that are less evident for the researcher (Fowler, 2012:10). This can also cause people to not finish the questionnaire. Moreover, there are other potential problems, such as multiple responses from the same participant and responses from unintended respondents, which cannot be avoided (Cobanoglu, 2003: 478). Also, as each of the questions has a box to elaborate in the goal of maximizing the qualitative features of the survey, the possibility of obtaining data, which cannot be used, tabulated or graphed, is evident.

Furthermore, there were two questions involving what factors are the most important about spending a holiday at home or abroad, in which both of them were answered by all of the respondents. Looking back, it would have been better to design it in a way where the respondents only chose their preferred holiday destination, which would have made it easier to clarify how many respondents chose to travel abroad and why. Also, the respondents were asked about their favorite type of holiday, where options such as city, backpacker, charter, skiing holiday, etc. were provided, but this question was found to be less relevant since it did not include any sustainable qualities or suggestions. Here, it would have been more useful if e.g. their preferred type of accommodation were questioned, where eco and green categories would be included in order to view their attitudes towards sustainable initiatives and practices offered by the destination, accommodations or hosts.

Validity

An obvious question is whether or not the sample data are valid enough to represent the population or Danish tourists as a whole. As the survey was distributed on my personal Facebook and on Aalborg University's email system, it is evident that the majority of respondents are in their twenties and are currently students. Additionally, if a researcher only uses web-based methods when surveying a sample where not all members of the population have access to the Internet, or the survey was only distributed in a certain region or for a subgroup of the population, the results may be biased (Cobanoglu, 2003: 478). However, fortunately, the survey was shared many times, including people who live in Copenhagen and suburbs in Jutland, as well as from people who are of ages past their twenties, which has made the questionnaire reach other subgroups as well, thus making the sample more demographically holistic.

Additionally, the supplementary data from the study in Politiken will complement the survey, which will increase the validity as well.

Furthermore, some critics might argue that what someone says in a survey is not what they would actually do in a real life situation, making the conclusions of such surveys suspect (Downie 1984: 77). Hence, respondents may not be honest in their answers, perhaps because of social desirability, biases or wanting to protect their privacy. However, the assurance that the survey answers are totally anonymous should have had a positive effect in that regard. Another validity disadvantage of surveys is, that the researcher cannot be sure that the respondents have read the question well enough or has given enough thought to their answers. Consequently, even though the researcher cannot always tell, the respondent's answers can be very random and will clearly affect the validity as the replies might misrepresent the reality of the issues in question.

Overview of the informants

This is a brief introduction of the total number of respondents, to identify whom we are dealing with. First, a total 84% of the respondents are in the age of 20 to 29; 6% is in the age of 30 to 39; and the ages of 40-49, 50-59 and 60-69 has 3% respondents each. Only two people of the ages 70-79 have replied. Of all the respondents, a number of 76% are women, while 24% are men, and 1% identifies as a non-binary gender. The majority, more precisely 256 (of 346) people have stated their occupation as students. Some are job seeking and the rest are in various forms of labour. The reoccurring jobs are; pedagogues, schoolteachers, lecturers, social workers, waitresses and engineers. Additionally, there are 2 policemen, 1 CEO, 1 officer, 1 chef, 1 therapist, and 1 who is retired. Furthermore, 42% are single, 47% have a partner and 11% are married.

Interview – Rejection

It was intended that the research should include interviews with travel agencies in Aalborg, with the purpose of getting their perspectives of tourists in general, as well as their customers' travel choices regarding sustainable holiday and transportation options. It was envisioned that the interviews should bear questions of what the travel

agencies would recommend if someone came in and wanted to plan a holiday, which should be sustainable for the environment and if they had any sustainable options in terms of accommodation, activities, transportation, etc. Questions about the agencies' general impression of the demand side of sustainable travels would be included too. Additionally, it was hoped that the agencies could give a general guess on which form of transportation most of their customers preferred when travelling abroad and why. However, after contacting 2 of the travel agencies in Aalborg, both through email and telephone, where I gave an explanation of my studies and research objectives, including the theme of the questions they were to be asked. They both declined the interview with the same argument, stating that they weren't qualified to answer and were therefore not interested in being cited. Furthermore, one of the employees at the agencies wrote; "I personally don't feel that any of our clients consider sustainability when planning their dream holiday".

These declines can however be the basis of a discussion about the different elements that could be the reason behind the agencies willingness - or the lack of it, to address sustainable options and initiatives, and come to terms with the issues that calls for an environmentally considerate tourism industry and engagement of its consumers.

Aalborg Airport was also contacted in the hope of obtaining some statistics about their customer's flight practices, in connection to question 18, 19 and 20 in the survey. Unfortunately, they did not attain such data and explained that if they had similar information, then they were not allowed to share it with the public.

Document Analysis

Document analysis is often used in combination with other qualitative research methods as a means of triangulation - the combination of methodologies in the study of the same phenomenon (Bowen, 2009: 28). The analytic procedure entails finding, selecting, appraising/making sense of, and synthesizing data contained in documents (Ibid). Document analysis yields data such as excerpts, quotations, or entire passages, which are then organized into major themes, categories and case examples specifically through content analysis (Bowen, 2009). In document study, there are both primary documents and secondary documents. Primary documents refer to eye-witness accounts produced by people who experienced the particular event or the

behavior in study, while secondary documents are produced by people who were not present at the scene but who received eye-witness accounts to compile the documents, or have read eye-witness accounts (Bailey 1994: 194). Both types will be used in research and analysis, including public records, which are the official, ongoing records of an organization's activities, including mission statements, annual reports and strategic plans (O'Leary, 2014). Additionally, data from academic research and journals, as well as non-academic articles, that cover issues of sustainability, green consumerism and transportation, among other issues, will also be used in this research. The bulk of the literature will then be discussed in conjunction with the analysis of findings of the survey and Politiken's study, together with the theoretical perspectives.

As a research method, document analysis can help the researcher uncover meaning, develop understanding, and attain insights relevant to the study, while it is particularly applicable to qualitative case studies, producing rich descriptions of a single phenomenon, event, organization, or program (Bowen, 2009: 29). The qualitative researcher is expected to draw upon multiple (at least two) sources of evidence; that is, to seek convergence and validation through the use of different data sources and methods (Bowen, 2009: 28). By triangulating data, the researcher attempts to provide a confluence of evidence that breed credibility (Ibid). By examining information collected through different methods, the researcher can substantiate findings across data sets and thus reduce the impact of potential biases that can exist in a single study (Bowen, 2009: 28).

Decrop (2004) defines triangulation as the most extensive way of integrating trustworthiness in the design of the research. By employing various perspectives to investigate the research question, the methodological, theoretical and personal biases will be very limited, which also serves to provide a more holistic investigation, thus enhancing the trustworthiness. Denzin (1978, cited in Decrop, 2004) outlined four variations of triangulation, namely data, method, investigator, and theoretical triangulation:

- Data triangulation refers to the use of numerous types of data. The data can be primary or secondary, written or audiovisual. The data for this research will be both primary and secondary.

- Method triangulation entails utilizing a combination of methods to investigate an issue, which in this case will be a mix of qualitative and quantitative approaches. Applying more than one method limits the possibility of selective perception, increases credibility and provides an all-round foundation for interpretation.
- Interdisciplinary triangulation is related to the combination of methods, theories, and investigators from various disciplines. This is especially relevant to tourism because it is a multidisciplinary field and investigating a tourism issue from only one discipline is likely to result in a fragmented analysis. This research draws upon the disciplines and fields of sociology, psychology, marketing and tourism to create a nuanced analysis.

The general principles of managing sources from documents are no different from those applied to other areas of social research. Data must be handled scientifically, but each source may require a different approach (Gaborone 2006: 224). Scott (1990) has outlined some quality control criteria's, which are: authenticity, credibility, representativeness and meaning. Authenticity refers to the evidence being genuine and from unimpeachable sources, credibility refers to whether the evidence is typical of its kind, representativeness refers to the extent the documents in discussing are representative of the whole of the relevant documents, and meaning refers to the evidence being clear and comprehensible.

It is important to bear in mind, that in the current era of information all sorts of documents are being published online, which place extra significance on the researcher's critical position towards documentary sources to establish their authenticity and credibility when evaluating and choosing to reference them. O'Leary (2014) introduces the issue of latent content, which refers to the style, tone, agenda, facts or opinions that exist in the document. For this research, important questions will be asked when incorporating specific documents, and the answers can be found through the analysis and interpretation of the data. Those questions could be such as; who is the author of the document? Which genre is it? What perspective do the authors have? What is their purpose of writing this document? What are their values and beliefs? Is it founded upon the idea of an individual's truth and knowledge or does it represent an entire organization? What is the story being told and what is not

being told? Are there any hidden agendas? Who is the target group? I aim to make use of these questions when assessing and applying the content while also using the knowledge obtained through other types of data.

Analysis

The following analysis will be composed of the chapters described below.

- **1.** Reasons for travelling abroad - Data findings will be analyzed through the theory of push and pull.
- **2.** Travel demand and travel behavior - Factors influencing travel choices, analyzed together with data findings.
- **3.** Steering towards greener travel behavior - Exploring ways to target consumers in the pursuit of more sustainable transportation choices.
- **4.** The motivational complexity of green consumerism - Data findings will be analyzed through the motivational model and supportive theoretical perspectives.
- **5.** Enhancing sustainable tourism through green initiatives - A discussion of how to enhance sustainable tourism, where alternative, environmentally responsive concepts and initiatives will be examined.

It should be noted that chapter 2 and 3 will be mainly focusing on the practical, hands on side of travel behavior and travel demand, as well as change thereof, which applies more economical perspectives. The more psychological and at sociocultural forms of influences will be examined and discussed further in chapter 4, in relation to the motivational complexities of green consumerism.

1. Reasons for Travelling Abroad

The act of travelling abroad is highly manifested in the discussion of tourism's impact on the environment, since there are longer distances involved where various forms of transport may be needed. It is therefore important to know why people choose to travel abroad compared to staying at home, or at least staying in one's home country during

leisure time, which is often regarded more environmentally friendly. Accordingly, a question in the survey sounded; “*Approximately, how many times, do you travel abroad annually?*”, which is important to know in order to find out the estimate of the respondents’ yearly travel patterns.

As shown in the chart below, the majority with 75% travels 1-2 times yearly, 21% travels 3-4 times yearly and only 1% travels 5-6 times yearly. Also, 3% (9 people) replied that they travel zero times yearly, which is interesting, due to the fact that in the survey post, I stated that the survey was intended for people who has travelled abroad, yet, one could have travelled abroad in the past but may have then changed their travel pattern since then.

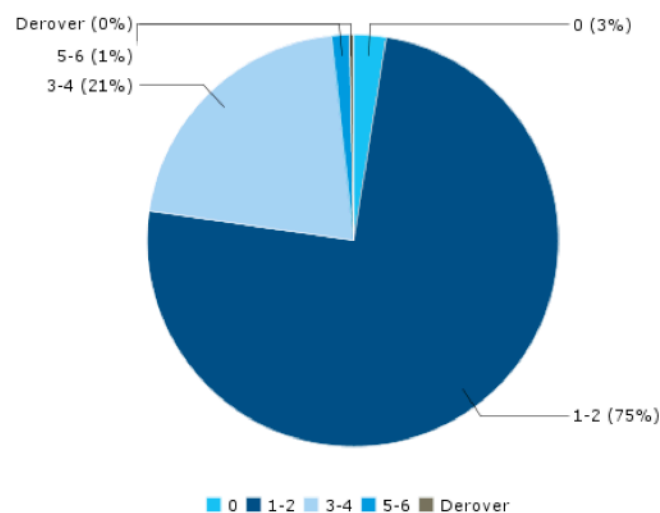


Chart 1. (Annual travels)

The act of travelling abroad is arguably always reasoned by something, which initiated the questions of what factors matters the most for the respondent’s in their decision of spending their holiday at home and travelling to another country. The purpose of this was to obtain a better understanding of why people feel a need to travel abroad in terms of what might be pushing and/or pulling them towards a foreign destination, as well as the contrary, namely what they appreciate the most by staying at home.

Starting with the question of what matters the most in regards to staying at home on holiday, the options of factors that were available to choose from was; *weather, culture, food, nature, avoidance of travel expenses, protecting the environment,*

safety, and lastly, *other* - the choice of writing a personal response/factor with the opportunity of elaborating. The respondents were able to pick 1-3 options.

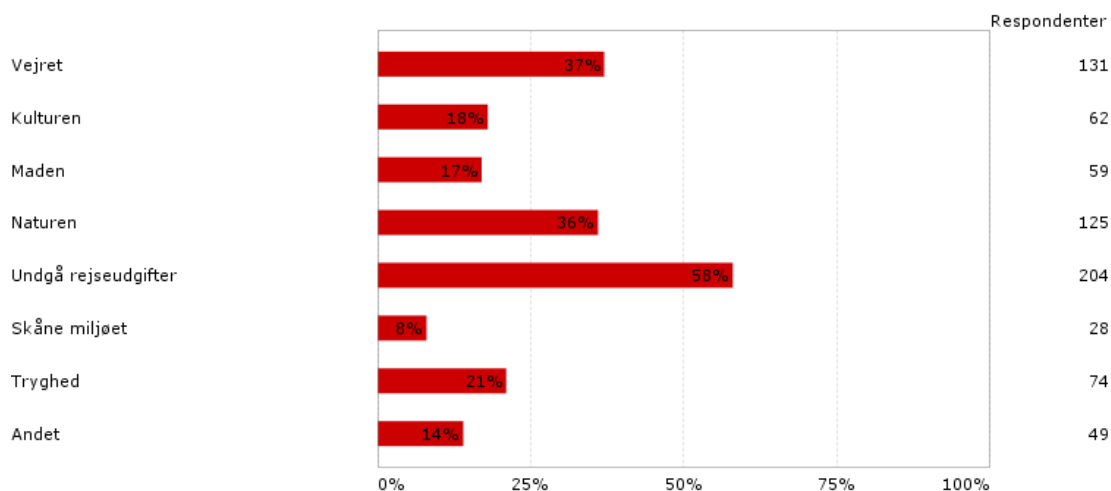


Chart 2. (Decision making factors - Vacation at home)

As seen in the chart above, the most prevalent factor is the *avoidance of travel expenses*. Even though that the theory of push & pull claims that people travel because they are pushed into making the decision to travel by internal forces and pulled by external forces of the destination (Uysal & Jurowski, 1994: 844), avoiding travel expenses can be seen as the reverse, as staying at home are the pulling factor because of the fact, that it does not require any extra expenses. However, one might still be having internal forces evoking feelings of wanting to travel, while certain destinations may be pulling them towards it, but external forces such as scarce economic means could be holding one back. Conversely, avoiding travel expenses can also be seen as a positive, deliberate choice situation, where one might be totally content with staying at home during a holiday and thus sees it as a kind of bonus that one is saving money while being sustainable at the same.

The second most chosen factor is *the weather*, which can be seen as a feature of the destination, however, it may be a fleeting one. The respondents' choosing this factor may be perfectly satisfied with how the weather is in Denmark, decreasing other possible push and pull factors associated with travelling abroad. Hence, people might also view the weather in Denmark as more pleasant compared to e.g. warmer climates, which will then push them away from certain destinations abroad. The third most popular factor, with close to as many respondents as *weather*, is *nature*. Nature

is similar to *weather*, as it also a tangible feature of a destination. Denmark have some nice beaches, beautiful countryside's and many natural areas that are ideal for outdoor activities, which might be the reason that people are drawn to staying at home during a holiday, perhaps to explore areas they normally do not experience in their everyday life. The push and pull situation is similar to *weather*, as the *nature* in Denmark may satisfy people's needs as much as other destinations, which eliminates the push factors of wanting to escape and the pulling factors of other destinations.

