



Universidad de Deusto  
Deustuko Unibertsitatea  
University of Deusto

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Deusto Business School

PhD Programme “Business Competitiveness and Economic Development”

**DOCTORAL THESIS**

**“UNDERSTANDING THE DIFFERENCES OF POLITICAL CONSUMERS  
IN NORTHERN, SOUTHERN AND EASTERN EUROPE”**

Olga Shaleeva

San Sebastián, February 2015





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San Sebastián, February 2015



For my mother, sister and husband.



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## List of Abbreviations

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BDS	Boycott, Divestment and Sanctions
CSR	Corporate Social Responsibility
ESS	European Social Survey
KFC	Kentucky Fried Chicken
MTMM	Multitrait-Multimethod Matrix
SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
SQP	Survey Quality Predictor
TRAPD	Translation, Review, Adjudication, Pretesting and Documentation
UK	United Kingdom
UNO	United Nations Organization
USA	United States of America
WESP	World Economic Situation and Prospects

## List of Variables

---

AGEA	Age
BCTPRD	Boycotted certain products last 12 months
CLUSTER	Cluster under analysis
CONTPLT	Contacted politician or government official last 12 months
EDUYRS	Years of full-time education completed
GNDR	Gender
HAPSAT	How satisfied with life
INCOME	Total household's income, from all sources
PBLDMN	Taken part in lawful public demonstration last 12 months
POLINTR	How interested in politics
SGNPTIT	Signed petition last 12 months
STFCNTRY	How much satisfied with government and state democracy
VOTE	Voted last national election



## **1 GENERAL INTRODUCTION**

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1.1. Introduction

1.2. General and specific objectives of research

1.3. Relevance of research topic and contribution

1.4. Structure of the thesis

1.5. Main findings

1.6. Summary of the chapter

### 1.1. Introduction

In the modern world, consumers are presented with an array of brands and offered a range of products, supplied with a constant reminder to purchase. Increasing growth of internet technologies helps marketers and producers to supply customers with information about new products, their properties, and the policies of a company (Shaw & Clarke, 1999; Koku, 2012). In a new era of information accessibility, consumers have an opportunity to make deliberate choices in a marketplace, basing their purchasing decisions according to their values and beliefs. However, the availability of such information is also a double-edged sword, since along with an increase in consumer acquisition it may result in individuals withholding consumption (Peattie & Peattie, 2009).

One branch in the field of consumption withholding is political consumerism, which is defined as “*consumer choice of producers and products based on political or ethical considerations or both*” (Stolle, Hooghe & Michieletti, 2005: 246). Political consumerism is rather a new field of study for the modern world, but not a new phenomenon. For example, one of the first historical mentions of this concept is dating 1960s, when Ralph Nader’s Modern Consumer Movement appeared (Ward, 2011). In the mid-1990s scientists first began to talk about political consumerism, understanding here the way consumers use to affect market and politics.

This concept was first introduced in Denmark by the Copenhagen Institute for Future Studies and then broadly accepted by economists, marketers and politicians (Micheletti, 2003), but nevertheless it has gained more attention only the last years. *The 1<sup>st</sup> International seminar on political consumerism* took place in Stockholm in 2001. It was the first time scholars from different countries and various fields of study were gathered together in order to present the papers and to discuss the topics related to political consumerism and concepts of

lifestyle, globalization, business ethics, individualization, post modernization, etc. A specific consequence of this seminar is a work by Micheletti, Føllesdal and Stolle (2003) "Politics, Products, and Markets. Exploring Political Consumerism Past and Present". Up to now Michelle Micheletti and Dietlind Stolle remain the leading figures in the world of studying the concept of political consumerism.

Therefore, there exist a variety of papers discussing the subject of political consumerism that were written before the above mentioned seminar. Scholars from northern European countries first began to study this phenomenon, identifying its specific traits and consumers' motivation. All the papers afforded a strong basis for the studies on political consumerism, what gave a push to its further development and extension. Thus, it was at the bottom of organization of the second seminar on political consumerism, which has been held in Oslo, Norway, in August 2004. Interestingly, the dominant part of the papers was presented by researchers from non-Nordic countries (US, UK, the Netherlands, Germany, France) (Boström et al., 2005). To present day one of the deepest theoretical discussion of political consumerism can be found in "Political Virtue and Shopping. Individuals, consumerism and collective action" by Michele Micheletti (2003), who contends that the perception of political actions by citizens has been changed dramatically, and that is the reason why people are turning to different forms of political participation. Consequently, political consumerism is seen as a fresh, innovative direction through which buyers can express their opinions and which "can open up an arena for political involvement for people who otherwise may not have an easy access to politics" (Micheletti, 2003: 18).

The concept of political consumerism, especially consumer boycotts, is now the subject of many debates. Some authors suggest that the core aspect of political consumerism is the fact that it takes a strong position within an existing

framework of the consumer society, while being an issue of social and environmental awareness (Szmigin & Carrigan, 2006). In this perspective political consumers do not restrain from consumption, but they rather make deliberate choice of the products and services that reflect their moral and ethical values and beliefs. The authors affirm that this kind of consumption does not have to be seen as a separate, individual part of consumption, but has to be concerned as a part of a general issue. However, ethical attributes of the participants are measured by consumers along with others relevant to their choice and decisions (Shaw & Clarke, 1999). This kind of participation can be integrated into the general picture of consumption, but this new concept requires further exploration in order to understand its meaning to consumers beyond external and instrumental incentives such as welfare, pollution or appropriate organisation. But which factors shape political consumers' behaviour, what motivates them to make a deliberate choice of ethical brands and products? Are there any differences between them? The last one is the main question of our present investigation; in particular, we aim to explore socio-demographic features of those who refrain from purchasing unethical goods due to some definite reasons.

However, almost all investigations into this topic have been held in the northern and western Europe and there is almost no information concerning southern or eastern Europe. Reference to relevant literature confirms that political consumerism is an activity that is widespread in Scandinavian countries, found to moderate levels in southern European countries, while it is found at only low levels in eastern European countries. The purpose of this research is to add some nuance to this critical gap in the literature. Using data from the fifth and sixth waves of the European Social Survey, we detect socio-demographic profile of those who act as boycotters in different geographical clusters of Europe, and furthermore, we discover the differences and similarities between them.

## **1.2. General and specific objectives of research**

In the process of relevant literature overview on the concept of political consumerism we noticed that there are some specific issues that have not received due attention from scholars and still remain unexplored. To what extent is the concept of political consumerism spread over Europe? Who are these boycotters in northern, southern and eastern European countries, what are their peculiar characteristics? Are there any differences between the boycotters from northern, southern and eastern Europe? Amenable to these questions we extract principal object of interest for our research, and subsequently subdivide it to the number of constituents, specific objectives of the present study.

**General objective** – to reveal the differences intrinsic to boycotters from northern, southern and eastern European countries.

### **Specific objectives:**

- To explore boycotters' socio-demographic profile: gender, age, level of education and income, and compare these variables between different geographical clusters;
- To examine boycotters' general interest in politics and their engagement into political participation with newly introduced variables;
- To reveal which idea better characterizes political consumerism: mobilization theory or supplement theory;
- To investigate boycotters' satisfaction with the way democracy and government work in country with newly introduced variables;
- To scrutinize the level of boycotters' personal satisfaction with life with newly introduced variables.

According to the indicated above general and specific objectives of this study we pose research question which represents the main issues of investigation of the present PhD thesis:

**Research Question: “What are the differences between political consumers from northern, southern and eastern European countries?”**

In this study secondary data are employed to provide a thorough explanation to the research question presented above. The source of exploitable data is the European Social Survey (2010–2013). This research aims to clarify information of a specific concept of political consumerism, consumer boycott, through the detailed analysis of the issues under consideration.

### **1.3. Relevance of research topic and contribution**

Consuming is an action when people can make consumption choices in a multiple of different ways. In the past decade, researchers have provided a quantity of studies placing political consumerism on one of the front lines, thus emphasizing the increasing importance of understanding how individuals form their consumption preferences (e.g., Shaw & Clarke, 1999; Sen et al., 2001; Ferrer, 2004; Klein et al., 2004; Stolle et al., 2005; Micheletti et al., 2012; Copeland, 2013).

Due to the recent explosion of consumers' interest in social responsibility issues companies' and brands' reputations are becoming more susceptible to external influences, which underscore the important role of consumer boycott cognition in marketing strategy-making. Although the concept of consumer boycotts is under increasing consideration now, researchers assert that the factors which stimulate individuals to boycott still remain largely undiscovered (Hoffmann & Müller, 2009).

Nowadays it is a common practice for consumers to judge firms grounding on social responsibility criteria. And they go beyond simple judging; they act against companies that are considered "guilty", organizing consumer boycotts. These campaigns may bring considerable damages to firm's reputation, placing at risk years of investments in brand building. Companies should not underestimate the role of consumer boycotts in marketing-planning. Political consumers should be regarded as potential political actors who may be mobilized under certain conditions based on personal experience and mediated storylines of corporate performance seen in relation to the on-going international debate on companies' social responsibility. Thus, a deeper understanding of the characteristics of political consumers by organisations can

lead to the design of more efficient and effective ethical marketing programs (Rundle-Thiele, Paladino & Apostol, 2008).

In spite of increasing concern about ethical issues on the market, the weakest point is that relatively little research has been done on this specific question in depth and within the context of other issues of concern to consumers. Scholarly interest in political consumerism, especially consumer boycotts, has blazingly increased the last years. However, there are no extensive investigations of boycott activity predictors, especially according to different geographical locations of consumers. Moreover, almost nothing is known about the relation between general life satisfaction and participation in boycotts. The descriptive characterization of political consumers' profiles and differences between them, presented in this research, provides a comprehensive framework within the traditions of previous investigations.

To sum up, this study gives several contributes to the world of academic literature, videlicet:

1. It replicates the previous findings by investigators on the concept of political consumerism, related to the profile of boycotters.
2. It assembles preceding theoretical and empirical isolated researches on the aspects of political consumerism and boycotts from the beginning up to nowadays, revealing similarities and discrepancies between previous findings.
3. It extends existing descriptions of consumer actions directed towards the consumption practices, providing a framework which describes linkages between formerly isolated metaphors of consuming.

4. It tests empirically issues studied by scholars heretofore, using the latest available data source, describing endorsements and refutations of previously stated affirmations.

5. It introduces and finds a support for new hypothesis related to consumers' satisfaction with their lives and engagement to boycott actions, what appears as not being testing by any researcher before.

6. It discovers the aspect which has no or scanty research in relevant literature - the characteristics of southern and eastern European boycotters.

7. It provides the differences and similarities between boycotters from three different geographical clusters of Europe: northern, southern and eastern.

Recapitulating, we can conclude that this study is theoretically relevant since consumers' boycotts are supposed to shape the basis of any alterations of purchasing behaviour related to the aspects of political consumerism.

#### **1.4. Structure of the thesis**

In the current first chapter, General Introduction, we justify relevance of the research topic for the academic world, introducing main research problems, general and specific objectives of the present study as well as its contribution to academic literature and main findings of our research.

The next chapter, The Concept of Political Consumerism, is devoted to literature review on the concept of political consumerism. To achieve the aim of our research on exploring the profile of political consumers it is necessary to start from a broader perspective, and first we capture the general idea of the term *political consumerism*. For this purpose we provide overall theory on this concept, listing various definitions and designations by different authors, explaining its characteristics and peculiarities. We also note some doubts and controversies that can be found in literature sources concerning political consumerism.

The third chapter, Consumer Boycott, represents specific type of political consumerism we explore in this research. Thus, going from fundamental overview of the relevant concept we provide theoretical background of more specific and the core aspect of our investigation – consumer boycott. In this chapter general review of boycott action is presented, followed with its history and various definitions that appeared in previous studies. Though the main issue of current research is to investigate boycotts from the perspective of consumers, we also present some information concerned the outlook of a company. However, significant part of this chapter is devoted to consumer behaviour and motivation, examining specific characteristics, criteria and drivers influencing conduct of shoppers.

The fourth chapter, The Importance of Studying Political Consumerism, continues the initial idea of relevance of the topic under investigation. Since consumer boycott is a narrow offshoot which flows from a general conception of Corporate Social Responsibility, it is necessary to start with a perception of CSR by consumers. Moreover, here we introduce what implies ethical purchase behaviour. Investigating further the

interaction between consumers and companies, consumers and politicians, we conclude this chapter with implications.

The main purpose of the fifth chapter, Research on Political Consumerism, is to synthesize the previous studies on the aspects of political consumerism and to present their main findings and conclusions. We supplement these investigations with our own research of the extent of boycott development in different countries of Europe, using the latest data from the European Social Survey (2010-2013) and presenting its outcome as a clear graph of comparison. And the last topic of theoretical background is embodied in characterization of socially responsible consumers, who act as a key concept of investigation in our study. Moreover, in this chapter we present research question and corresponding hypotheses. Here we introduce the research problem under current investigation and corresponding hypotheses. Theoretical background and subdivision of hypotheses is also presented. The research question is aimed to investigate such characteristics of political consumers as interest in politics and political participation, level of satisfaction with the way democracy and government work in the country and personal level of life satisfaction, as well as the socio-demographic profile of boycotting consumers: gender, age, level of education and income.