The 14% who has chosen *other*, writing something besides the options available are very alike in their answers. Most of them involve the argument of wanting to be near family and friends, which then makes it easier for everyone to spend their holiday at home. In this case, family and friends are the most important factor of choosing to stay at home during holidays, so unless one is able to bring their family and friends abroad, their company are pulling you towards staying at home. Another portion of the responses involve the feeling of being more relaxed at home. Hence, as many people are pushed to travel to fulfill the need of relaxation, it is evident that some people feel more relaxed in their current, natural environment, which again constitutes a pulling factor of continuing to stay home.

The most interesting factor in the light of this particular research is *protecting the environment*, which is by far the factor that the least amount of respondents has chosen. This is already an initial indication that many people do not really consider the environment in their thoughts when talking about leisure travels, at least not as much as other types of push and pull factors. However, 28 people chose this factor, which is still a group of people who couple the fact that them not travelling is indirectly protecting the environment from CO2 emissions and possibly other types of pollution, which could have otherwise been damaging, had they chosen to travel abroad. The 9 people who, in chart 1, answer that they do not travel abroad, may therefor very likely be included in the 28 people who view *protecting the environment* as the most important factor for staying home. In this case, *protecting the environment* can be argued to be an internal pull factor – in the sense that it could be a choice of staying true one's attitudes, beliefs and moral responsibility in regards to the environment and the protection of it. Though other push and pull factors may very

well also exist, such as being attracted to a certain destination or a another culture abroad, it suggests that they are outshined by the priority and contentment of knowing that they are sparing the environment from the impacts of their travels.

Heading to the next question of what factors matters the most in the decision to travel abroad, the factors the respondents could choose from was; *weather*, *culture*, *food*, *nature*, *tourist attractions*, *an escape from home*, and *other*.

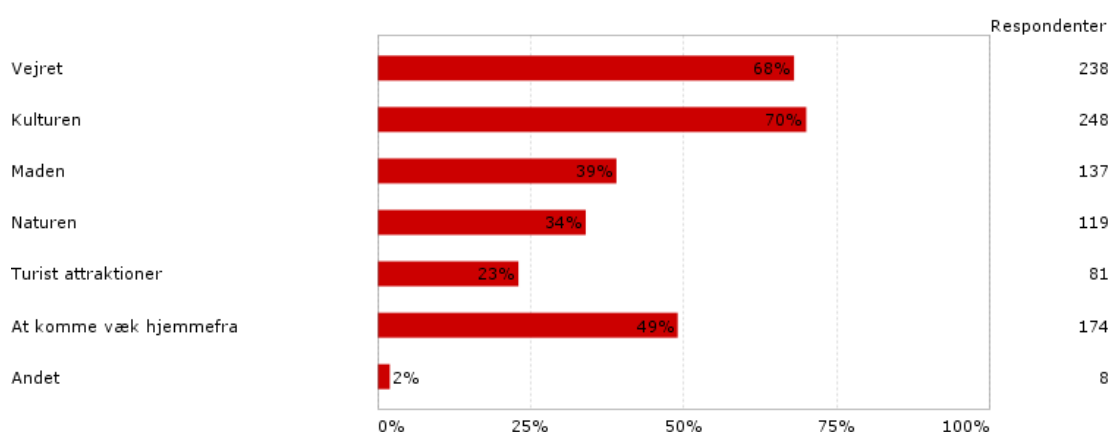


Chart 3. (Decision making factors - Vacation abroad)

The most ticked option with 70% of the respondents is the factor *culture*, which is arguably the most popular reason for travelling abroad. *Culture* can either be seen as a pull factor established by a specific destination or as a push factor established by internal needs to just having the experience something different as the presence of another culture. Hence, one might want to explore a particular culture, or cultural features of a destination and its people, or being motivation to travel abroad to have the possibility of experiencing anything that is new or alternative from what one is used to at home. However, since *tourist attractions* was chosen by only 23% of the respondents, which can be argued to be tangible cultural manifestations, it would suggest that the respondents are being pushed by the need to experience something different, such as culture in general, and a lot less pulled by specific cultural features. Hence, the term wanderlust may be what the respondents are feeling, which Grey (1970) defined as a basic trait in human nature that causes us to leave things which we are familiar with, to go and see at first hand different existing cultures and places. In that sense, choosing the factor *culture* can thus signify a need to get away from the ordinary environment we known so well.

Weather is the next most chosen factor, which can be analyzed much like for staying at home. The weather of a specific destination can be seen as a pull factor for travelling abroad, and/or at the same time, the weather at home may be the initial factor that pushes one to make the decision to travel to a place where the weather will satisfy the need one is hoping to fulfill.

An escape from home is the third most chosen motivational factor, which is a clear push factor. The need to escape from home can in theory be fulfilled by going anywhere that is not considered as home. Therefore, by choosing that factor as the most important in the decision to travel abroad, the respondents are implying that internal forces are the ones in charge, whereas the pull factors in form of attributes and features of destinations are secondary and perhaps even trivial as long as the desire to escape is being realized.

8 people chose *other* and wrote individual answers, in which spending quality time with family and friends were highlighted again. As these social get-togethers could most likely also be occurring at home since they were also a motivational factor for staying at home, it is imaginable that the people writing this as a factor for deciding to travel abroad have another kind of experience with their loved ones in a different type of setting. This can thus be seen as a combination of push and pull, because the mundane environment at home are pushing them towards travelling, while certain destinations and stays may be more family-friendly and ideal for social encounters, which may pull family oriented tourists (Uysal & Jurowski, 1994).

Overall, the *avoidance of travel expenses* is the key driver to staying at home in the respondents' leisure time, while *culture* is the thing that is pushing them towards travelling abroad. Knowing that many of the respondents are students, who may not have the economic means to travel abroad at any given leisure opportunity, makes it rational to interpret that this is holding them back, while economizing on travels is the most responsible thing to do. As *culture* being the thing pushing most of the respondents' to travel abroad, seem to be more likely to represent a desire of experiencing anything different than the ordinary, rather than wanting to experience a specific culture. In support of this idea, is the fact that very few of the respondents' found the culture of Denmark to be important in their decision to stay home.

2. Travel Demand & Travel Behavior

The concern about sustainable transport is rooted in the growing knowledge about how human activities are having significant impacts on the environment, which can thus also have an effect on economic and social circumstances (Litman & Burwell 2006). Many forms of transport are having an environmentally degrading effect due to its release of congestion and pollution, and besides that, transport is dependent on oil as a resource and is a major energy consumer, which is contributing to global warming (Elzen, et al., 2004). However, the transport sector is not receiving enough attention in global climate change mitigation efforts, despite the fact that, according to UNFCCC (2011) it is the sector where emissions have increased the most by 14% from 1990 to 2008, and are expected to grow by 25.8% by 2020 compared to 1990 levels (Ibid).

Before being able to explore what possible ways there are to enhance sustainable consumer behavior in regards to transportation, it is necessary to analyze the current travel behavior of the informants, as well as to investigate what can be influencing it. Firstly, the survey findings will be presented and analyzed through push & pull measures as well as different factors that can influence travel demand or the travel behavior that is appearing in the survey responses. Additionally, the analysis will provide a basis for a discussion of how and where to steer consumers towards greener travel behavior. The following charts are the data obtained from questions about which type of transportation the informants predominantly use when travelling abroad and what factors matters the most in their decision to use this type of transport. The subsequent questions are in research of which type of transport they most often use during a holiday and at home, with the additional purpose of witnessing changes or correlations in behavior for different contexts.

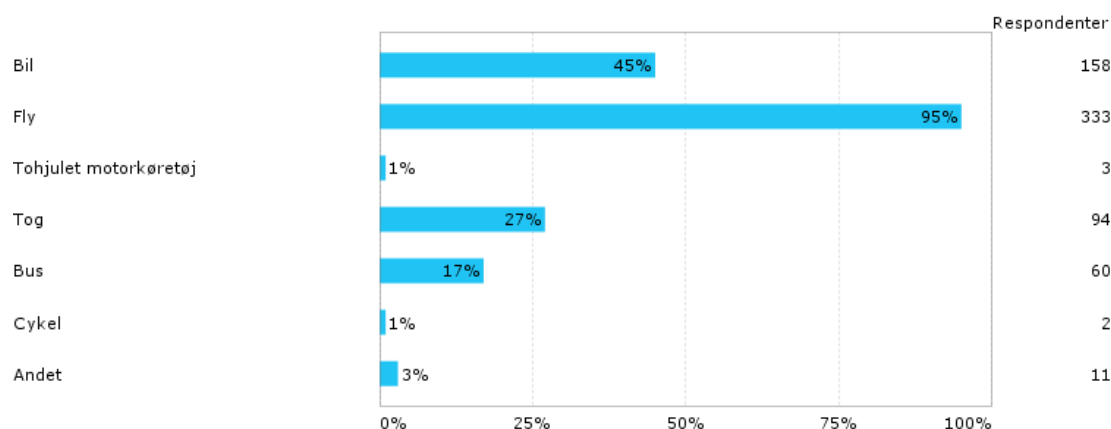


Chart 4. (Most used transportation going abroad)

The chart shows that air travel is distinctly the most used transportation form when it comes to travelling abroad. The respondents were able to tick 1-3 options, and 95% or 333 people picked aviation. The second most chosen transportation form with 45% is car, which will most likely involve some type of “self-drive holiday”. The third most chosen option is train/railway with 27% respondents, which in this case are the group of people who are the most environmentally sustainable according to table 1 below. Bicycle is the least chosen transportation form, which is not surprising since the context of going abroad often involves long distance journeys. As we know from chart 1, 9 people stay at home during their vacation, which makes it difficult to determine what they have answered. They may have picked the form of transportation they used if they once went abroad, or they imagined what type of transportation they would chose, if they were to travel abroad.

Firstly, the findings from this chart is interesting to put up against a table from Politiken (Bencke, 2018), which demonstrates how much the different transportation forms are pollution the environment in grams CO₂ per passenger kilometer. The table is based on a average number of passengers for every transportation form, and the more passengers transported, the bigger is the total grams of CO₂, while the emissions per passenger becomes a lot less (Bencke, 2018).

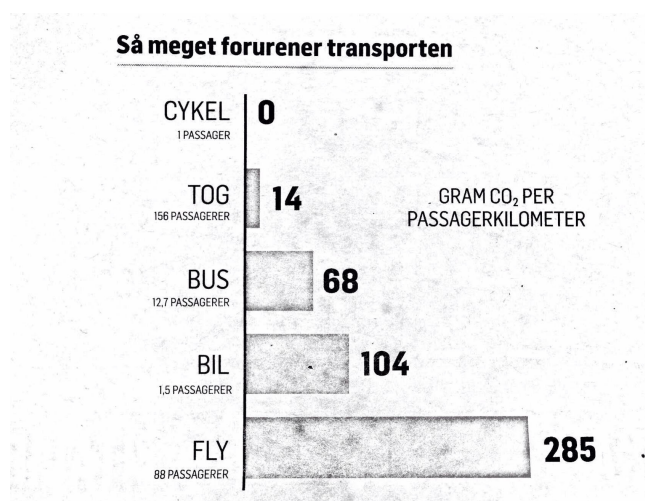


Table 1. (Bencke, 2018, Politiken)

The two most polluting transportation forms are the two most used according to the survey replies. However, the 94 people who have chosen train are, as stated, travelling much greener with a much lower individual carbon footprint. Calculations from an environmental movement called Noah shows that a journey with a train from Hamburg to Paris contaminates 16 times less than flying the same distance (Bencke, 2018). Moreover, a regular long distance flight from Copenhagen to Bangkok contributes as much to the greenhouse effect as 2000 Volkswagen Polo, driving to Paris with 4 passengers each (Ibid). Bencke (2018) notes that these examples should be hold up against the annual number of flight travellers in the world that have increased from 18 million in 1948 to 3,7 billions in 2016. Also, in regard to this research, according to chart 1 and chart 4, 333 people travel abroad with aviation at least 1 time every year.

In addition to these findings, one of Politiken's (2018) statements of their megaphone study sounded, "In consideration of the environment, I abstain from taking long distance flight travels". This statement was responded in terms of levels of agreement, as can be seen in the following press cutting.

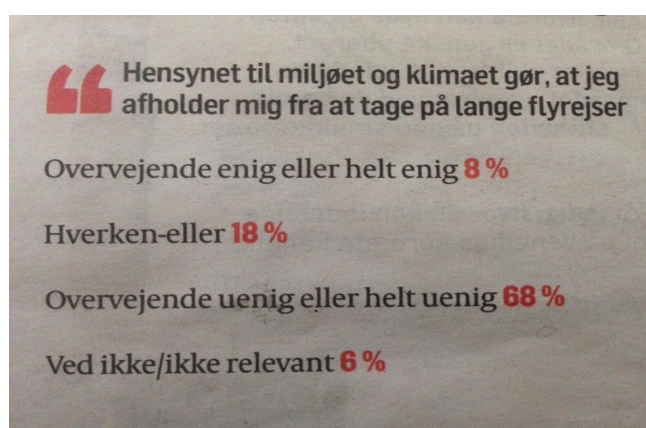


Table 2. (Bencke, 2018: 4)

Only 8% stated that they predominantly agree or completely agree, while 68% stated that they are predominantly disagreeing or completely disagreeing. The 18% who are stating ‘neither nor’ and the 6% stating ‘do not know/not relevant’ suggest a passive standpoint and a clear sense of unawareness concerning the issue, which indicate, more than the contrary, that they do not regards the environment, and it will probably not make them abstain from flying. One could then question if the 68% respondents completely disregard the environment and excludes themselves from any behaviors that are environmentally friendly, or if their efforts of decreasing their carbon footprint are directed somewhere else, while holding on to the perception that their right to travel with aviation should be enjoyed without any guilt and responsibility.

The survey respondents were then asked what factors matters the most to them when choosing their form of travel transportation, in which the answers can be seen in chart 5. These factors should have a connection with the answers of chart 4 since the respondents choice of transportation must be based on the factors that they find most important in their decision making process. The results from chart 4 can thus be analyzed more thoroughly in linking with chart 5. Moreover, Politiken’s research question presented afterwards in table 3 may also express coherent answers. The factors and options to choose from in chart 5 was; *speed, comfort, price, accessibility, effortlessnes, environmental impact, and other*, which are all factors that might ultimately influence travel demand and travel behavior.

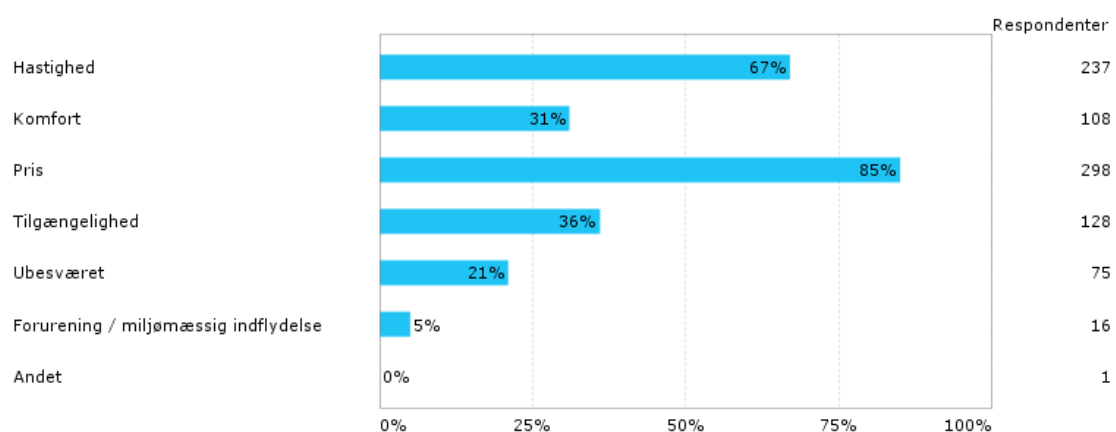


Chart 5. (Most important factor when choosing travel transportation)

Anable and Gatersleben (2005), from the Centre for Transport Policy and Environmental Psychology Research Group argue that instrumental factors, such as costs and flexibility are related to the general practical aspects of travelling, and a tourist choice of transportation also depends on comfort, convenience, relaxation, a sense of freedom and 'no stress'. Also, the choice of transportation to and from the destination is determined by the accessibility of time to travel. The survey results show that *price* is the most important factor for 85% of the respondents. The price of travel or transport, which represents the monetary cost for the consumer, is argued to be one of the most important and influential factors affecting travel demand (Litman, 2013). If we look at two most chosen transportation forms in chart 4, aviation and car, there are the official, common costs, such as a flight ticket or the cost of purchasing a car. Then there are other hidden costs associated with the two, such as parking, fuel, insurance and road taxes when owning and driving a car, whereas different taxes, oil price fluctuation charges and possible luggage fees, among others can occur when flying, which can affect travel activity in a particular way (Litman, 2013).

As *price* is the most important aspect when travelling, it is fair to say that the respondents most likely search for the cheapest option out there, thereby being pulled towards low-cost options, which also relates back to the *avoidance of travel expenses* as being the most important factor for staying home during leisure time. It also suggests that demographics (Litman, 2013) may be a determining factor here, since most of the informants are students. The disturbing findings of these replies is, that is suggest that the respondents are able to find flight tickers that are cheaper than any other public transport, as *price* is the most important factor, while aviation is the most used form of transportation. However, there may be other factors to consider regarding aviation, which the respondents may weigh up against more sustainable forms of transport. One of things that could stand in the way of the informants choosing the train is non-monetary cost, such as their time, which is a significantly influential aspect when evaluating the feasibility, suitability and desirability of the transport (Litman, 2013). *Speed* is the second most important factor when choosing a way to travel according to the respondents. The *speed* of the type of transport they are choosing probably reflect their individual resources of time, and unfortunately for the

environment, no form of transportation available for the public outmatches aviation in speediness, which is the pulling factor of aviation and may explain why so many view it as their best option.

Going back to the factor of *price*, it may also be argued that the general perception is that the pricing of a product or a service is often considered an indication of quality, where the factor of *comfort* also includes, which is the factor chosen by 31%. For that reason, the respondents' might also choose a form of transportation based on what they perceive as getting the most for, for the least for the amount of money, rather than just comparing prices and picking the cheapest option. This can also be referred to other non-monetary costs, such as exposure to weather, traffic or feelings of personal security conditions, the aspect of sitting vs. standing, or a feeling of a loss of status among the consumer's peers (Litman, 2013). Hence, the train might be cheaper option, but the conditions and comforts during a flight travel might be pulling them, as they are perceived more attractive to some, as well as it might be giving them a feeling of more value for money.

Again it is evident through the survey, that the environmental concern of the respondents travel is the least of the their concern, as only 5% replied that the *environmental impact* is the an important factor when choosing their preferred transportation when going abroad. Politiken's study shows related results (table 3), as 61% disagrees with taking the environment into consideration when choosing their travel transportation, together with the 23% neither-nor responses, which could not be more insignificant than disagreeing if the goal is to make consumers take a dependable stance in regards to the environment, as well as exposing it trough their consumer decisions and actions.

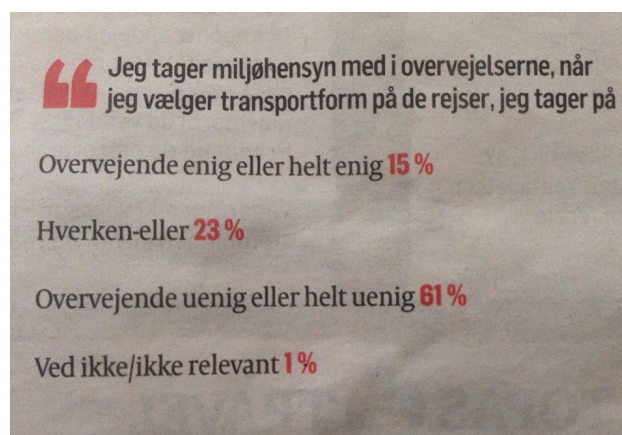


Table 3. (Bencke, 2018: 4)

These findings are revealing how little the respondents' from the survey and Politiken's study, regard the environment, which indicates that even though many of the informants most likely know about the impact of aviation, at least through the participation of the investigations, they are navigated and pushed by their own personal needs and their preferred ways of travelling, in which they are pulled towards the options that are suitable accordingly to their monetary and non-monetary means. Additionally, it should be noted that the consumption in discussion is in regards to travel behavior during the leisure time of people. Given that leisure travel is a voluntary act and that specific characteristics of leisure travel are synonymous with the association of leisure itself, with conceptions such as freedom of choice, freedom from obligation, enjoyment and relaxation, the consideration for the environment often is not a priority (Anable & Gatersleben, 2005). This is truly evident in these findings, as the vast majority of the respondents in this study's survey and in Politiken's investigation, clarify that the regard for the environment is not a factor of concern when it comes to travelling in fastest, cheapest and most polluting way possible.

The next question for chart 6 allocates which type of transportation the respondents use the most at home, in their everyday life.

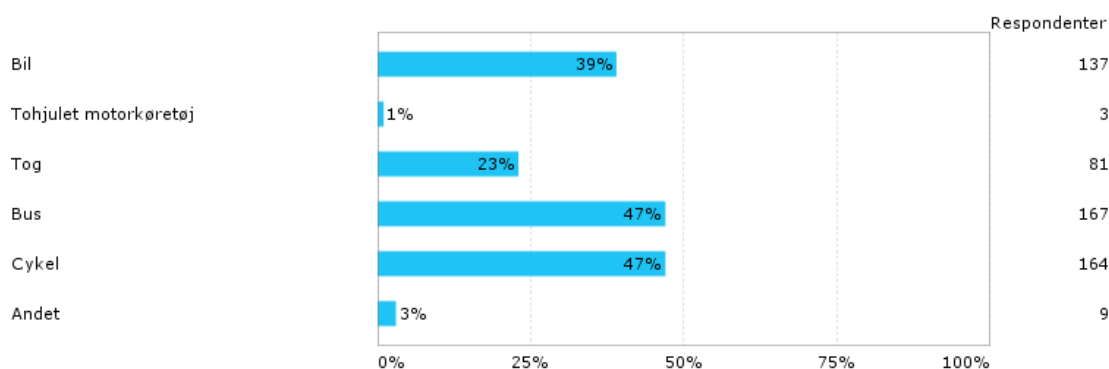


Chart 6. (Most often used transportation at home)

The bus and bicycle are each chosen and used the most by 47% of the respondents, in daily-life situations. Being transported by bike is both very environmentally responsible and inexpensive, where a parallel once more can be drawn to *price* being a decisive factor. According to table 1, the bus is still the more sustainable option

compared to the car. The respondents commuting with bus are most likely to live in urban areas, where infrastructures are effective (Litman, 2013), making public transport well functioning, establishing a reliable and easy way to commute to e.g. University, work or any other place. The same goes for the informants taking their bicycle, as many of the essential places to go, are near by in urban areas, making a bike ride achievable and comfortable. Additionally, cycle tracks are also very well established in urban areas, which increases bike rider's safety and accessibility. Hence, in the context of urban areas, busses and bicycles involve pull factors for the respondents.

Based on the table 1, it would have been more environmentally sustaining if the third most chosen transport were the train instead of the car. However, there may be many things influencing these choices, such as geography and land use patterns (Litman, 2013). Factors such as roadway-connectivity, building design and parking supply can affect both the demand for trains and cars (Ibid). Moreover, if some of the respondents are living in suburban areas, railways may be nonexistent, whereas driving a car makes life easier and more pleasurable in terms of pull factors, such as convenience, flexibility, comfort, speed, reliability, and creating a sense of independence (Linda, 2007: 59).

During a vacation, the extent to which a person needs a form of transportation to commute will vary a lot depending on the type of vacation, the country/city/area as well as its transportation options, distances to specific places and so on. However, in general, the respondents were to account for the type of transport they predominantly use when they are visiting another country, which can be seen in chart 7.

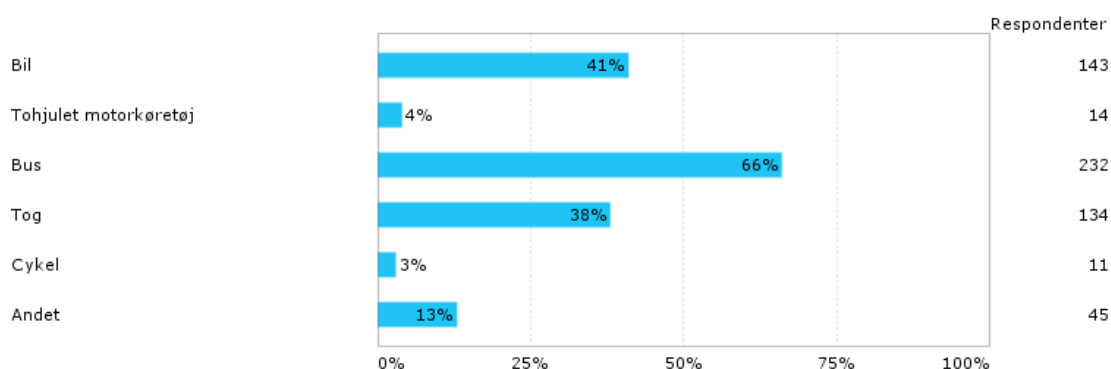


Chart 7. (Most often used transportation during vacation abroad)

The bus was still the most chosen form of transportation, which is a more environmentally friendly alternative than the car, which was the second most chosen transportation form. The 66% who use the bus during a vacation may see it as a part of the overall experience of another culture, which relates to *culture* being the most important factor in the decision to travel abroad. In busses, one may interact with locals, while having the opportunity to sit down and relax while observing the locations one drives past, which can also relate to Wood's (2002) argument, that key motivations for ecotourism are observation and appreciation of natural features and related cultural assets of their destination.

The 41% who chose the car as their most used form of transportation, can either be because they have their own car available, connecting the 45% respondents who stated that they travel by car when going abroad. Otherwise, they may have they rented a car at the destination because they could have been pulled by the attractive features of the car that was mentioned before.

Overall, the travel patterns of the respondents at home and during a vacation abroad are very alike, which may indicate indoctrinated routines, that have become habits (Bamberg, et al., 2003) and certain transportation preferences (Litman, 2013), which might be hard to change, even though it is in a totally different setting and context. As these habits are mediated through psychological variables, such as moral norms, social norms, and perceived behavioral control (Anable, et al., 2006), it may indicate they the respondents have a low sense of behavioral control or it could signify that they have established highly overt selective motives behind their travel patterns (Moisander, 2007). Furthermore, the advantage of speed and possible other attributes of flights, as well as the easy accessibility, flexibility and independence associated with cars, outperforms less polluting modes of transport when looking at ways to travel abroad, thus creating positive attitudes towards the benefits involved (Uysal & Jurowski, 1994). Public transport in form of the bus is the most used form of transportation both at home and abroad, which may also relate to finding the cheapest option, but may also fulfill the needs of respondents if they live in urban areas where public transport is very effective. Yet, car use is still not far behind.

These predominant usages of air travel and cars contributes the highest degree to environmental pollution in the transportation sector, which should be seriously

targeted in order to successfully change travel behaviors and the choices we make to reach sustainable transportation practices.

3. Steering Towards Greener Travel Behavior

Even though the concept of sustainability has become widely accepted and implemented in many different discourses through a series of reports and conferences, for example, World Conservation Strategy: Living Resources Conservation for Sustainable Development (1980), Our Common Future (1987), the United Nations Conference on Environment and Development (Quarrie, 1992), the Kyoto Conference (1997), measures aimed at behavioral change, towards a more sustainable way of living, face complex constraints and resistance (Prillwitz & Barr, 2011: 1590). These constraints vary widely between different practices. When it comes to measures related to individual daily mobility and tourism travel, the discussion of sustainability face much lower levels of acceptance and implementation (Ibid).

The United Nations has committed governments to create a set of sustainable development goals, involving protecting the planet and ensure prosperity for all as a part of a new sustainable development agenda. Each goal has specific targets to be achieved over the next 15 years. For the goals to be reached, everyone needs to do their part: governments, the private sector and civil society (UN.org). One of the UN targets referring to the environment is to upgrade infrastructure and retrofit industries to make them sustainable by 2030, with increased resource-use efficiency and greater adoption of clean and environmentally sound technologies and industrial processes, with all countries taking action in accordance with their respective capabilities (Ibid). However, despite these sustainable targets and goals, there are different barriers that counteract the development of more sustainable transportation systems and the implementation of it. Many of the barriers are on a political and institutional level, including EU, but also at a national, regional and the local level (Hysten, et al., 2014). Researchers within this field have stated that the technological developments are of key importance to make the transport system more sustainable, but a substantial shift to more efficient vehicles and alternative fuels will not solve the problems fully, as the new fuels and new technologies may only be able to contribute to approximately half of the required reduction in CO₂ emissions by 2050 (Hickman & Banister, 2007, 2012). Assessments indicate that sustainable mobility requires more than new fuels and new technology, such as a fundamental behavioral change in society and a

transformation of the conventional transport planning paradigm towards initiatives that lead to modal shift, resulting in reduced travel demand (Banister 2005, 2008, 2011; Hickman & Banister, 2007).

Nicholas Low, who is a city planner and founder of GAMUT at the University of Melbourne (the Australasian Centre for Governance and Management of Urban Transport), may be onto one of the barriers that work against the implementation of sustainable transportation. Low presents research addressing sustainable transport policy and planning inactivity in Australia (Williams, 2017: 9), and argues that it is not only crucial to understand what sustainable transport development is, but also what stops it from being implemented. He focuses on barriers related to discourse and institutions that lead story lines among transport professionals, which he claims are continuously strengthened at the expense of sustainable transport development. Low stresses the importance of the institutional context in sustainable development as he has witnessed a vast imbalance in federal expenditure in Australia, in the favor of roads over urban public transport, which has caused valid environmental concerns (Ibid). Low has drawn out dominant discourses from the perspective of engineers, economists and town planners to gain an understanding of how transport problems and solutions have been framed (Williams, 2017: 9). They found that the engineers preferred ‘predict and provide’ ethos, based on trends. Moreover, they consistently quested ‘free-movement’ of traffic, ‘integrated’ or ‘balanced’ transport and the need for further road building (Williams, 2017: 10). The economists’ discourses were related to market economies and to individual freedom, where the car is represented as mobility and endless possibilities, as well as related to economic prosperity (Ibid). This type of discourse can be seen in association to the second and third most important factors when choosing a transportation mode, according to the respondents’, which are *speed* and *accessibility*. These narratives could therefore be influencing the respondents since the survey also shows that the car is the second most preferred option, by coupling ideas of freedom and endless possibilities to e.g. cars, which make these words as reality. However, as trains often involve the same kind of narrative, the difference might be the *accessibility* or *comfort* factor, which is commonly perceived higher by car.

Nevertheless, as a result of this, Low argues that anyone who combats road building is seen as opposing freedom, self-expression and economic growth (Williams, 2017).

Similar to Low's discursive findings, Urry (2012) points out that high mobility lifestyles are associated with a high degree of 'meetingness', that is, an individual's standing in society is reflected in mobility patterns, which arguably necessitates air travel. This can also be seen through airlines' use of frequent flyer programs that "reward and thus increase interest in mobility" (Gössling and Nilsson 2010, p. 242). SAS has a reward system called "SAS EuroBonus" in which they state; "fly and accumulate points, which you can use on your next flight journey" (SAS.dk), encouraging people to fly, so they can fly even more at a cheaper price. This is pull tactic both in the sense that the consumers are being pulled towards SAS because, why not earn points if one is to fly anyways? But also in regards the use of aviation, rather than taking the train and not gaining any rewards. One of the survey respondent also explain, that they have a gold-card, due to the fact, that he or she flies frequently, which offers them certain perks, such as being allowed to bring more luggage than regular costumers, which is actually known to increase emissions (further explained in the following).