In the next sixth chapter we gradually introduce methods applied for our measurement to obtain final results. First, we introduce information about the source of data which is employed in this study, the European Social Survey. Second, we give a picture of sampling for our analysis. Third, we provide detailed descriptive information about the variables and character of each of them. Fourth, the country-level analysis concerning the variables is aggregated in a structured table.

The seventh chapter of this PhD thesis, Results, reveals empirical findings we obtained after performing binary logistic regression with the help of SPSS IBM Statistics. We capture a picture of each cluster under analysis separately, and then present the unique image of our results, combining the findings from northern, southern and eastern

European countries, and then comparing the profiles of boycotters with the reference to the northern cluster.

To summarize all our findings we deduce with the eighth chapter, Conclusions. Here we observe the derived results and make inferences about the previously assumed hypotheses. We also reflect our personal opinion on the derived results. Further, we provide sections with implications, limitations of the present research and suggest ideas for future research on the topic.

The last ninth chapter, References, gives a list of books, articles and other publications that have been used for the preparation of the present PhD thesis.

Finally, we provide the list of web-pages which provided additional information for this PhD thesis.

### **1.5. Main findings**

This thesis elaborates upon a very important phenomenon in academic world – consumer boycott. We discover the profile of boycotters from different geographical parts of Europe and reveal similar and distinctive traits between them. Using the recent data we corroborate the fact that boycotting is advanced in Scandinavian countries, not very developed in the countries of southern Europe and almost not spread in eastern European countries. We also approve the fact that boycotters are mostly politically active citizens.

However, several findings of this thesis do not confirm previous assertions by scholars concerning the profile of boycotters. For example, we did not find any effect of voting activity, age and level of income on Scandinavian consumers' decision to restrain from purchasing certain products. Moreover, although voting is assumed as the foremost political activity related to political consumerism, it affects boycott participation only in the countries of eastern Europe, where this type of consumer protest remains in the stage of infancy. Boycotter's age is a factor of distinction between political consumers from different geographical parts of Europe. Thus, it is not significant parameter in the northern part of Europe, in southern Europe boycotters tend to be older, and in eastern – younger population. Contrary to prevalent opinion that boycotters are resourceful females our findings show surprising results.

Newly introduced variables, such as boycotter's satisfaction with the way democracy and government work in the country and satisfaction with life also show interesting results. We found that boycotters from all European countries under investigation are not satisfied with the government and democracy in their countries. This finding may be construed as signals which citizens send to the government in order to inform it about their unsatisfied needs about the governance structure.

In the countries of northern Europe relation of being happy with life and probability of being a boycotter is not found. However, southern and eastern European boycotters tend to be unsatisfied with their lives people. At first glance this discovery does not

confirm anticipation that more happy people are more active within social and political issues. However, according to personal emotions interpretation it seems reasonable that unhappy people focus on the negative sides of events. Thus, consumers become more susceptible to unethical behaviour of a certain company and consequently they are more eager to boycott its products.

Finally, we present general image of a boycotter from northern, southern and eastern Europe. Comparing their characteristics, we reveal that the profile of northern European boycotter is more similar to the southern European, while eastern European boycotter is much more different.

## **1.6. Summary of the chapter**

We outlined the main aspects and ideas of the PhD thesis in the first introductory chapter. We clearly defined general objective and five corresponding specific objectives of this study. Thus, the question “What are the differences between political consumers from the northern, southern and eastern European countries?” appears as the main issue and Research Question of this PhD investigation. We justified the relevance of our study and its contribution to the world of academic literature placing a special emphasis on seven principal aspects. Structure of the thesis with constructive descriptions of each section is also described in the first chapter. Moreover, general introduction provided an insight to the main findings of this study.



## **2 THE CONCEPT OF POLITICAL CONSUMERISM**

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- 2.1. Introduction to the concept
- 2.2. Consumption as voting
- 2.3. Consumption as integration
- 2.4. Definitions of political consumerism
- 2.5. Collective or individual action?
- 2.6. Characteristics of political consumerism
- 2.7. Summary of the chapter

## **2.1. Introduction to the concept**

Scholarly literature about political involvement has portrayed citizens as people who are withdrawn from the private sector. However, there is also evidence that since the end of the Cold War people have become more interested in the quality of life they have (Inglehart, 1997). The typical sample of this trend was further described as an increase of Green parties in Western Europe (Beck, 1997). Nevertheless, it does not show that citizens became alienated from political participation. The way of political engagement has been transformed, but not the quality. For example, in order to protect the environment it is more efficient to influence the government through boycotting contaminating companies than through pressuring governmental officers to regulate the market. Shortly, the way of citizens' participation has been turned from government to market.

Scholars distinguish several individual and group activities that citizens may use if they are eager to change and improve the development of more sustainable economy and lifestyle: political activism (Gawor, 2008), directed consumption (Hirschman, 1970), community participation (Fan, 2008), and withdrawal from a consuming society (Cherrier & Murray, 2002). The type of consumption we explore in this investigation is so-called "consumption as voting" (Shaw et. al, 2006), which is quite disputed concept in academic sphere, and as a complement or substitution for traditional political participation has affected the development of more sustainable products and services in the market. Though the concept of political consumerism is rather unexplored item up to nowadays, the idea of comparing consumers' purchasing decisions with political voting is not a novelty, its history is long enough.

## 2.2. Consumption as voting

In 1911 an American economist Frank Fetter had already noted that the market is a democracy where every single monetary unit gives the right to vote. Later British politician John Enoch Powell claimed that each person who buys something preferring one product to another one, this way makes a purchasing decision and it is the same as casting a vote in the economic ballot box (Powell, 1969). According to researches in the world of consumer behaviour (Micheletti, 2003; Isenhour, 2010), there was an exceptional worldwide proliferation in more “sustainable” forms of consumption of different products and services over the last 40 years, going from Petrini’s Slow Food movement in 1986 and the extension of organic products markets to boycotts, buycotts, voluntary participation in programs of saving the environment and consumers’ activism, directed to consuming less and saving more.

The metaphor of buying something in the market and political voting has been passing through years up to nowadays, and as was mentioned in Ethical Consumer Research Association in UK (2009) money is referred to be a vote which people can use when they make any of their buying decisions. The report suggests that those who spend their money in the market reasonably, can help to improve the overall situation in the world, to make it better. Person who wants to save money might be faced with some pitfalls: there is always a cost somewhere down the line. “Buying cheap clothes which have been made in sweatshops is a vote for worker exploitation. Buying a gas guzzling 4X4, especially if you are a city dweller, is a vote for climate change. Factory farmed animals, meanwhile, may make cheap meat but it comes at a price on the quality of life of the animal” (Ethical Consumer Research Association, 2009: 3). Among these examples even ordinary everyday shopping, such as coffee, tea, milk or bread are a vote for something. If a citizen takes this ethical fact into

account while shopping he can make own contribution to the development of a more ethical society. Thus, for example, supporting organic products is a vote for environmental stability, fair trade is a vote for human rights.