However, there are also discourses surrounding campaigns and varies medias that increasingly carry features about how individuals can and should change their lifestyles for the good of the environment, which obviously has the goal of fostering pro-environmental behavior and sustainable patterns of consumption, which will also attract and influence certain people in their consumer choices. In the discourse on sustainable consumption, green consumers are conceptualized as goal-oriented individuals and influential market actors who use their purchasing power to bring about social change by taking into account the public environmental consequences of their private consumption (Moisander, 2001, p. 252). Marketing expert and storyteller strategist, Jonah Sachs explains that brands interested in sustainability tell different stories, in which people, not the brands, are the heroes. In these stories, brands empower helpless consumers to become true citizens that can make a difference environmentally and socially (Godelnik, 2014). But the question is if the mainstream consumer have enough knowledge about environmental issues and what is needed to alleviate it, while also being willing to change their consumption patterns.

When looking at ways to foster behavioral change towards greener consumption patterns, structural strategies could be a possible solution in order to make public

transportation and other sustainable mobility practices just as attractive and socially desirable than less sustainable forms of transportation such as cars and aviation. Structural strategies are aimed at changing the relative attractiveness or feasibility of options by changing the context (Steg, 2007: 61). As *price* were the most important factor for the respondents, in their choice of transportation travelling abroad, financial measures and structural changes thereof could be of great significance to changing consumption patterns. Lets take an example of travelling to London, comparing the price of going by airplane or public transport, since 74% of the respondents replied in a survey question, that city-holidays were their most preferred type of holiday. Through Norwegian, one could fly from Copenhagen to London on a Tuesday for 199 kroner and fly home again on a Sunday for the same price. One could take the same trip by bus for 814 kroners each way. Prices for going from Copenhagen to London on trains are not evident on the Internet, only when one books a trip personally by phone, which could also work as a barrier. However, it is imaginably not much cheaper than by bus. Moreover, it takes about 2 hours in an airplane and nearly 20 hours by bus and 16 hours by train. So what are the respondents more likely to choose? The numbers speak for themselves. Conversely, aviation must be made more expensive, for example by increasing or introducing CO2 taxes and kilometer charges (Steg, 2007), making it less of an obvious choice to fly. The simple assumption underlying this strategy is that prices will steer behavior, and that people will choose the option with the highest value against lowest costs. However, as stated before, many other considerations in terms of the practical appeal of the specific type of transportation mode, such as comfort, speed, and flexibility, as well as other types of external influences as geography and land use patterns (Litman, 2013). Nevertheless, technological developments may allow for an increase in speed for many types of trains, subways and metros, while comfort improvements in both trains and busses can be optimized. Infrastructural improvements in urban and suburban areas can also be achieved, thus making public transportation more accessible and flexible.

Based on the survey, we now know that the majority choose to fly when going on vacation and does it around 1-2 times a year. It is naive to believe that people will change their consumption patterns entirely, as Politiken's research show that 68% respondent states that the concern for the environment will not abstain them from

flying on vacation. Therefore, smaller changes that will reduce the CO₂ footprint per passenger could seem more comprehensible than quitting travelling with aviation completely. Minimal structural strategies or adjustments might be a way to start, encouraging sustainable behavior, while making consumers attentive about their choices and thereby enhancing the feasibility of consumers choosing consciously in regards to the environment. There are 3 acknowledged ways to reduce one's carbon footprint when flying, in which the respondents were asked about their conduct. Even though these practices still involve flying, little individual changes may reduce the total amount of CO₂ being released on a global scale, which is better than nothing. This can also be associated with the 'foot-in-the-door' strategy that describes the experience of, in this case, small environmental actions that may lead to bigger environmental actions, thus by creating awareness, a kind of snowball effect develops (Miller, 2003). In other words, the strategy entails of asking people to carry out a small request, in the form of the following proposals, before asking them to complete the largest target, which is to eventually avoid travelling with aviation. The reason for studying the behavior of the respondents more thoroughly in regards to their use of air travel rather e.g. car use, is simply because aviation is the most polluting transportation form and because most green-consumer information focuses on what to do when you get to your destination and not on how to get there in a more conscious way (Nathanson, et al., 2008: 1).

The first more responsible choice when flying is selecting to sit on coach, rather than flying on business class/first class. According to a study from the World Bank, the emissions associated with flying in business class are about three times greater than flying in coach. In business class and first class, the seats are bigger making, thus fewer people fit in the airplane and less people are being moved by the same amount of fuel (Schlossberg, 2017).

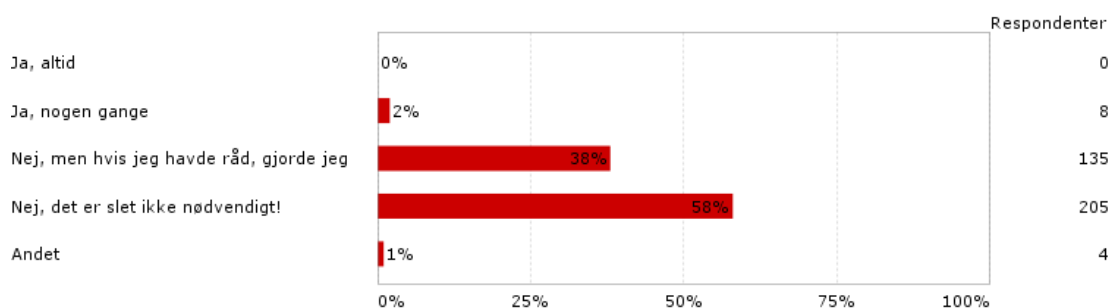


Chart 12. (Flying first/business class)

58% of the respondents stated that it is far from necessary for them to fly on first class, which is a good amount of people doing right by the environment. However, 38% stated that if they could afford it, they would choose to fly first class. In this case, the price of first class is what is pushing them away, which is exactly what it should be doing when talking about structural measures to promote greener consumption. At the same time, the inexpensive price of flying coach is the pull factor. The solution to changing the perception of the 38% of respondent in order to make them choose coach even if they had the money to fly first class is trickier, as flying first class will logically have more attractive features in terms of comfort and service. However, eco-fees could be placed on first class tickets, which would work as a push measure, while information about the environmental benefits of choosing coach could be included in the booking system, which could work as a pull measure in the hope of that people who care enough for the environment would overlook the appeal of first class.

The second thing that consumers should priorities when flying is choosing direct/non-stop flights instead of flights that have stopovers. Aside from the less time spent and convenience aspect of non-stop flights, they are much better for the environment. One might think that the CO₂ emissions of changing flights are little, since it sometimes only requires just a few more miles of travel. However, it turns out that direct flights are exponentially better for the environment, because takeoff, landing, and ground operations produce the largest amount of carbon emissions (Nathanson, et al., 2008: 4). For example, a 1,000-mile nonstop flight from New York City to Orlando can save nearly 35 % compared with a two-connection flight (Ibid).

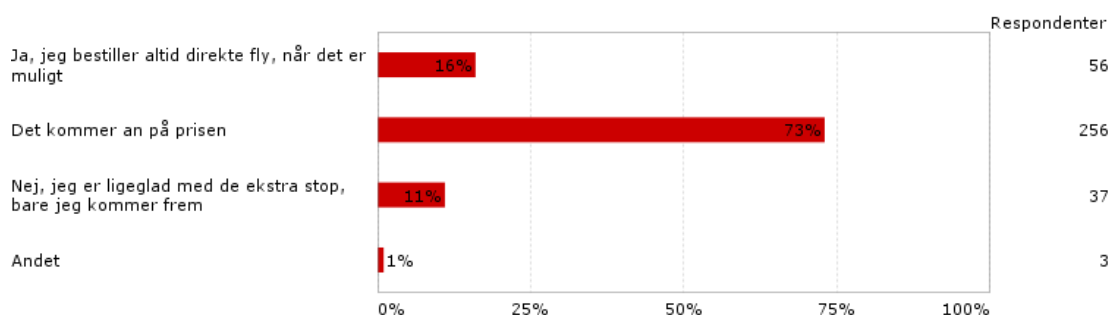


Chart 13. (Paying extra for direct flights)

Chart 13 shows that 73% of the respondents would only choose direct flights if the price were acceptable. Unfortunately I do not know how much extra they would pay to choose the direct flight, or if they even want to pay more for non-stop trips.

However, one of the respondents elaborated:

“If the direct flight tickets were 100-200 kroners more expensive, then yes. - But only if the alternative is a 6 hour wait. If the stopovers lasted about 1-3 hours, then I would not pay extra for the direct flight.”

Once more it shows that price and time is a very essential part of the respondent's subsequent travel behavior, yet the above statement suggest that time is less of an issue, when a 1-3 hours wait is not worth 100-200 kroners.

Luckily for the environment, more people choose to always book direct flights, rather than the people who could not care less about the extra stopovers. In this case, additional push and pull measures could be introduced to make the 73% always choose the direct flight (when they are available that is). Once more, the option could be to place an additional eco-taxes on bookings that include stopovers, which would account for the amount of CO₂ being released during takeoff and landing. These eco-taxes could include information about why it is required, which would inform people about the harmful impact of going on multiple flights compared to non-stop journeys, which might spark negative attitudes and perhaps create a feeling of resistance towards choosing anything but the direct flights.

Lastly, generally, the more weight planes, trains and cars have to carry, the more fuel they use and the more CO₂ are being emitted into the atmosphere (Galbraith, 2016). Hence, the lighter a person can pack, the better it is for the environment. Indeed, one has to pack a bag, etc., when going on a holiday, but if we want to lessen our carbon footprint, we should think twice when packing things that are basically unnecessary and only bring clothes or stuff with us, in which we actually use. The survey respondents were asked if they were willingly pay extra in order to bring more luggage than what the airline allows.

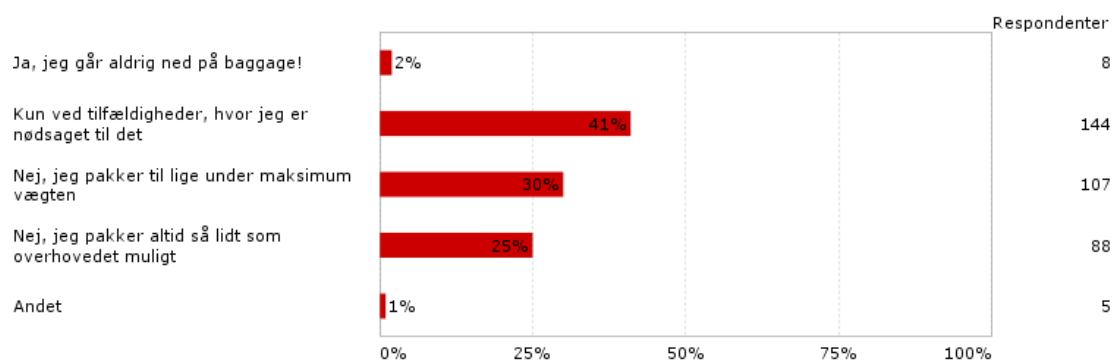


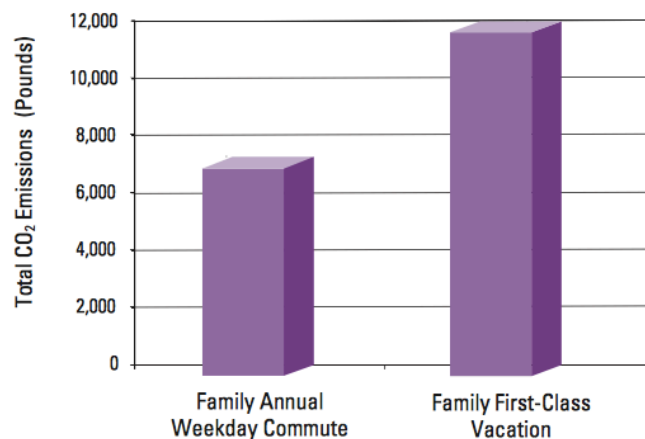
Chart 14. (Paying extra for more baggage)

It is reasonable that the most ideal behavior would be, if one could pack as less as absolutely possible, which 25% of the respondents' claim that they do.

41% of the respondents imply that they only pay extra when they pack more than allowed by accident, which is arguably more excusable than the 2% who states that they never constrain their amount of luggage. Many people avoid paying extra because they can exploit the possibility of carrying hand luggage with them on the airplane, which often fills up much more space than what was supposed to be for one person. Therefore, in order to make people bring less luggage, stricter rules or increased luggage control could be implemented, as well as structural changes in terms of reducing the amount of luggage one person is allowed to bring.

A union of concerned scientists, who are a science-based, nonprofit organization working for a healthy environment through the development and promotion of strategies, aimed to reduce the impact of the U.S. transportation system, found that in one vacation where a family are travelling on first class with stopovers can actually produce as much or more CO₂ as a year of commuting at home (Nathanson, et al., 2008). The scientists studied a family of four; the Elsens', who's CO₂ emissions have been calculated on a yearly basis commuting at home, and afterwards compared to their first family trip on first class to Disney Land (Ibid). At home, the dad drives a Chevy Malibu for his 10-mile round-trip travel to and from work. The mom switched from a Ford Explorer to a more efficient Ford Escape for her daily 25 miles of travel, which includes driving round-trip to work and driving the kids to and from after-school activities (Nathanson, et al., 2008: 1). The chart below shows how the family's one vacation produce more than one and a half times the pollution created by their whole year of weekday commuting.

Elsen Family Commute vs. First-Class Vacation



(Nathanson, et al., 2008)

This comparison assumes that the Elsens' Chevy Malibu gets 25 miles per gallon, their two-wheel-drive Ford Escape gets 23 mpg, and the family takes four first-class round-trip flights from Chicago to Orlando via Houston. Weekday commuting represents 35 percent of the Elsens' average annual automobile travel (Ibid).

The study also included the information that the family chose a flight that included a layover in Houston, because they prioritized the deluxe seats on first class, which they felt was worth the extra time (Nathanson, et al, 2008: 7). The family could have been more environmentally responsible if they had chosen a non-stop route instead, as well as have done without the luxury of first class. If they had done this, the study found that the Elsens' would have cut their carbon emissions roughly 70% compared to their original flight plans (Nathanson, et al., 2008: 8). Nevertheless, these numbers are a clear reminder that our carbon footprint is not just a product of our daily habits, but an immense representation of our travel and vacation behavior as well. Conclusively, knowing that this story is being somewhat retold every year, as this study found that 95% of the respondents fly every year on vacation, structural implementations that could influence travel behavior when flying can reduce the total amount of CO₂ emission massively.

The reasons and objectives for engaging in the practices like the above, as well general green consumer behavior when selecting, purchasing and using products or services are multitudinous as has been described, and varies internal factors are yet to be explored. Personal perceptions, values and morals, among other things will be the

next topics of influence, which are different from those that have dominated the previous chapters.

4. The Motivational Complexity of Green Consumerism

To start with, survey findings involving the behavior of the respondents in regards to commonly known green consumer practices, which will give an idea of how eco-oriented the informants are on a daily basis. This will be analyzed through the motivational model (figure 1 in theory), among other theoretical perspectives. This will be followed by a discussion of the motivational complexities of green consumerism as a general concept, to obtain a better understanding of what can be both hindering and enhancing overall perceptions about green consumerism and incentives to partake in it.

Developing more environmentally sustainable consumption and production systems depends highly upon consumers' willingness to support and engage in greener consumption behaviors. While a modern market economy operates on the assumption that consumers behave rationally to maximize their utility, green consumerism expands this assumption by claiming that consumers gain some utility out of a healthier environment, and since environmental degradation lowers the utility consumers can derive from the environment, consumers choose to voluntarily change their behavior to help achieve environmental goals (Pettit & Sheppard, 1992: 329). It is through this basic logic that, the abstract notion of green consumerism initially seems plausible. Human nature, however, presents some multifaceted difficulties for acting out effective green consumerism (Pettit & Sheppard, 1992: 330).

There is an overall agreement that in order for green consumerism to be effective, the consumer should make the optimal purchase decisions in terms of products and services while using these in an environmentally friendly manner and dispose the product in a similarly environmentally responsive way (Pettit & Sheppard, 1992: 342). In the light of that, the following survey questions will demonstrate the respondents' pattern of behavior in terms of those standards. So how do this relate to tourism and leisure travel? It does not directly, however the purpose is to see if there is the same amount of vigor, or lack of it, to the green behaviors in regards to transportation as well as the behavior in everyday life. Moreover, to investigate the

assumption that only few environmentally conscious consumers do everything right, thus rather do only what one may perceive as their fair share that they have come to think of as the environment-friendly behaviors that can be done (Moisader, 2007).

Today, Denmark has one of the lowest landfill rates in Europe. As one of the first countries in the world, Denmark passed an environmental protection law in 1973 that initiated the introduction of the world's first law on recycling in 1978, stating that at least 50% of all paper and beverage packaging should be recycled (Dakofa.com). To make it an easier job for the authorities to manage, separate and recycle waste materials, as well as increase the overall amount being recycled, the public need to be on board following the same guidelines in their own households. So, the respondents were simply asked if they separate their waste.

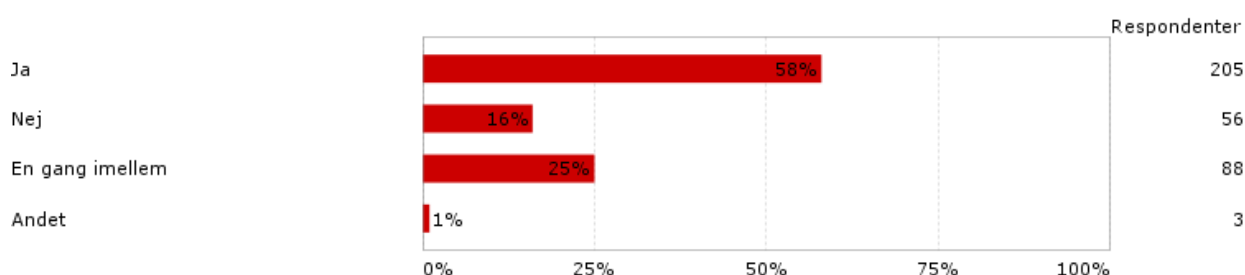


Chart 8. (Sorting of waste)

Moisander argues that the purposes behind the decisions of consumers to engage in very particular practices or behaviors, such as waste separation, are initiated by selective motives (Moisander, 2007: 405). There are various selective motives and they add to the perplexity of 'green consumerism', because environmentally friendly consumption constitutes a 'behavioral category' (Ajzen and Fishbein, 1980, p. 31). Behavioral categories are inferred concepts that involve a wide range of single behaviors assumed to be instances of that general behavioral category (Moisander, 2007: 406). However, the respondents' motivations may be either overt or hidden, meaning that they participate in these practices while being aware, or not being aware of what motivates them to do so (Ibid). In that sense, the 25% of respondents who state that they sort waste "once in a while" would suggest that they have hidden motives, because their motivation is not as strong or deliberate, explaining the lack of coherence in their behavior. Conversely, the 58% who answer "yes" suggest that they

are completely aware of what they do and why they do it.

Yet, the multitude of selective motives can vary based on people's conceptions of behavioral categories, which may vary considerably because their interpretations of e.g. waste separation may be based on very different premises with respect to available information and value judgments (Ibid). Accordingly, from just this question, it is difficult to conclude why exactly the 58% do separate their waste.

Stewart Barr (2007), who explores household waste practices, found that for separation and reuse of waste, social norms were less important as these were activities that are taking place away from the view of neighbors, friends and peers, which are those who reinforce social norms. Hence, where the behavior is less publicly exposed, social norms may be less powerful. So drawing on Stewart's findings, the 16% respondents who answer "no" admitting to not separating waste could be reasoned by an absence of other people to evaluate their performs, hence, no one will be there to judge their unsustainable behavior. Or on the other hand, if no one is there to witness their practices, no one can socially applaud them; hence they may not see a reason to sort waste. However, as they openly state that they do not engage in this type of sustainable behavior could also indicate an impassive or opposing attitude towards waste sorting, implying that the reason they omit separating waste is merely a choice, rather than it being reasoned by a lack of exposition. Conversely, it may be a matter of their *behavioral beliefs*, namely the respondent's beliefs about the likely consequences of their behavior (Bamberg, et al., 2003), insinuation that they do not believe that their behavior of neglecting waste sorting will have any substantial impact on the environment.

In the 1% who ticked the option 'other', one person wrote that they want to separate waste, but they have no wastes sorting options where they live. Why this is, is unknown, but as we know that consumers' behavior is often expected to be determined by their *ability* to perform a behavior (Pieters, 1991; 65), this informant demonstrates that their ability is hindering their desired actions, yet there is probably places close by where it would be possible to so, which indicate that their *control beliefs* (Bamberg, et al., 2003) might be vague, illustrating that the absence of waste sorting options hamper their perceived control of action.

Moisander also states that the *opportunity* to perform a behavior is determined by various external circumstances of the immediate environment that may either obstruct or enable behavior (Moisander, 2007: 405), which another respondent prove, stating that they separate waste at home, but when they travel abroad the opportunity is often lacking.

The next chart involves the respondents' consumption of organic produce, which might also implicitly indicate that they also disapprove of pesticides, additives and genetically modified organisms (GMO's).

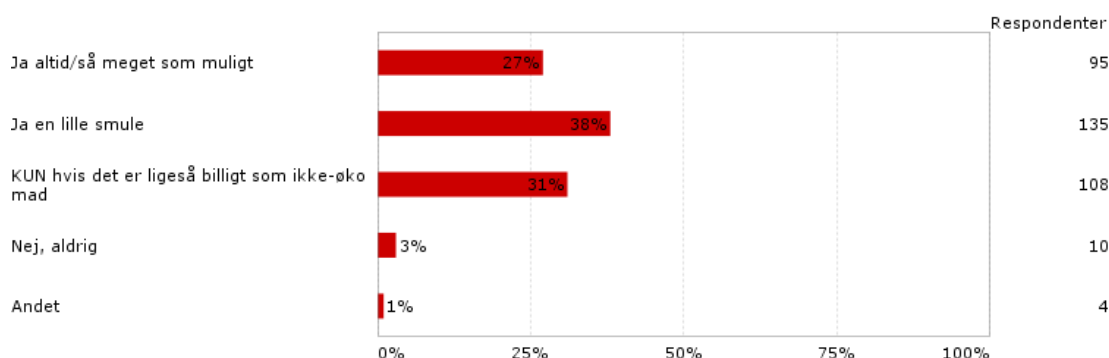


Chart 9. (Consumption of organic produce)

The motivations for purchasing and consuming organic produce are also selective as it refers to a specific practice. In terms of their motivations being overt or hidden, the 31% who only buy organically when the cost is the same as conventional produce could signify overt motives that are determined by the price. The 27% who always buy organically are also driven by overt motives, as it is a deliberate choice and selection process. The ones 38% who only buy a little might not be fully aware of why they buy it, which may change depending on the day, the supply or the product's quality, etc., thus why it could indicate hidden motives.

The conversation of organic products seen in the light of environmental sustainability or green consumerism in comparison to e.g. separation of waste is noteworthy, due to the fact that many people choose to consume organic products simply because of health reasons rather than it relating to behavior aimed at protecting the environment. This focus could also be connected to the way the market promotes organic products as healthy, natural, clean and unrefined, which relates more to nutrition and the personal well being of people than the sustainability dynamic (Durham & Andrade, 2005). Nevertheless, from a standpoint of enhancing green consumerism for the sake of environmental sustainability, one could argue that consuming organic produce

because of health reasons are just as good as consuming it for environmental reasons since the outcomes are the same.

When looking at other motivational influences, the 31% who only buy organic if it's as cheap as non-organic products represent monetary costs related to personal resources. The 38% who only consume a small amount may also be affected by personal resources, among other things, such as the possibility to consume organically in terms of supply. One informant elaborated that they also considers the specific produce in regards to the look or appeal of the food, which is often more attractive in the non-organic sector because of the chemical properties that ward off insects, bacteria and fungus infections, as well as waxes and preservatives that are making them last longer.

The 3% who state that they never consume organic produce, is interesting, as it suggests that they would not buy the organic option even if it were the same price as the non-organic. They may have different explanations to why, or they could just be simply opposed to the concept. A possibility could be that the respondents are ill informed about the health and environmental benefits of consuming organic produce as well as supporting organic farmers, indicating that their *behavioral beliefs* (Bamberg, et al., 2003) may not contain any negative ideas about the impact of pesticides. They could also be unaware of which products are actually organic. TNS asked 4,000 households in 2002 how they would identify an organic product, where the survey findings showed that 21% "didn't know" how to identify organic products (Padel & Foster, 2005: 610). In addition, according to focus group research, both buyers and non-buyers of organic products argued that they would like to be better informed and would appreciate more supplementary information about the organic certification process when they make a purchase (Makatouni, 2002).

The next chart involves the question of, if the respondents buy locally grown produce, which generally contains benefits such as knowing where their products are coming from as well as supporting local businesses. More importantly for the environment, buying locally implicitly decreases one's carbon footprint since the locally grown and

purchased foods avoid being travelled by aviation or trucks for miles to reach one's plate.

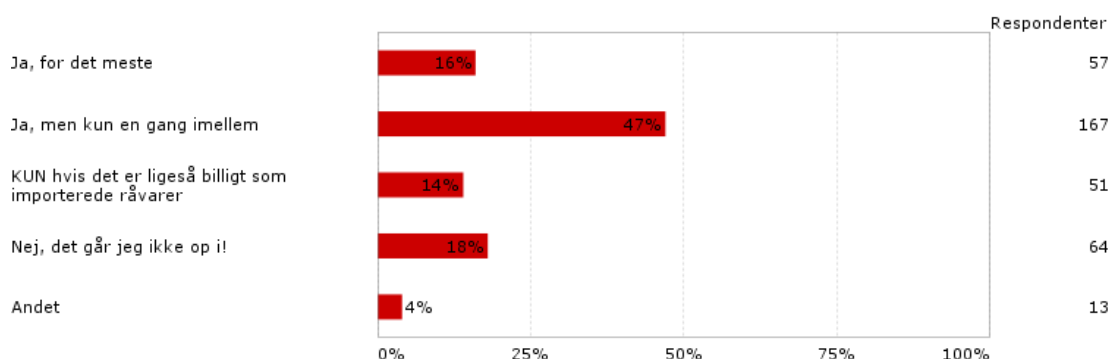


Chart 10. (Consumption of locally grown produce)

The majority of the respondents with 47% answer, that they do buy local produce - but only once in a while, which can reflect their *possibility* to do so in terms of supply in the external environment they find themselves in. Most of the respondents that elaborated by choosing the option 'other' also claim, that in their preferred places to shop, locally grown groceries are nonexistent. Some may buy local produce based of hidden motives, as they may choose a locally grown product because of other factors, without being motivated by the mere fact that it is locally grown.

6% of the respondents state that they predominantly buy local produce, which can reflect the same influences as the above, however, as they chose to answer 'predominately' instead on 'once in a while' imply, that they have stronger, overt selective motives of doing so, since it shows a greater dedication of purchase behavior.

14% of the respondents only buy local produce if the price is the same or cheaper than imported produce, which means that they have overt selective motives, where personal resources are a determining factor of their behavior.

The 18% who answer that they do not buy local produce because it does not concern them, which indicates selective motives that are hidden, since the reason contains a lack of knowledge or interest.

Lastly, in regards to everyday consumer behavior, the respondents were asked if they avoid buying plastic objects in form of bottles, shopping bags, etc. According to a study conducted by a scientific working group at UC Santa Barbara's National Center for Ecological Analysis and Synthesis (NCEAS), who quantified the input of plastic

waste from land into the ocean (Guern, 2018), showed that every year, 8 million metric tons of plastic end up in our oceans. This is equivalent to five grocery bags filled with plastic for every foot of coastline in the world (Ibid). Not only does plastics contaminate our oceans, it is killing sea life, sea creatures, among other animals and affects the economies and inhabitants of coastal and waterside communities worldwide (Guern, 2018). Furthermore, microplastic can reach soil, air and other environmental compartments and finally the food chain (Bouwmeester, et al., 2015).

Since the 1990s, governments in countries such as Australia, South Africa, Ireland, Canada, New Zealand, or the Philippines have imposed taxes on plastic bags and regulate their use. As a result, several supermarkets increasingly discourage shoppers from using plastic bags and instead, they offer alternative reusable shopping bags and provide information on environmental damage associated with plastic bag consumption (Cherrier, 2006: 2). In Denmark, Netto is the first Danish grocery chain to introduce a deposit on plastic bags. It is part of a new partnership between the WWF Verdensnaturfonden and the Danish Supermarket Group (WWF, Denmark). Together, the parties will launch a series of initiatives, including to remove unnecessary plastic in the concern's own products and packaging and ensure that most plastic is recycled, while the parties will introduce new and more sustainable plastic products (Ibid). These initiatives have reached headlines on various medias, and could influence Danish consumers to participate in more sustainable behavior regarding their plastic consumption.

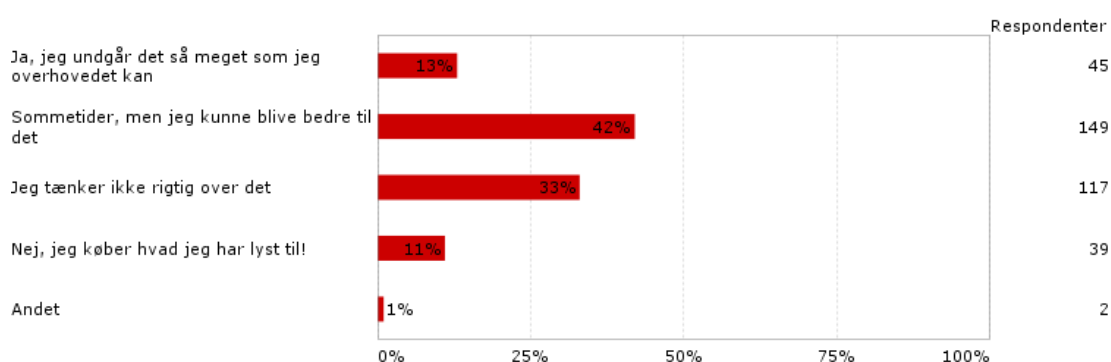


Chart 11. (Avoidance of purchasing plastic objects)

The survey question involved the word 'avoid' and was formulated in a way where the respondent could have hinted the ideal behavior, thereby implementing a sense of

bias in the respondent mind, however, the majority of the respondents with 42% acknowledge their lack of willpower or consistency in behavior and admit that they could become better at avoiding plastic purchases. These behaviors are currently a mix between overt and hidden motives, as they may not have clear knowledgeable motivation for avoiding plastic. However, these acknowledgements may become goals to do better, evolving hidden motives towards more overt selective motives of avoiding the consumption of plastic.

33% state that they do not really think about their purchase behavior in regards to plastic, which indicate a group of people who have hidden motives. They could be either simply impassive towards the issue or ill informed to the point where the knowledge they have about plastic consumption have not impacted them to the extent that they act on it.

There are 13% stating that they avoid consuming plastic as much as they possibly can, which indicates overt selective motives that are conceivably reasoned by a knowledge about the environmentally damaging impacts of plastic, as well as several other possible things, which will be discussed further in the following discussion about the motivational complexities of green consumerism.