Thereby, consumption as a metaphor of voting appears when people make a choice of particular products over other ones, reflecting through this performance their personal beliefs, views, moral positions (Newman & Bartels, 2011). For example, when you go to Starbucks and see a sequence of coffee choices, some of them may be fair trade. If the ground of your decision to buy the fair trade coffee is at least partly based on the fact that the growers were treated fairly in the manufacturing process, you engage into political consumerism. There is no doubt, you may also base your decision on the peculiarities of certain kind of coffee – it can smell and taste good; but the necessary condition to be involved into political consumerism is just that fair treatment for the growers is one of the factors affecting your decision. The most important point is that the consumer uses here purchases to try and change the way other people behave. Suppose in the previous example that you choose the fair trade coffee partly because of the policy of buying fair trade will create an incentive for coffee manufacturers to treat growers better.

This process is political in its nature because the action consumers make has the same scheme as voting in political elections, when someone transfers personal beliefs to the politics preferring one specific candidate or political party to another one. Relevant literature observation contends that those people, who are not satisfied with the way politics and government work in the country, take their values to the market and use it as a site for political action (Micheletti et al., 2003), mostly – boycotts.

### 2.3. Consumption as integration

Apart from consumption as voting, political consumerism can be viewed as a type of social action when people use consumption products in a variety of ways, distinguishing one more metaphor which describes the process of consuming (Holt, 1995; Szmigin & Carrigan, 2006) – *integration*. This metaphor refers to the ways that consumers use to emphasize the perception that a valued object of purchase is a significant part creating their individuality. The main idea of viewing political consumption as integration is the concept of promotion of the symbolic use of consumption object. The authors underline that for some activities, for instance, as photography, integration may serve as an automatic process, because consumers themselves are highly involved into participation in the consumption object. However, when the matter of a question consists in mass produced products, like chocolate, integration becomes more complicated. While many products of political consumerism will be classified as alternatives to other mass produced goods, they can beget a perception of an essential participation, where a deliberate choice is needed. And those consumers who buy products on the basis of well-considered ethical issues can be still a subject to the “production of identity” through consumption, giving themselves characteristics on the base of the products they purchase or refrain to buy. However, there is no argument why personal individuality may not be expressed through rational and deliberate rejection to consume material goods.

Szmigin and Carrigan (2006) further developed this instrumental act and proposed four ways used by ethical shoppers for integration:

- for distinction;
- for hedonistic satisfaction;
- for love;

- for aesthetic appreciation.

As a *distinction* activities exercised by political consumers are seen like a plain consumption, obviously “antithetical to an ethical stance”. Political consumerism requires its activists to distinguish themselves through their consumer boycotting actions that already imply making more effort for searching information about substitutes to the boycotted product, purchasing it and spending more money on its acquisition. The distinctive feature of ethical consumers is that they are often less preoccupied with the costs they have to invest, but they spend more time to make themselves sure that the selected product meets ethical requirements. As far as these consumers are the minority, political consumerism always includes an issue of explanation of consumer behaviour and rejection to purchase specific goods to friends, family, relatives and colleagues. The deliberate choice of boycotting certain products or brands may distinguish personality and individuality to the same extent as, for instance, prestige alternatives. Thus, political consumers have a characteristic of social differentiation and distinction that become integrated into the person’s consumer behaviour.

The term *hedonism* refers to several related theories about what is good for us, how we should behave, and what motivates us to behave in the way that we do; however, according to the modern interpretation hedonists hunt for a sense of pleasure regardless the nature of the activity, implying here also painful and sad experiences. In the perspective of the political consumerism hedonism requires activities that result in positive emotions and prevent pain. As previously has been defined by researchers many people become engaged into political consumerism activities due to the perception of doing the right thing (Kozinets & Handelman, 1998) and to feel good about themselves. It can be assumed that these consumers act hedonistically both concerning their own feelings of

pleasure from buying certain things and also in terms of positive effects they produce towards the environment.

The next interesting motivation for ethical consumers is *love*. People can express their caring about their families and beloved through consumption, trying to choose the best on the market for the ones they love. Miller (2001) studied the concept of love and attention in families from the north of London, and the researcher showed how daily decisions are made in the context of moral questions what is good or bad. In this investigation love to the dearest performs as a significant part of ethical consumption, which is expressed in providing them with the best through making deliberate choices of purchasing goods that meet ethical requirements, for instance, buying environmentally friendly products. In this sense, the aspects of political consumerism act as a fundamental basis of conscious consumer behaviour.

*Aesthetic appreciation* in the terms of political consumerism is another intrinsic part which may serve as an incentive to participation. Usually ethically produced alternatives to the boycotted goods are more expensive and require additional costs (Sen et al., 2001). However, in the modern society arguments about ethical consumption become more compelling, coming to the assertion that everyday life should be aestheticized (Szmigin & Carrigan, 2006). Hence, the desire to shape a distinctive lifestyle can involve ethical consumerism in terms of purchasing more aesthetic goods instead of boycotted ones, thus creating more beautiful surrounding, and producing pleasant feelings about acquiring something different to the mass produced products.

To sum up, Szmigin and Carrigan (2006) introduced four possible dimensions of political consumerism within Holt's (1995) typology of consumption practices. However, the researchers underline that this analysis of ethical consumption may not be accepted by those studying the concept of political consumerism,

but understanding and investigating the dimensions of consumer delectation is a significant step in broadening the dimensions of the concept of political consumerism.

## 2.4. Definitions of political consumerism

Many scientists report the decrease of political participation by citizens over the last years (Putnam, 2000; López Pintor et al., 2002; Baek, 2010), what is manifested in rejection of political party membership and decline of turnouts of voters in elections. At the same time the contrariety is noted in a sharp increase of political activity in the market in the form of consumer votes (Friedman, 1996; Shaw et al., 2006). In 2001 Hertz asserted: “The most effective way to be political today is not to cast your vote at the ballot box but to do so at the supermarket” (Hertz, 2001: 190). But it is still not clear whether this addressing to the market for voting is an addition to the traditional politics or its substitution.