11% of the respondents are deliberately not avoiding the consumption of plastic. They are also driven by the overt selective motives, but in a different way, as they clearly express the insight that they utilize the freedom to buy what they want, even if it includes plastic.

One of the respondent's elaborates, stating: "organic produce are often packaged in plastic, so it is either the option of buying organically or plastic". This scenario is obviously ambivalent, however, one of Netto's initiatives is to remove unnecessary packaging, which could be the solution. Yet, the motives still depends on the persons external opportunities, which in this case means that Netto may not be within the area of this person's habitation.

All of the above green consumer practices are motivated by selective motivations, since it is directed at a specific behavior. However, many of the respondents may be highly engaged in one or two of the practices, while being completely opposed to another. On the other hand, some of the respondent's may be participating fully in all of the above behaviors or they may not partake in any of them, which can then be categorized as primary motives with the purpose to engage or not to engage in whole

classes of behavior, such as ecologically/environmentally responsible consumer behavior (Moisander, 2007). However, challenging Moisander's idea, it could be argued that even though a person might be participating in all of the above practices, one may still have different selective motives for either of the practices, signifying that primary motives for participating in a whole class of behavior may not be evident, just a coincident reasoned by many different internal and external factors and influences. Nevertheless, the most effective way of being a green consumer should be when a person is motivated to engage in all green practices, where the primary motive is being highly sustainable and environmentally friendly. So what are some of the reasons or influences that could drive a consumer to establish primary motives to undertake effective green consumer behavior, which is the prime goal and may be a piece of the puzzle to answer the question of how to enhance sustainability in tourism? This inquiry calls for considerations of the complexities surrounding the concept of green consumerism, which will be discussed subsequently.

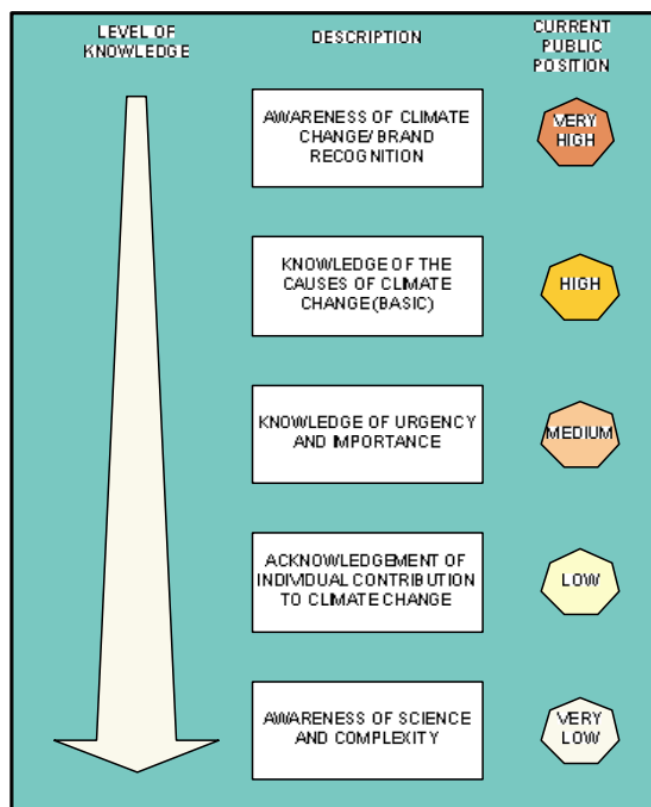
Firstly, it is safe to say that engaging effectively in green consumerism requires awareness thereof and willingness to behavioral modifications. These adjustments claimed by the pursuit of environmental protection can be categorized as follows: 1: pay more for green alternatives, 2: expend efforts required by some behavioral changes, 3: accept inadequate substitutes for a good or 4: reduce consumption of the good (Pettit & Sheppard, 1992: 331). In the first two cases, the monetary and non-monetary costs to the consumer are raised, while in the last two cases, certain benefits are reduced (Ibid). Hence, individuals will differ in the extent to which they are prepared to sacrifice personal comforts and luxuries for environmental goals.

Green products or services are usually advocated as alternatives that consumers will prefer because they can have a positive impact on the environment compared to some counterparts (Pettit & Sheppard, 1992: 331), while other products that are internally and topically consumed such as health and beauty oriented products are advocated as cleaner and more natural (Osorba & Boglea, 2011). The popular notion seems to be that we need only to make such alternatives available and inform consumers of the benefits to be had by purchasing such products (Ibid).

However, unfortunately, the benefits of green consuming may be less apparent than the costs for the individual, as their important but small contribution to carbon

reduction, less pollution and contamination are somewhat intangible, and it may take many collective efforts to witness visibly benefits in environmental and social frameworks. One could therefore argue that the less apparent benefits could be in conflict with the behavioral modifications that are required. – This will be examined in the context of habits and behavioral change further below.

The next complex issue of green consumption and environmentally sustainable behavior is the underlying threats of climate change among other types of natural deprivation and disasters. Anable, et al., (2006), who works with sustainable transportation and environmental psychology, have studied the population of the UK's awareness and knowledge about climate change. The overall assessment of the results can be viewed in the illustration below.



Climate change knowledge ladder (Anable, et al., 2006: 14).

These findings show that people are aware of climate change, but that they are less aware of the urgency and importance of it, which suggest that they are also less aware of the urgency of acting responsibly towards it, and as they are even less aware of the individual contribution and the science behind it, they might not know what type of

behaviors and consumption patterns can be damaging to the environment. However, this climate change knowledge ladder should not be understood as it a given that one would be an effective green consumer if one was fully aware of all the descriptions. A person may be completely educated in all areas of climate change, but may not be willing to change to sustainable behavior. In other words, awareness is not always the solution, as there are many other things, such as structural constraints (Litman, 2013), internal and external influences or a lack of personal resources and abilities (Moisander, 2007), etc., that affects a person's behavior. Although awareness is essential and might be the prime motivation for some, the notion here is that green consumerism should be considered a complex concept.

Climate change is said to come within people's sphere of concern, but not within their perceived sphere of influence (Hounsham 2006; Collins et al. 2003). Research proposes that many people are subconsciously aware of the seriousness of climate change, but that they suppress this awareness (Alexander Ballard and Associates 2005) because they may perceive the situation as being so gigantic and challenging that they feel too overwhelmed and hence disempowered to believe that they can be of any assistance to relieve the situation, which relates to notion of perceived *consumer effectiveness* (Antil, 1984).

Kempton et al. (1996) suggest that public motivation to take action on climate change may compete with other persistent considerations such as the right to choose, freedom of expression and reduction of government interference in personal behavior.

Conversely, Lorenzoni (2003) observed focus group participants in Norwich (UK) and found that the participants considered climate change as everybody's problem, but they actually felt that the obligation to act should fall upon policy makers, because they are seen to have a wider scope for action than individuals. Many of this study's survey respondents also imply that alleviating climate change should not be their responsibility, but should come from initiatives of 'higher powers', such as the tourism industry (These findings are elaborated in chapter 5). However, Anable, et al. (2006) points out that whilst policy makers may support initiatives to alleviate global warming or other environmental issues, individuals are not likely to welcome or even tolerate those that may demand significant alterations to behavior and lifestyles. Lowe et al. (2006) describes this as the 'bystander effect' whereby mass passivity of action is caused when people as a group are confronted with something that requires some

kind of intervention.

Whether the environmental concerns are shared regionally, nationally or internationally, it can be argued that the shared aspect has the most significant impact on the ability of consumers to achieve environmental goals collectively (Pettit & Sheppard, 1992: 332). In this respect, environmental concerns are similar in nature to other collective or shared goods, which require individuals to contribute (usually through taxes) (Ibid). In this view, the aims of green consumerism such as clean air, clean water and ethical treatment of the natural world are goods that must be collectively shared. However, Mancur Olson, who is an American economist and social scientist, have outlined an essential problem in achieving and maintaining collective or shared goods, which have been articulated in both “The Logic of Collective Action” and “The Rise and Decline of Nations” (Olsen, 1982; Olsen, 2009). Olson developed this logic to explain the arrival of organizations that seek to promote collective goals, but it can be extended to explain the concept of green consumerism and why the survey findings show massively divided behaviors and the motivations behind them, thus suggesting types of restraints the respondents meet. The kernel of Olson’s logic is that individuals will not contribute to a collective good because their contribution furthers the achievement of that collective good, but for other reasons. An example of a consumer changing his or her behavior to forward an environmental goal such as clean air will be used to outlines his logic. For example, concern for cleaner air may lead some to ride their bicycle for daily commutes instead of taking their car, thus, the individual must endure the effort involved of switching to an inferior substitute (Olsen, 1982). However, as the contribution to the reduction in pollution may be minor, since one less car of the road will not make a great or visible difference, yet the benefits will be shared with those who do not make the same sacrifice (Ibid). This example can be seen in relation to the respondent’s behavior of everyday sustainable consumer practices, where some of the informants are participating and others are not. Thus, when knowing that you are doing something beneficial to the collective good, while others completely abstain from such behavior, this may discourage the people who are sorting waste or avoiding plastic purchases, since their positive contribution can be seen to be somewhat eliminated or neutralized by the neglect of those behaviors from others. Therefor, Olsen implies that the individual would measure the sacrifice vs. the achievements or gains for their trouble

and decide that the change in behavior is not worth it. According to the formulation of Olson's logic thus far, it would appear that individuals would never behave collectively to enhance environmental quality, which is obviously not the case as many of the survey respondents partake in sustainable behaviors. Still, it could be the logic behind some of the respondent's decisions of simply refusing to make an effort to improve environmental quality.

Olson (2006) goes on explaining that collective behavior can be explained by the attainment of selective incentives. Selective incentives are socially oriented and are inducements to the individual that are independent of the shared interest of a group (Ibid). Thus, the individual will contribute to collective goals if some selective incentives are disposed to the individual. In the example of contributing to cleaner air by cycling instead of driving, the individual may seek health benefits, social approval or some sense of psychological relief such as the feeling of doing something good, as well as feeling a sense of fellowship by doing something collectively to better the environment for all (Olsen, 2006). Therefore, according to Olsen's rationality, it could be suggested that e.g. the respondents who state that they avoid plastic, gain selective incentives. For instance, it could be imagined that one of the student informants may be using a refillable, eco-friendly glass water-bottle instead of buying a plastic-bottle to bring to their University, where they will be met with social approval and a sense of fellowship from their peers. Additionally, these respondents may have certain *normative beliefs* (Bamberg, et al., 2003), meaning that they think that e.g. their peers expect them to bring an eco-friendly water bottle, as this may be the norm for that group of people. Hence, the motivation behind engaging in sustainable behaviors might not be in the pursuit of environmental goals, but rather because of social expectations, psychological reliefs or encounters of selective incentives.

In response to individuals engagement in environmentally sustainable behavior through collective action, Moisander (2007: 408) describes the problematic, that it is often seemed to be implied that green consumerism is a private lifestyle project of a single individual, in which she argues is much too heavy of a responsibility to bear. She argues that in public discourse, green consumers are often expected to perform the role of goal-conscious decision makers who are expected to carefully monitor their behavior, their shopping practices and know their options as well as engage in

systematic reusing, reducing and recycling behavior (Ibid). Often they are also expected to influence and encourage their peers to do the same, raising people's eco-awareness, collecting names for petitions and writing letters and emails to politicians, demanding that governments and firms take responsibility (Moisander, 2007: 408). She states that this is too much to ask, and wonders if the majority of consumers could be hostile towards green consumerism because they perceive such task load as simply unfair. She explains that consumers are informed in the way that if they make these small changes to their daily routine, they can achieve significant reductions in their greenhouse gas emissions or carbon footprints, and these measures are then justified by arguing that households use one-third of the energy consumed in the EU and are therefor responsible for around 20% of the EU's greenhouse gas emissions. While this is all ideal and desirable, a critical green consumer may rightly ask: who is responsible for the 80% of the greenhouse gas emissions, and how are they taking responsibility? (Moisander, 2007: 408). She argues that idea of alleviating climate change by shivering with cold in one's own home is unfair, when climate impacts are also generated in other sectors of society, such as large transnational companies that are known to expend a considerable amount of energy while aggressively challenging and lobbying against the Kyoto protocol, for example (Ibid). Moisander does thus also support the collective action approach, but concludes that the focus of attention needs to be shifted from the individual consumer to markets, industries and producers as well as whole communities of consumers. In that sense, she confronts the widespread idea "think global, act local", because the policy challenge of climate change is to produce a global public good via the mutual consent of multiple heterogeneous actors, which requires us to "think globally, but also to act globally." (Wiener, 2007). Yet, this should not be understood as a discouragement against individual green and sustainable consumers, but rather that they should not stand alone with the responsibility of achieving large-scale environmental goals.

Another process that may hinder effective green consumerism and make the process of undertaking behavioral changes more complex is the formation of habits. Old habits can form a very strong barrier for changing a course of action (Kollmuss & Agyeman, 2002). Habit is here understood typically as more or less automatic behavior learned through repetition and positive reinforcement, and over time, an attitude-based and thus deliberation-based behavior may become habitual if it

repeatedly proves to be adequate and satisfactory (Schwanen, et al., 2012: 523). In this case, the survey responses show that aviation and car use are perceived to be highly satisfactory and suitable when travelling, which may be attitude-based benefits that have progressed into a habitual travel pattern. Hence, the challenge here is to break unsustainable, carbon intensive habits. Habit-breaking strategies seem to have attracted attention in the transport literature, and a range of studies have examined to what extent car use habits can be broken through interventions modifying the costs and benefits associated with habitual and alternative transport-modes and behaviors (Ibid). Bamberg, et al., (2003) made a study that attempts to use the Theory of Planned Behavior, as a conceptual framework for an intervention to effect change in behavior. The focus of the study was on a high-opportunity behavior, involving taking the car or bus to campus. The study examined the effects of an intervention designed to increase the number of students who ride the bus instead of driving their cars. The intervention consisted of the introduction of a prepaid semester bus-ticket that permitted unlimited rides on the local bus system by presentation of a valid student-identification (Ibid). Before the intervention, students were given a questionnaire that showed that the students generally did not like taking the bus to campus, because they did not think that people important in their lives expected them to take the bus, while they held relatively low perceptions of control regarding this behavior (Bamberg, et al., 2003: 179). It also reported that they generally did not intend to take the bus and only 15% actually took the bus to campus, the day they completed the questionnaire. Dispositions regarding car and bicycle use were generally more favorable, and 46% of the participants told that they used their cars to commute, while 36% rode their bicycles (Ibid). Bike riding is of course ideal in regards to environmental concerns, but the intention with this study was to see if past habitual behavior could be changed through the mentioned objectives.

The results of this study demonstrate the utility of the theory as a conceptual framework for predicting of travel-mode choice and for understanding the effects of an intervention on this behavior. The introduction of a pre-paid semester bus ticket was thus verified to be an effective intervention, as it more than doubling the proportion of students who rode the bus to campus, rather than driving their cars e.g.. The effects of the intervention on behavior could be traced to its effects on the antecedent determinants: It raised positive attitudes, subjective norms, and

perceptions of behavioral control with respect to using the bus, thus strengthening intentions to do so and ultimately affecting reported behavior (Bamberg, et al., 2003: 184).). Furthermore, the theory presented accurate prediction of intention and behavior both before and after the intervention (Ibid). This study shows that car use and perhaps also the use of air travel can be changed, even at a habitual state, by altering overall motivations and perceptions, as well as changing the framework of which decisions are made.

Besides changing behavior through interventions, there are more typical areas to address why individuals would change their behavior. These areas are categorized as: 1. demographic reasons, 2. sociological reasons, 3. psychological reasons, and 4. economic reasons (Pettit & Sheppard, 1992: 336). In terms of demographic reasons, variables such as educational level, culture, age, etc. can play a role in changing behavior. By analyzing the demographic elements in a person's background, one may be able to arrive at motivations for their environmental consciousness (Ibid). This could be a possible extension to this research, in order to dig deeper into the individual's probability of becoming effective green consumers.