Thereby an ordinary consumption is replaced by so-called “prosumers” now, people who affect market by their purchasing decisions, requesting what to sell to them and how it has to be marketed (Salzman, 2000). Nevertheless, what does this new activity precisely mean? Given its history, the study of political consumerism has resulted in a variety of definitions. Some regard political consumerism as incorporating both individual and collective acts (Micheletti et al., 2003) while others distinguish between political and non-political consumption, arguing that contemporary political consumerism goes beyond boycott action and that it is more of a routine pattern of behaviour that also includes “boycotting”, or deliberately choosing certain products. Though different authors define the term “political consumerism” in their own way (see Table 1), there is one expression which is used more frequently than others and is generally accepted as a common definition of this activity: *Political Consumerism is a “consumer choice of producers and products based on political or ethical considerations or both” (Stolle et al., 2005).*

Table 1. Definitions of political consumerism.

Author	Definition
Smith, N.C. (1990)	An expression of the individual's moral judgement in his or her purchase behaviour.
Dickinson, R., Hollander, S.C. (1991)	Use of the purchase votes in the marketplace by consumers for election of the sort of society they wish to be a part of.
Vitell, S.J., Muncy, J. (1992)	The moral principles and standards that guide behaviour of individuals or groups as they obtain, use, and dispose of goods and services.
Shaw, D., Clarke, I. (1999)	An activity when consumers in addition to being concerned about general environmental issues, are distinguished by their concern for deep-seated problems.
Andersen, J.G., Tobiasen, M. (2001)	The actions a person performs when he/she shows substantial value considerations in connection with deliberately choosing or avoiding goods in order to promote a political goal.
Mohr, L.A., Webb, D.J., Harris, K.E. (2001)	An acquisition, usage, and disposition of products on a desire to minimize or eliminate any harmful effects and maximize the long-run beneficial impact on society.
Micheletti, M. (2003)	The use of market for political purposes: to raise political issues, create responsibility-taking, control uncertainty, and solve common problems.
Stolle, D., Micheletti, M. (2003)	A form of political engagement, e.g. the buying or boycotting of products and services based on political or ethical values.
Crane, A., Matten, D. (2004)	The conscious and deliberate decision to make certain consumption choices due to personal moral beliefs and values.
De Pelsmacker, P., Driesen, L., Rayp, G. (2005)	A translation of consumers' concerns or attitudes towards society or the environment into expressed buying behaviour.
Harrison, R., Newholm, T., Shaw, D. (2005)	Choice of a certain product over others on the basis of political, religious, spiritual, environmental, social or other motives.
Harrison, R., Newholm, T., Shaw, D. (2005)	A form of consumer activism, taking responsibility by consumers for their decisions in purchasing goods and services.
Rask Jensen, H. (2005)	A result of strong political interest and trust which means that the market mechanism is considered as a supplement to and not a downright replacement of the institutionalized political system.

Stolle, D., Hooghe, M., Micheletti, M. (2005)	<b>Consumer choice of producers and products based on political or ethical considerations or both.</b>
Vogel, D. (2005)	An activity where consumers target the market, not the government, as the desired source of change.
Holzer, B. (2006)	A translation of political objectives into consumption choices that are essentially individual and private affairs.
Szmigin, I., Carrigan, M. (2006)	An activity where consumers refine their consumption, choosing ethically produced goods.
Szmigin, I., Carrigan, M. (2006)	Consumer decision to purchase products with sensitivity through selecting ethical alternatives.
Schudson, M. (2007)	The intentional use of consumer choice over products and producers within the marketplace as a means of expressing policy preferences and achieving political objectives.
Shah, D., McLeod, D.M., Kim, E. et al. (2007)	Using the market as a venue to express political and moral concerns.
Smith, N.C. (2007)	Consumer purchase behaviour, influenced by the issues of corporate responsibility.
Strømsnes, K. (2008)	An act of consumption that is prompted by the desire to reach a certain political goal.
Moraes, C., Shaw, D., Carrigan, M. (2011)	Purchasing and consumption that takes into consideration societal, animal welfare, as well as environmental concerns.
Newman, B.J., Bartels, B.L. (2011)	A novel form of extraelectoral political participation - the intentional buying or abstention from buying specific products for political, social, or ethical purposes.
Newman, B.J., Bartels, B.L. (2011)	A form of political participation, attempting to influence the priority given to particular societal values and shaping the distribution of these values in the political and economic outcomes throughout society.
Graziano, P.R., Forno, F. (2012)	An individually based political response to environmental and social challenges such as global pollution and labour exploitation.
Micheletti, M., Stolle, D., Berlin, D. (2012)	Evaluation and choice of producers and products with the aim of changing ethically, environmentally or politically objectionable institutional or market practices.
Gil de Zúñiga, H., Copeland, L., Bimber, B. (2013)	A tool through which people can articulate social or political preferences, which it can take one of two forms: boycott or buycott.

Source: Own research based on the literature review.

It is obvious from the Table 1 that political consumerism as a sensible concept started to attract attention from the early 90-s, and until nowadays there were no significant changes in the description of this activity. All the scholars assume political consumerism as being specific consumer behaviour, when it implies thorough and well-considered choice of particular products in the marketplace. However, different researchers underline various core motives for such conduct. It can be moral incentive (Smith, 1990; Vitell & Muncy, 1992; Crane & Matten, 2004; Shah et al., 2007), societal perspective (Dickinson & Hollander, 1991; Mohr et al., 2001; Graziano & Forno, 2012), political concerns (Andersen & Tobiasen, 2001; Micheletti, 2003; Rask Jensen, 2005; Holzer, 2006; Schudson, 2007; Shah et al., 2007; Strømsnes, 2008) or close association of different aspects (Harrison et al., 2005; Moraes et al., 2011; Newman & Bartel, 2011). Nevertheless, the definition by Stolle, Hooghe & Micheletti (2005) generally summarizes and emphasizes the core sense of the concept of political consumerism.

There is also another appellation for political consumerism, which has secured a quite frequent use among researches - "ethical consumerism", or so-called "green consumerism". The original meaning of the word "ethics", what comes from Greek "ethos", is conduct, customs or character. As follows, ethical consumerism implies consumers to use their income for common good, by the same scheme as voting: every time a person buys something, he/she supports a brand or, on the contrary, can punish it by ignoring some certain products due to some specific reasons. Such act of consumption gives people power to influence the doom of a product or service on the market (Shaw et al., 2006).

As far as consumers cannot avoid buying products, they can implement their political influence by consuming some special items and ignoring the others to achieve their moral or political goals (Schudson, 2007). Therefore, there is a

plenty of high-pitched arguments between scholars regarding the significance of these studies up to now.

## **2.5. Collective or individual action?**

While discussing the concept of political consumerism scholars still have debates whether this is a collective or individualized type of participation. There are several established public virtue motivations (Micheletti, 2010) that people adduce for engaging in political consumerism. It was revealed in National Civic Engagement Survey (2002) that citizens take part in political consumerism, explaining it with the statement “because it is a good thing to do” (Zukin et al., 2006). This affirmation already sounds like highly individualized basis for participation, though Micheletti also detects solidarity as one of the drivers of action, which is shared among consumers (Micheletti, 2010). She defines political consumerism as a form of “individualized collective action,” determined as “the practice of responsibility taking for common well-being through the creation of concrete, everyday arenas on the part of citizens alone or together with others to deal with problems that they believe are affecting what they identify as the good life” (Micheletti, 2010: 25–26). Therefore, the guru of political consumerism identifies this activity as neither personalized, nor collective action, but implies it to stay on the boundary between, as a kind of not well-identified verge. The practice of political consumerism itself is often a highly individualized activity. And for some citizens, surely, the experience ends there; but for others it means something more: the opportunity to join with others within this action.

However, while the acceptance of political consumerism as voting strategy by people accentuates consumer citizenship and feelings of responsibility to produce changes, many consumers still highly doubt that they have power in the marketplace to make any improvement individually. Thus, a feeling of a collective action can reinforce the perception of vigour in the marketplace (Shaw & Clarke, 1999). As supported by the relevant literature, the most

considerable influence of individual consumer votes is achieved by creation of organized group action (Lozano, 2007). Nevertheless, if individuals do not sense the possible power and impact of their voting actions, which motivates and impels them, they would not be able to organize these collective movements to enter the marketplace. The potency of consumption as voting is best achieved when it is practiced collectively (Shaw & Black, 2010); but disagreement over which problem to address, product to purchase or decision to make, or whether this philosophy should be considered at all, can split the effort and send weak or conflicting signals to the market. The signal may also be enfeebled by a lack of sustained exertion as consumers become aware of new issues, fatigued with the problem, dissatisfied as to progress of their efforts or seek variety from their established shopping habits.

The effectiveness with which collective action is organized can also influence the result of this approach, where signals become weakened because created leading groups-organizers disband or run out of resources after a lapse time. In addition to the review of consumption as voting there is the probability that in some circumstances the most popular or best organized movements may not be the most advantageous ones. Moreover, it cannot be assumed that boycott is necessarily a source for the common good; it may instead reflect forced self-interests of powerful groups.

## 2.6. Characteristics of political consumerism

Going to the deeper analysis of the political consumerism, let us penetrate more deeply to its characteristics. Scholars argue that for the consumerism to be political there have to be fulfilled three conditions (Stolle et al., 2005):

- Behaviour: to be considered as a political consumer a citizen must actually make consumer decisions, buy or boycott certain products on the market;
- Awareness and motivation: behind the purchases there have to be political or ethical incentives. The differentiation of consumer motivation plays a very important role, because to buy, for example, a fair-trade coffee only because it tastes good does not imply a person to be a political consumer;
- Frequency and habit: to provoke any political consumerism movement one occurrence of performing like its participant is not enough; each individual has to execute repeated buy- or boycotting actions.

Furthermore, researchers distinguish two different theories, which determine political consumerism pertinent to people's behaviour. The first concept is related to situation when citizens cannot express their opinion through traditional channels of participation, and their actions are seen as mobilizing new social groups into politic arena. This theory is called "*mobilization theory*" (Togeby, 1993). Another view, which has a name "*supplement theory*" (Togeby, 1993), implies that political consumers are people actively involved also in traditional forms of political participation. Hence, most scientists refer political consumerism to mobilization theory (Micheletti, 2003), and introduce this phenomenon as non-habitual political participation, arguing that its further development can give more influence to citizens and restore the democracy.

Political consumerism is subdivided into five main types (Micheletti, Stolle & Berlin, 2012) presented in the Table 2.

Table 2. The main components of political consumerism.

Type	Characteristic
<b>Boycotting</b>	<b>Negative action, rejection to buy something.</b>
Buycotting	Positive buying, supporting certain brand or product.
Discursive action	The expression of opinions about corporate policy and practice and even consumer culture in a variety of communicative efforts and venues.
Lifestyle choice	Individual's decision to use her private life sphere to take responsibility for the allocation of common values and resources.
Anti-consumerism (Sustainable consumerism)	Refusal to buy unsustainable products.

Source: Own research based on the literature review.

People involved in any type of activities presented in Table 2 are considered as ethical consumers. They do not support companies producing products or services which could do any harm for other people, animals or environment, and vice versa who encourage “green brands”. Thus, political consumers are supposed to be people who use their buying power to attempt to change objectionable institutional or market practices regarding issues of sustainability, justice, fairness, and non-economic issues that concern citizen well-being (Micheletti, 2003). Nowadays this kind of consumption is very important for marketers, because scholars associate it with such relevant spheres as fair trade, organic standards, animal welfare, labour issues, climate change, human rights, health and safety matters, and local products (Tallontire et al., 2001; Carrigan et al., 2004).

Survey measures for political consumerism may underrate significance of its phenomenon in the market, since two of its types – discursive and lifestyle

choice – are usually discarded from investigations (Micheletti, Stolle & Berlin, 2012). *Discursive action* is one of the neoteric ingredients of political consumerism, which has not gained academic attention yet. Its main idea is to express opinion about company's policy and behaviour without involving monetary units. Discursive political consumerism is a way people communicate their values concerning consumption and production personally or directed at public at large. This form of political consumerism may be presented separately or in a combination of local, regional, national or global level. *Lifestyle political consumerism* appears when ordinary everyday decisions acquire political sense. Citizens who practice political consumerism as a lifestyle choice adjust purchasing decisions with their political values. This form of political consumerism combines both private and public spheres, what brings more complications to define significance, political inclination and development of this activism (Micheletti, Stolle & Berlin, 2012).

However, even if political consumerism is a new aspect for research, relevant literature provides several discussions and empirical research about three of its types - *boycotting* (e.g. Friedman, 1985; Smith, 2000; John & Klein, 2003; Hoffmann & Müller, 2010; García-Arrizabalaga, Gibaja-Martíns & Mujika-Alberdi, 2010; Albrecht, Campbell & Heinrich, 2013; Altintas et al., 2013), *buycotting* (e.g. Friedman, 1996; Micheletti, 2003; Neilson, 2010; Copeland, 2013) and *anti-consumerism* (e.g. Cherrier, 2009; Lee, Motion & Conroy, 2009; Hoffman, 2010). *Anti-consumerism* is based on the idea of sustainable citizenship, which is focused on three issues of sustainable development: economic growth, environmental protection and socio-political equity (Micheletti, Stolle & Berlin, 2012). Supporters of this movement fight for the balance of economic and environmental issues of sustainable development, and also try to counterpoise matters of social, cultural and political realms. Consumer activists who purchase and stimulate others to purchase products or

services in order to encourage companies which behaviour corresponds to ethical standards, are engaged in consumer *buycotts*. These citizens focus on the positive aspects of company's policy and support its products through deliberate purchase as a reward (Friedman, 1996). The most well-known examples of this movement are acquisition of fair-trade or organic products.