Sociological perspectives consider consumption as a social process that is shaped by cultural agreements, shared meanings and the implicit rules that manage appropriate behavior in different social contexts (Peattie, 2010: 211). The movement involving green consumerism and sustainability is associated with generally positive images and symbols, where the engagement in association is considered to be socially desirable (Pettit & Sheppard, 1992: 337). Moreover, if contribution to environmental protection is valued in a social context, a more informed society would recognize and discourage ineffective behavior (Pettit & Sheppard, 1992: 338). This can be related to the respondents' hidden motives, where they may not know exactly why they partake in behaviors contributing to environmental protection, or at least they do not do it for environmental purposes, but rather because they subconsciously know it is socially desirable.

As for psychological reasons, environmental issues can be perceived as a threat to the individual and its surroundings, whereby an individual may contribute as a psychological response to the perceived threat (Pettit & Sheppard, 1992: 339). So, the respondents who expressed a lack of concern for the environment might have given different responses if they lived in a country where climate change and other

environmental issues posed a bigger threat to their individual lives. Another psychological factor of becoming environmentally informed and engaged can be that the opposite will “create dissonance by threatening the individual’s self concept as a responsible member of the community” (Vining & Ebreo, 1990). Furthermore, the emergence of initiatives and movements campaigning around issues as fair-trade, corporate social responsibility, and sustainable consumption, reflects the increasing role of ethical considerations in shaping consumer behavior. In this field of consumer research, a variety of issues are considered ‘ethical’, which includes practices furthering environmental sustainability (Barnett, et al., 2005: 5). The assumption in this field of research revolving around consumption and identity is that individuals are morally implicated in their actions through dimensions of knowledge and ignorance, recognition and misrecognition (Barnett, et al. 2005: 6).

In terms of economic reasons, there may be some rare cases where environmentally friendly substitutes are cheaper than their counterparts and cases of economic incentive to recycle or change buying behavior are limited, but the deposit system implemented for beverage containers, and now for plastic bags in Netto, may be an effective incentive, where packaging is recyclable (Pettit & Sheppard, 1992: 340). Deposit systems of recyclable containers could also be a reason that the majority of the respondent’s are partaking in waste sorting, since they gain something back, which could now, in the case of Netto’s initiatives, also increase responsible behaviors of plastic consumption, as they gain incentives of returning plastic bags.

These different motivations and reasons that stems from internal and external environments and influences are shaping consumers through their behaviors to the extent where some are being completely effective green consumers and some are not engaging at all. These impacts all add up to the complexities that consumers are faced with, which support the conclusion that people’s foundation to consume in a particular way, their idea of green consumption and their actual behavioral outcomes can vary significantly. Furthermore, the urgency to alleviate climate change, etc., can be argued to depend on collective actions, where the responsibility to accomplish environmental goals should be established from a global, top down approach. This may also suggest that consumers would have an easier time switching to more sustainable lifestyles if major instrumental actors were more involved, thereby offering a wider range of green products and services, which would allow and facilitate

consumers to choose from more options, while being met with the concept of sustainability and green consumerism and information thereof, more often than not.

5. Enhancing Sustainable Tourism Through Green Initiatives

In support of the argument of combatting environmental issues through collective action, this chapter introduces both achievable and current approaches and initiatives in a discussion of how they could give rise to enhanced sustainability and participation in green consumer behavior in the tourism industry and in regards to travel transportation.

When talking collective action from a global perspective, international treaties are a possible way to do this. However, for over 20 years ago, in 1992, more than 170 countries came together at the Rio Earth Summit, as well as 192 parties at the Kyoto Protocol in 1997, and agreed to pursue sustainable development to protect the environment (Howes, 2017). The question is then, why the world has not become so much more environmentally sustainable despite decades of international agreements, national policies, state laws and local plans? Instead, greenhouse gas emissions that drive climate change have significantly amplified while the impacts of climate change are becoming increasingly apparent (Ibid). If what has been done until now is not actually alleviating the environmental issues that are occurring, then who should be held accountable and what can then be done to improve this situation? The following discussion will look into this incongruence and present different initiatives that are expecting to make the tourism industry more environmentally responsive and approachable for green consumers.

Marshall (2005) believes that action on climate change suffers because of the way the debate has been projected, describing the phenomenon as having massive potential impacts in a future-oriented manner. This relates back to the notion of *consumer effectiveness* (Antil, 1984) where subjective judgments establish an insufficient perception of individual ability to affect environmental issues, while the future narrative may be contributing to a lack of awareness in concealing the situation's urgency, thus postponing definite actions. This portrayal may also be the reason why

the respondents involved in this study straightforwardly express a lack concern for the environment, which can be seen in the 68% who are disagreeing with abstaining from long flight journeys because of the environmental impact, and the 61% who are disagreeing that they consider the environmental impact of their transportation choices, as well as it is the least important factor for the respondents in chart 5.

In terms of a more practical explanation to the absence of environmental improvements, a group of scholars (Howes, Wortley, Potts, Serrao-Neumann, Davidson, & Nunn, 2017) undertook a research that looked at the success of efforts for achieving environmental sustainability in general and studies that looked at a specific plan, policy or initiative. These policies comprised any area that the authors considered important for environmental sustainability, including water, agriculture and conservation, as well as the environmental impacts of other areas such as housing, tourism and transport. The study reviewed 94 cases of how sustainability policies had failed across every continent. A policy was determined to have failed if it did not achieve its environmental objectives (Ibid). Howes, et al. (2017) identified numerous causes of the policy failures, categorized as structural causes, implementation traps, or knowledge/scope issues. The knowledge or scoping issues involved insufficient or poor understanding of the policy issue. As a result, the policy instruments used were too narrow or not appropriately targeted (Howes, et al., 2017). The structural causes of failure included economic, social, environmental, political, technical, legal and discursive factors (Ibid). The implementation traps were sorted into a set of categories and consisted of:

- Incomplete specification of aims or objectives
- Inappropriate agency for implementation
- Conflicting objectives within or between policies
- Incentive failures
- Conflicting directives from agencies or senior official
- Limited competence of agency or those tasked with implementation
- Inadequate administrative resources to support policy implementation
- A failure to communicate with the affected community (Howes, et al., 2017).

According to this report, in order to be successful in achieving environmentally sustainable outcomes through policies, there should be a correct and common understanding and agreement about of the policies and objectives in discussion, which requires proper communication between the involved actors, while the policies should be applied in a way that considers all the structural elements in the particular setting of implementation. Moreover, there should be enough resources to execute the implementation, while all included actors should be highly skilled to perform their tasks, which necessitate a thorough knowledge about ecological information (Moisander, 2007). In terms of enhancing sustainable tourism through the implementation of environmentally sustainable policies could be highly successful in the sense that policies were accounted for as an intervention scheme, which could in that case facilitate changes in consumer behavior as well approaches for industries (Bamberg, et al., 2003). Policy interventions would thus set new standards for production and consumption, making it a normative obligation to regard the environment in any case that could otherwise harm it.

37-year-old Mads Lange was interviewed in Politiken's article about sustainable travel, because the last time he flew was in 2009. It was at the climate summit in Copenhagen 2015, that Lange realized that we, as a global entity, cannot be continuing to pollute to the extent that we do if a planet worth living on should be promised for future generations. Hence, his reason for not flying is because the environmental impacts are too big to defend it to himself and his two children (Bencke, 2018: 6). Mads Lange has strong opinions about current climate issues and approaches to tourism and transportation, especially the easy accessibility of aviation, stating that:

“We would be able to reverse the situation if we wanted to. But it requires that there are some political and societal structures that are being changed, making it less attractive to fly and more attractive to take more sustainable forms of transportation. I hope that flight prices at some point reflect how far you fly and how much it pollutes. Taxes should be implemented to make it and easier decision for people to choose to travel by train (Bencke, 2018: 6).

This does not mean that Lange and his family does not go on vacation, they simply use the train and have had a lot of great experiences doing that (Bencke, 2018).

However, he also clarifies that he does not like to be absolute, explaining that if he one day wanted to show his children a country far east, they would probably go by plane, but they would then spend a lot of time there, travelling around (Ibid). He elaborates, stating:

“Flying is a privilege. You should only fly because you have saved up enough money to go on a holiday that you have dreamt of for a long time. A flight travel should not just be something you can choose as easy as candy in a candy store” (Bencke, 2018: 6).

Drawing on Lange’s suggestion of implementing taxes on aviation, the last survey question, which is presented in the methodology, involves the respondents’ feelings about having to pay a CO₂ compensation-fee, which is similar to taxes, but is here proposed to represent a type of consequence for choosing to fly by contributing to an amount of CO₂ being discharged. The fee would be disposed to different climate protection projects and initiatives, as e.g. tree-planting projects, since trees absorb CO₂, and larger forests can even create clouds, which then reflect the sunlight and cool our planet, thus decreasing the greenhouse effect (Ecosia, 2018). The purpose of this fee is to inform the people who are flying about the environmental impact, and at the same time, challenge mindset about the underlying issue and the fee’s purpose or perhaps trigger a resistance towards paying, which could initiate people to utilize public transport more often. Anable, et al., (2006: 2) argue that transport policies as this can set out to change attitudes directly as a route to behavior change, or they can be indirect in that they aim to change behavior first without necessarily changing attitudes. Below are the results of the survey question.

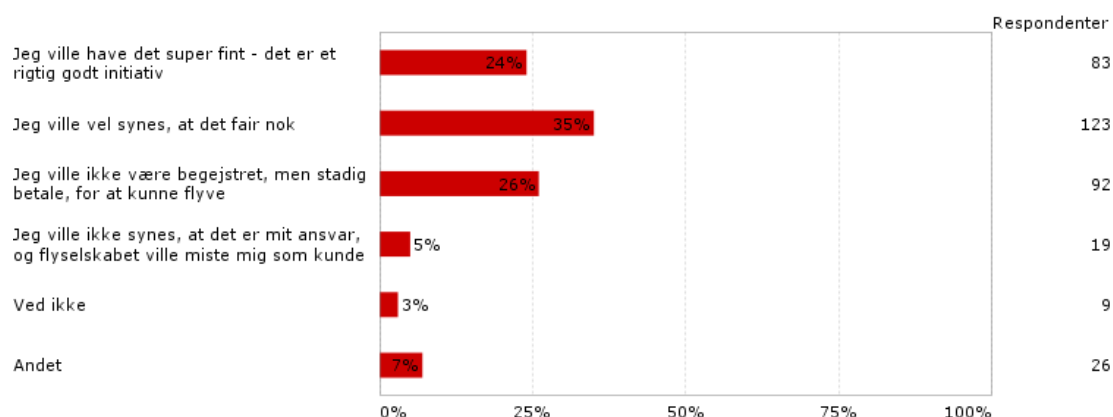


Chart 15. (Feelings of having to pay a CO2 compensation-fee when flying)

The majority of the respondent with 35% has replied that, “they would think, that it would be fair enough”, which is a somewhat positive response compared to being opposed, however, they had the possibility of answering, “I would feel super fine about it – it is a great initiative”, which implies that the 35% are not entirely in favor of the proposal. The 24% who did answer that it is a great initiative on the other hand, are most likely people who agree and acknowledge that their choice to fly should come with some sort of responsibility, thus accepting the compensation fee. Some of them may also be the respondents who do choose not to travel abroad.

25% of the respondents would not be enthusiastic about the initiative, but would still pay in order to fly. These informants imply that they weigh the benefits of flying higher than the costs, even though they do not support the implementation of the fee. It also indicates, that they do not think that consumers should be held accountable for their travel choices and the impact it causes. However, 5% of the respondents are even more opposed to the fee, stating that “they would not feel like it was their responsibility, and the airline would loose them as a costumer”. One respondent elaborates; “it is not my responsibility, but the airlines. It is not cheap to fly anyways.” - these viewpoints could be counter-argued by claiming that supply is depending on demand, thus suggesting that at least half of the responsibility is placed upon the consumer’s as long as they support something that is environmentally destructive. However, it could also be claimed that airlines have the full responsibility in making their services environmentally friendly, since they are the only services that are offering the opportunity of flying. Nevertheless, there are still other options for

people to get from a to b, but the thing standing in the way is ultimately people's own needs and preferences.

A few respondents who chose the option "other" questions how to be sure that these fees are disbursed to climate projects, which is of course an important aspect that should be highly regulated and involve transparency, so consumers are able to identify how their compensation benefits. Other informants are stating that they feel torn, and that the price of the fee is the determining factor, which is a reasonable reaction. Logically, the price should reflect how far one is flying as Lange also argues, or the amount of stopovers since takeoff and landing are emitting the most CO₂ as explained earlier. SAS actually offers the possibility of choosing to pay a CO₂ charge, but it is not included in the booking process and is therefore not mandatory. Ryan air also offers this chance, but they include it in the booking process, yet it is still voluntary. SAS include a CO₂ calculator to measure one's own trips. For example, their calculator shows that it costs 60 kroner in a CO₂ charge, based on the emission impact of flying from Copenhagen to Bangkok (Bencke, 2018: 6). However, measures have shown that this compensation opportunity has not proven to be very exploited (Ibid).

Politiken issued a similar inquiry in their research, writing: "I think that it would be alright if all flight travel were imposed with an extra CO₂-charge at approximately 50 kroner."

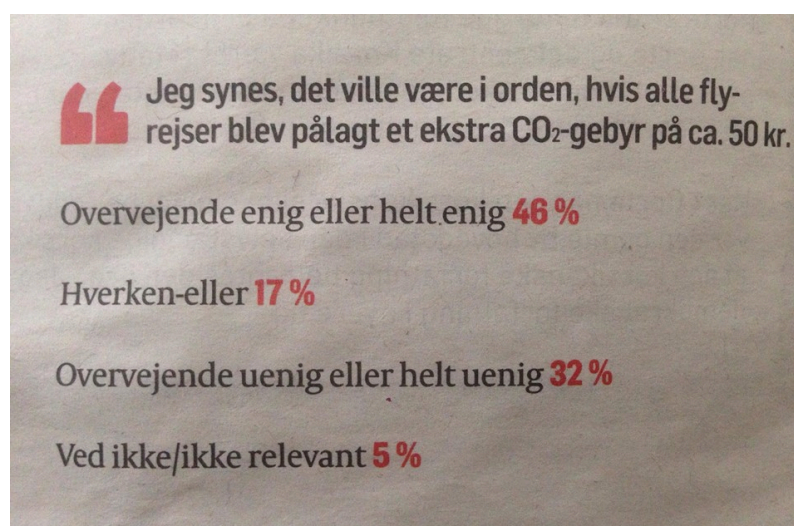


Table 4. (Bencke, 2018: 4)

Here, 46% replied that they are predominantly or completely agreeing with the statement, while 32% are predominantly or completely disagreeing. The results from table 2 and 3, that displays a predominant disregard for the environment can be compared to table 4 where the majority is in favor of a CO₂ charge, which verifies that the respondents are aware of the destructive impact of aviation as they would otherwise probably not agree, yet this is still is not enough for the respondents to deprive themselves from flying.

From an environmentalist perspective, it is fortunate that the majority is in favor of compensating for their travel choices, however, 32% opposing are too many, especially if some of the 17% stating ‘neither nor’ are slightly more opposed to the initiative than approving of it. These numbers show, that a voluntary CO₂-charge would not prove to be effective, since the 32% would ignore it, while drawing on by Barr’s (2007) logic about waste separating, many of the respondents who are passive and in favor of it may also skip it, since their behavior is not publicly exposed, which could decrease the probability of them paying the fee.