However, the ingredient of political consumerism which has gained more attention by scholars than the other ones is consumer *boycott*. This activity appears when consumers restrain to buy products or services of a certain company due to moral or ethical considerations (Micheletti, 2003). This leading subsection of political consumerism is the main issue of the present thesis, and deserves detailed consideration in the next chapters.

## **2.7. Summary of the chapter**

The second chapter introduced basic concepts of the main issue of our research, namely Political Consumerism. We explained the metaphor of consumption and political voting, as well as the metaphor of consumption and integration. We found that since 1990 scholars were giving definitions to the concept of political consumerism. The commonly accepted definition was suggested by Stolle et al. (2005) which considers political consumerism as choices of products and producers, which consumers make on the base of ethical or political considerations, or both. Since the question about collective or individual nature of political consumerism is an issue of debates in academic world, this chapter also covered this issue, providing the insights to both assumptions. Furthermore, we introduced five main components of political consumerism with their characteristics, emphasizing boycotting as the most relevant issue under consideration.

### **3 CONSUMER BOYCOTT**

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- 3.1. Introduction to the concept
- 3.2. History of boycott action
- 3.3. Definitions of boycott
- 3.4. Importance of consumer boycotts for companies
- 3.5. Criteria affecting boycotting behaviour
- 3.6. Consumer motivation
- 3.7. Drivers of consumer boycotting behaviour
- 3.8. Social media as a powerful tool of boycott
- 3.9. Summary of the chapter

### 3.1. Introduction to the concept

Most of academic literature presents political consumerism as innovative branch of political participation, alternative to traditional ways of engagement (Copeland, 2013). That is why political consumerism is seen as a tool with which it is easier to discover political participation trends. Understanding the nature of its phenomenon in undergoing conditions of changing values is one of the central problems in studies of consumer political behaviour. Political consumerism is more common practice than many people can think. A lot of consumers regularly refuse to buy products of certain companies due to ethical considerations, what reflects the concept of boycott. Boycotters' behaviour is framed with a variety of various characteristics, which determine their intention to restrain from purchase. That is why boycotting serves as an effective tool of measuring political consumerism through the set of different predictors.

Iris Young (2003) states that *boycott* is one of the most relevant aspects that should be under consideration, specifically emphasizing such activity, as anti-sweatshop campaigns. Researcher asserts that this phenomenon is important to study because it has developed a non-individualised, political sense of responsibility that springs from a completely individualistic understanding of causality, agency and blame. The success of boycott movements depends on the activists being able to ensure frames in which consumers can concede responsibility for distant contexts without being submerged. Young (2003) also argues that there are heaps of various reasons which can compel consumers to change their buying behaviour.

As flows from the previous investigations, boycotts are referred to individualistic behaviour, and people involved into this kind of activism are motivated by personal arguments, so that boycott appears as a driver for moral self-realization (Kozinets & Handelman, 1998). All consumer behaviour is likely to

be adapted to different values of caring about other people and lookout of honesty. Thus, the success of ethical campaigns might be increased if it is directly connected to these values, which are already presented in everyday purchasing (Barnett et al., 2005). In such a way, to understand what drives people to engage into political consumerism seems indispensable to investigate one of the most significant activities – consumer boycott.

All over the world consumers principally believe that they play a great role in addressing ethical matters through their buying decisions. In 2013 the vast majority of respondents said they felt themselves responsible while shopping (Cone Communications/Echo, 2013) oppositely to 13% of those who responded they did not perceive any individual impact. According to the surveys, most of citizens would like to apply ethical policy while making their purchases, but such efforts as lack of time and money come at the first plan. 90% of respondents said they would be likely involved into boycott action if they saw any societal or environmental benefit behind purchased goods, and more than 55% have already rejected to buy certain products during the last year. These numbers only confirm people's involvement, or at least growing intention to be involved into boycotting activities.

### **3.2. History of boycott action**

The history of boycott actions is long and extensive. The word “boycott” has an origin from Captain Charles Cunningham Boycott (1832-97), Irish land agent, who was a victim of such practices for refusing to reduce rents. However, literature suggests that the first known boycott actions are dating not later than 14<sup>th</sup> century (Smith, 1990). Today’s boycotts are compared to the ones which already existed much earlier, and are known all over the world for a long time. The earliest studied examples were the Stamp Act of 1765 in USA (Friedman, 1999), when many Americans refused to buy tea and other British goods; the late 1960-s boycott of Dow Chemical’s Saran Wrap because of Dow’s manufacture of napalm did not end the Vietnam War, but Dow interrupted napalm production (after professedly having submitted a deliberately uncompetitive tender), when the boycott damaged the firm’s reputation for years (Vogel, 1978); California grape boycott enabled the formation of a union for American farm workers and forced substantial concessions from the growers (Brown, 1972). Another instance was the boycott in England of sugar produced by slaves. In 1791, after the Parliament refused to repeal slavery, thousands of brochures were printed appealing to start the boycott. As a consequence sales of sugar dwindled significantly. Contrarily to that, sales of Indian sugar, which had no impure reputation of being produced by slaves, increased tenfold in two years. In an early example of fair trade, shops began selling sugar guaranteed to be have been produced by “free men”.

More controversial have been the BDS campaigns directed against Israeli companies such as Max Brenner Chocolate. In the late eighteenth century and again in the early nineteenth century very successful boycotts of slave-grown sugar were organised in the United Kingdom. In the 1820s British Quaker Elizabeth Heyrick inspired women to distribute leaflets door-to-door spurring household-

ers not to buy West Indian (“blood-stained”) sugar. Since 1977 the largest food corporation Nestle has been boycotted for producing baby nutrition, considered dangerous, and this is the world’s longest continuous boycott. At the same time, Nike has been accused for the sweatshop policy, hiring child labour, failing to pay liveable salary, forcing factory employees to work illegal overtime hours, inflicting corporal punishment, while promoting healthy lifestyle and fitness. More examples: the boycott of absentee landlords in Ireland in the 1800s named after Captain Charles Boycott; an American boycott of British goods in 1700s (O’Dowd, 2010); recent British Petroleum boycott; Procter & Gamble boycott; and so on. When you address to the Internet, more various appeals to boycott appear there with a high frequency: against Microsoft because of monopoly power, Amazon.com because of attempts to patent “one-click shopping” and tax avoidance, Disney for promotion of homosexuality, Adidas for using kangaroo skin in its products, KFC for cruel treatment of animals, Kellogg’s for using sugar from genetically engineered sugar beets in its products, Liebherr Fridges for its involvement in Canadian oil sands, British Heart Foundation for conducting animal testing, Burberry, Escada and Harrods for using of fur, Cadbury for tax avoidance, China for employing unethical human labour and many more.