Flemming Lundberg Poulsen, who runs FinalCall.Travel and follows the aviation business closely, reports that airlines have previously attempted to incorporate CO₂ charges, but they eliminated them again because no one wanted to buy their product because of it (Bencke, 2018: 6). He explains this resistance as: “there are three things that sell flight tickets, and that is price, price and price.” This is equally evident in the survey results, as the vast majority stated that price is the most important factor when choosing transportation. He elaborates that consumers have grown accustomed to low budget flight tickets, which we have the flight industry to thank for (Ibid). To back this, one of the respondents affirmed that they support the initiative of a CO₂-fee, but that they would certainly choose an alternative flight ticket that did not include extra charges, if it was cheaper.

Concerns over the sustainability of tourist consumption generate the initiatives of industries and authorities aimed at reducing potential negative impacts. The United Nations Environment Program (UNEP, 2008) states that the tourism sector must take steps to become more environmentally sustainable, even if initially there are costs for the implementation of the changes, and even if the customers do not demand it as part of their expectations. In order to meet the sustainable development goals for energy-

efficient operations, the sector must find a way to avoid the fragmentation driven by competitiveness, and work together in order to shape policies rather than just react to them (UNEP, 2008: 11). Luckily, companies are under pressure to reveal more and more about their environmental goals and performances, and should be prepared to handle the growing number of questions on green issues from regulators, insurers, accountants, lawyers, trade and industry customers, consumers, and environmentalists (Elkington, 1994: 97). So, hopefully, the more companies who are changing towards more sustainable production, the higher society's expectations on corporate disclosure will be.

In respects to increased convergence and transparency in the tourism industry, a corporate approach to ensure progressive sustainability could be to implement 'codes of conduct' (Commission of the European Communities, 2002: 13). Additionally, the increasing public interest in the social and environmental impact and ethical standards of industry has moved many companies, in particular those of the consumer goods sector, to adopt codes of conduct relating to the environment (Ibid). Codes of conduct are innovative and important instruments for the promotion of fundamental human, labour and environmental rights, and anti-corruption practices, especially in countries where public authorities fail to enforce minimum standards (Commission of the European Communities, 2002: 13). Yet, it should be underlined that they are complementary to national, EU and international legislation and collective bargaining, and not a substitute to them. However, the biggest challenge related to codes of conduct is to ensure that they are effectively implemented, monitored and verified (Ibid), which is alike the problematic Howes, et al., (2017) found for former environmental policy implementations.

Labels that are certified as environmentally friendly could also be a possibility to encourage the tourism industry to fulfill criteria to obtain those labels, as most of these labels are found elsewhere on the market, which could conceivably foster more green products and services in the tourism sector. One of these labels is the EU-Eco label called "the Flower", which is awarded to products of the highest environmental quality (European Commission, 2002: 15). Certified labels allow access to relevant information about the social and environmental conditions of production, which is crucial for the consumers to help them to make informed choices (Ibid). The

proliferation of environmental claims has created a need for environmental labeling standards, which entail that consideration should be given to all relevant aspects of the life cycle of a product, when such claims are developed (ISO). The Commission has established guidelines for making and assessing environmental self-declared claims by producers or distributors, based on the ISO 14021:1999 standard, with the objective of preventing misleading claims and encouraging valid ones (European Commission, 2002: 15). Consumers also receive information through recognition schemes, such as listing of awards, prizes, labels, etc., which identify good practices on specific subjects (Ibid). The Theory of Planned Behavior also predicts that introduction of new information (Bamberg, et al., 2003) can change the cognitive foundation of intentions and behaviors, suggesting that consumers being presented and informed about certified tourism products and services will increase the chance of them choosing them over alternative ones. These labels are for now, however, only available for a limited range of product categories (European Commission, 2002). But those that are available can be used as promotion for tourism actors as well as to gain popularity among green-minded consumers by achieving the competitive advantage in the arena of sustainability. Certified green travel agencies would thereby also increase the external *possibilities* of becoming effective green consumers, as well as optimize their *ability* to behave environmentally friendly during vacations (Moisander, 2007).

There are also green initiatives that are more practical oriented, made both for the tourism industry and its consumers, in which one of them is a digital economy research project, funded by the UK research councils called "The Sixth Sense Transport Project" (SSTP). They have investigated how more sustainable travel decisions could be improved by using social networking principles and smartphone technology to create visibility amongst transport options in time and space. Their research vision was to understand the extent to which behavioral change in transport habits and practices can be facilitated through the creation of a new form of transport network, based on extending social networking principles to transport users and their individual vehicles (SSTP). Through the development of an innovative, open, technical platform, users were provided with new ways of understanding the relationships between their own future transport plans and those of others. This approach is hoped to be able to revolutionize the process of decision-making in travel behavior. SSTP argue, that if we are able to better visualize the activity of people and

things relative to their immediate and future time schedules, and crucially, the conditions under which people might be willing to coordinate and adapt, we may be able to realize more opportunistic and collaborative uses for transport resources, leading to a reduction in overall transport related carbon emissions. This can be related to the principle of sharing economy, which makes transportation cheaper and more sustainable by sharing vehicles (Zervas, et al., 2017).

In regards to being consciously aware of ones carbon footprint, the market offers many types of CO₂ calculators available for the public as well as for businesses. One of them has the name “Carmacal”, and has won the World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC), Tourism for Tomorrow Innovation Award in 2016 (Climate Neutral Group). The WTTC is recognized best practice in sustainable tourism within the industry globally (Ibid). Carmacal is made for the purpose of travel agencies to calculate their carbon footprint of a complete holiday, from home to destination, and home again: including flights, accommodation and tourism activities. This allows the travel agencies to be able to find the accommodations with the lowest use of energy and the most efficient airlines or flights, as well as to know the emissions for a wide range of transport modes including occupation rate to assess carbon intensive tourism activities (Climate Neutral Group). In that way, besides being an environmentally friendly travel agency, they can offer their customers more sustainable options to choose from in order to reduce their carbon footprints in simple and manageable way, that will also improve tourists perceived behavioral control (Anable, et al., 2006) of sustainable practices.

We know from the analysis, that people are very drawn to the unique advantages of aviation, and it shows that people are not eager to change their transport choices just because of environmental protection, while some also argue, that it is the industry’s responsibility to make their services greener. An obvious solution besides trying to change consumer behavior would therefor be to alter the most popular transportation forms to meet the requirements for reaching CO₂ emission goals. However, when it comes to aviation, it requires the latest technology and costly expenses to manufacture flights that are the least damaging to the environment, however it may still be argued that there would be no better way to make those efforts if it could lower the global CO₂ outlet in the tourism sector and ultimately help save our planet.

Europe's largest regional airline "Flybe", have actually done this by investing over \$2 billion in a new, environmentally sensitive aircraft (Flybe). Flybe is highly committed to drive down CO2 emissions, stating:

"Our aircraft use the very latest state of the art technology to burn fuel more efficiently to emit less carbon and, crucially for the local communities in which we operate, keep noise to an absolute minimum. Nitrogen Oxide (NOX) is the generic term for the various nitrogen oxides produced during combustion. Again, the application of the very latest technology has allowed aircraft manufacturers to greatly reduce the amount of NOX on landing and take-off and Flybe's aircraft compare favorably to others in the market." (Flybe)

Moreover, Flybe has also become the first airline in the world to introduce an aircraft eco-labeling scheme. The scheme is in response to the Stern Report's call for 'labeling' to help consumers and businesses make sound decisions and allow passengers to see exactly what impact their trip is causing to the environment during the full journey (Ibid). To assist comparison, their eco-labels divide the routes into three categories; Internal - 0 to 500 km., Near EU - 501 to 1500 km., Short Haul - 1500 km and above. This enables them to apply independently verified calculations to measure aircraft emissions. This does not only allow them to keep costs down but also limit emissions per seat (Flybe).

Even though these individual initiatives are valuable and useful, the tourism industry could still be argued to be too far behind in the commitment of becoming increasingly sustainable. According to travel expert Randy Durband, who is the chief executive of the Global Sustainable Tourism Council, sustainable travel is still a niche movement, and only few travel companies try to be sustainable, while others completely ignore the idea (Vora, 2017). Durband also claim that from the traveler's perspective, the demand and awareness of sustainable tourism is soft (Ibid). Booking.com, which describes itself as the world's largest hotel booking site, conducted a survey in 2016 involving about 5,700 hotels, which showed that only 25% of these reported that they had sustainable travel initiatives in place (Vora, 2017). The failed interviews with travel agencies in Aalborg also confirms the resistance towards addressing sustainable initiatives, as it was quite clear that the tabled turned as soon as the proposed questions

about their stance in regards to green services was presented. Lars Thykier, who is the director of the Danish Travel Bureau Association, explain that he is fully aware that the high degree of CO₂ emissions connected to tourism and travel is a problem, but then he states: "The Danish people could of course choose to stay at home, but that is not something we advise them to do, because then we would erode our own business" (Bencke, 2018). Thykier is obviously right, that it would be an economically bad decision for travel agencies to advise people to avoid travelling, due to its damaging impact. However, when acknowledging that the environmental impacts of tourism is currently too immense, while being instrumental actors that can either turn a blind eye or improve the situation, it is reasonable to state that it is a hypocritical position to be in, if travel agencies do not make an effort in becoming more environmentally friendly, or at least have some sustainable options to choose from. Yet, the challenge is still to bring consumers along, demanding greener tourism practices and holidays, as this research show that the vast majority of informants prefer to travel by aviation and are not willing to change their behavior in terms of transportation, just because of environmental reasons (Bencke, 2018).

Nevertheless, the leading luxury and experiential travel network Virtuoso, are working on becoming more sustainable. In a 2018 Virtuoso Luxe Report, they found indication of a rising interest in sustainable tourism vacations among travel network's clients, and that it is the millennials that are leading the way (Coulton, 2018). Yet, 84% of this study's informants are millennials, which contradicts Virtuoso's report, as the majority of them travel with aviation and car, while viewing factors such as price and speed more important than environmental impacts. So maybe, it's a demographic question, and Danish millennials are just behind in the progress of becoming more sustainable.

Virtuoso's Asia Pacific Managing Director, Michael Londregan, explain their stance in sustainable development:

"We have to have the view that we want to sustain things in a holistic way, not in a compensatory way, so don't behave badly and then try and behave well just to make up for it." (Coulton, 2018).

According to him, it could be implied that the proposal of a CO₂-fee imposed in flight travels is the wrong way to go, because then people would feel entitled to fly, as long

as they pay the fee in compensation. Conversely, his idea would suggest that people should not fly at all.

Furthermore, Costas Christ, who is the director of sustainability for Virtuoso argue that the travel industry and travelers have made significant progress, stating:

“Back in the ‘60s and ‘70s, going green and caring about local cultures was thought of as being very granola. There is much more familiarity and interest around these topics today.” (Vora, 2017).

This may be true, but in the 60’s and 70s’, knowledge about climate change, etc., was not as evident as it is today, signifying a rational connection to the current progressive familiarity and interest of green, sustainable practices. However, actions speak louder than words, and especially when it comes to protection of the environment. Therefore, as long as the levels of CO₂ in the atmosphere continue to grow, while the rate at which the CO₂ concentration is raising has been faster in the last decade than in the 2000s (Jain, 2018), the exclamation that authorities, industries and consumers should come together and assist each other in order to making it easier to transition to greener, more sustainable production cycles and lifestyles practices, should be maintained and expressed more than ever.

Conclusion

Within this study, it has become apparent that Danish tourists partake in green consumerism to very different extents and fluctuates depending on the context and the settings in which the informants’ find themselves.

It is highly evident, that the vast majority of Danish tourists prefer to travel abroad in their holidays, in the pursuit of experiencing something different, such as another culture. In order to do so, the study shows that the use of aviation is upmost favored way to travel. The findings indicate that the primary reasons for choosing aviation are based on price, speed and availability.

In terms of green consumerism in the context of tourism, the findings show that consideration for the environment is the least influential factor in the respondents’ choice of spending their holiday at home, while the amount of pollution or environmental impact of their transportation choice is the least important factor, and it is also not regarded in their decision-making process. Additionally, the consideration for the environment does not affect Danish tourists in their decision to go on long

flight journeys. This concludes that when it comes to leisure travel and transportation, Danish tourists are generally not engaging in green consumerism or indicate any feelings of responsibility of their actions towards the environment. However, when the respondents are flying, their behaviors are fairly sustainable, since the majority chooses the best practices in terms of limiting their carbon footprints. Moreover, the respondents' travel behavior during their vacations is also moderately sustainable, as the bus is the most used form of transportation. Yet, car use is not far behind, which is also stated to be the respondents' second most preferred option when travelling abroad, which could suggest that the people who are driving to their destination, naturally use their car during the holiday too.

At home, in the setting of their everyday environment, the bus and bicycle are the two most used forms of transportation, which can be categorized as sustainable transportation. Nevertheless, there is still a large group of people who commute by car. In terms of household practices, the majority of the respondents are partaking in sustainable, green behaviors. Conclusively, at home, the informants are relatively better placed on a scale of green consumerism. However, the overall study still demonstrates that the respondents are quite divided in terms of vigor and motivations of doing so. A few things that are noticeable and consistent through all of the practices presented, is that the majority of the respondents are aware that they could optimize their commitment and engagement of green behaviors, while the price of things is a substantial determining factor for being a consistent, effective green consumer, which can also be witnessed in regards to the examined flight practices. Hence, it can be claimed that the informants are more likely to participate if the green consumer practices are easily manageable and involve similar costs as non-green alternatives.

In regards to green consumerism throughout the different contexts and settings, sustainable practices and behavior presents some motivational complexities that may counteract the respondents' ability and willingness to effectively participate. These include internal factors such as personal ethics and morals, which can bring about a relief of consciousness and positive feelings about the contribution to the collective good and societal pressures to fit into normative expectations and trends.

Complexities from external environments can also influence and shape the consumer,

as one's surroundings offer certain options and possibilities as well as different incentives that may or may not assist in sustainable behaviors. This also relates to the ability of being an effective green consumer, which depends on personal resources in terms of monetary – and non-monetary costs.

Another critical discovery in the analysis is, that despite being aware of climate change and the environmental consequences of non-green behaviors, people deliberately continue to participate in activities, such as flying, that contribute to these negative. A definite example of this is, that the vast majority of the informants are in favor of a CO₂-fee for flight travels, thus acknowledging the importance of sustainable initiatives, but continue to overlook their personal involvement, by bluntly admitting to not regarding the environmental impact of their travel behaviors.

The analysis comes to terms with the fact that this might be because of the way climate change and other environmental devastations around the world have been depicted as this massive issue, which overwhelms people and makes them feel ineffective to the point that they neglect their individual environmental responsibility, as they believe that their changes in behaviors are not visible and will have no real impact. Moreover, the study also suggests that even though people support sustainable initiatives in theory, they may not support them in practice, especially if extra costs are involved.

When it comes to possibilities of enhancing sustainability in tourism, both from the perspective of the industry as well as its consumers, the analysis proposes that the best way to be successful in this is through collective action, amongst public authorities, policy makers, the industry and production sectors as well as individual consumers. It is essential to spread awareness and knowledge through labels and other visible information outlets, while developing green and sustainable options to choose from, which are on a price level matching its' non-green alternatives. Moreover, it is important to demand transparency and increasing societal expectations on corporate disclosure, as well as engaging in the consumption of sustainable initiatives, products and services to support the movement. But in order to effectively bring consumers along, it is crucial that the transformation to environmentally sustainable tourism is done in a way, which is not at the expense of people's well being or affecting certain needs that could combat the progress.

However, the rapid increase of tourists together with the profound scientific evidence of the existing CO₂ levels, is exactly why sustainable tourism needs attention now, which may suggest a necessity to properly implement concrete green policies as an intervention scheme for changing behaviors, sooner rather than later, where production and consumption approaches should regard the environment as a socially responsible norm, where actions that contribute to environmental degradation will not be tolerated to the extent that is allowed in present circumstances.

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