As we can see, the scope of boycott matters is limitless, embracing mostly every worldwide famous company. Starting to appear long time ago boycott movements reached the present day headily picking up its speed of development and drawing in more and more target brands on the global scale.

### 3.3. Definitions of consumer boycott

Given to its extensive history and prevalence, boycott is a phenomenon which has been studied by scholars from different perspectives. Various investigations appear from the fields of economics, history, sociology and psychology (Friedman, 1996; Sen et al., 2001; Klein et al., 2004). However, related to the concept of political consumerism, there are also studies found in the spheres of political science and marketing (Klein et al., 2004). Boycott like a strong action is seen as a unique, singular phenomenon by its nature, though it demands a lot of group effort, whether the participants of this protest are motivated collectively or individually. Though boycott is an object of wide discussions, it has not its singular definition, and is designated in different sources differently (see Table 3). However, the core sense of the concept is unique, and most of researchers agree to use the one suggested by Friedman in 1985: “... an attempt by one or more parties to achieve certain objectives by urging individual consumers to refrain from making selected purchases in the marketplace”.

Table 3. Definitions of boycott.

Author	Definition
Parnell, C.S. (cited in Merriam-Webster Encyclopaedia) (1880)	Collective and organized ostracism applied in labour, economic, political, or social relations to protest and punish practices considered unfair.
Laidlier, H.W. (cited in Smith, N.C., 2000) (1968)	An organized effort to withdraw and induce others to withdraw from social or business relations with another.
<b>Friedman, M. (1985)</b>	<b>An attempt by one or more parties to achieve certain objectives by urging individual consumers to refrain from making selected purchases in a marketplace.</b>
Garret, D.E. (cited in Smith, N.C., 2000) (1987)	The concerted but non-mandatory refusal by a group of actors (the agents) to conduct marketing transactions with one or more other actors (the targets) for the purpose of communicated displeasure with certain target policies and attempting to coerce the target to

	modify these policies.
Smith, N.C. (1990)	Organized exercising of consumer sovereignty by abstaining from purchase in order to exert influence.
Koku P.S., Akhibe, A., Springer, T.M. (1997)	A refusal to engage in transactions with the boycott target.
Murtagh, C., Lukehart, C. (1998)	A tool for holding corporations accountable for actions against workers, consumers, communities, minorities, animals or the environment.
Sen, S., Gürhan-Canli, Z., Morwitz, V. (2001)	A pervasive and potent instrument of consumer discontent in marketplace.
Klein, J.G., Smith, N.C., John, A. (2002)	A response to a company action viewed as a strikingly wrong and perceived as having negative and possibly harmful consequences for one or more parties.
John, A., Klein, J. (2003)	A tactic to influence the behaviour of a firm (or other institution) by withholding purchase of their products.
John, A., Klein, J. (2003)	A case when a number of people abstain from purchase of a product as a result of the same egregious act or behaviour, but not necessarily for the same reasons.
Smith, N.C. (2007)	Refuse to purchase, often in the form of consumer punishment for perceived corporate responsibility failings.
Micheletti, M. (2008)	A fashionable way to influence politics, which is called to protest the social justice situation of others.
Strømsnes, K. (2008)	The negative version of political consumerism, where consumers refrain from buying certain brands or products as a protest against the politics of a company or a country.
Lee, M.S.W., Motion, J., Conroy, D. (2009)	Consumers' abstinence from purchasing certain items owing to some form of ideological discontent with an organization or country.
Howard, P.H., Allen, P. (2010)	Collective action to withhold purchases until a specific demand is met.
Neilson, L.A. (2010)	Punishing business for unfavourable behaviour.
Albrecht, C.-M., Campbell, C., Heinrich, D. (2013)	An organized public act of resisting various objects, like a product or a company.

Source: Own research based on the literature review.

The definition of *boycott* goes far to the end of the 18<sup>th</sup> century, having its roots from the ostracism of Athenian democracy (Parnell, 1880). Most of the researchers emphasize consumers longing for punishing “guilty” company by its implication (Parnell, 1880; Murtagh et al., 1998; John & Klein, 2003; Smith, 2007; Neilson, 2010). However, predominantly since the 21st century many of scholars also started to consider a country-level consumer discontent, such as organizational and political aspects (John & Klein, 2003; Micheletti, 2008; Strømsnes, 2008; Lee et al., 2009). The nature of the boycott action is underlined as collective, or organized (Parnell, 1880; Smith, 1990; Howard & Allen, 2010), which accentuates the necessity and requirement for initial boycott call by its leaders.

In 1990s researchers came to conclusion that boycotts actually work, citizens realize it and it impels further promotion of these consumers’ protests. In recent years boycotting has become an increasingly prominent feature of social life as new forms of technology have allowed consumers to use their choices in the marketplace to address various environmental, labour, and trade concerns. Recently an increasing number of consumers translated their political and ethical values to the supermarket, particularly those values that are related to the environment, health and treatment of animals, and defend them through boycott actions. Though such protest is a very important phenomenon possessing great power, some scholars call an increase of boycotts as simple as “a daily routine of democracy” (Koku, 2012).

The most frequently reported reason of boycotts increment is shifting business environment. With a time, companies grow larger, embracing wider concepts, involving more employees, becoming more competitive, ipso facto enfeebling the sense of personality and tight connection with external environment, becoming less sympathetic. This provokes a feeling of slight in some consumers, so

as a response they organise movements of protest in the marketplace with a strong desire to be heard, pushing producers to act virtuously, sometimes even going so far as acting aggressively. Moreover, development of information technologies promotes consumers' familiarity with firms' policies, and also drives as high-speed effective mean of communications.

However, not all consumer protests are boycotts. There is also another activity of political consumerism, which should be distinguished from boycott, though it is closely related to this concept. It is called *buycott*, the concept which has in fact quite the contrary meaning: an action which encourages support of certain products or brands. The action of boycott is closely intertwined together with buycott, and as noted by Shaw et al. (2006: 1063), "while the purchase of organic food may indeed create a new market... it also represents a gradual move away from pesticide use through intensive monocrop agriculture". Scholars assume that supporting some certain product due to personal or environmental reasons through buying it in the marketplace is at the same time refusing to buy another one, which is already implied to be a boycott action. In this way, political consumerism is considered as a citizens' response from within the prevalent market supremacy, what has strong potential to convert markets into more improved, sustainable and unbiased direction.

### **3.4. Importance of consumer boycotts for companies**

As it has already been said, consumer boycott purports a protest adopted by consumers of both product and services to express their displeasure with the seller, manufacturer, or provider. Generally, when managers think about consumer protests, they mainly consider only company-specific boycotts, initiated by a corporate policy or action, for example, application of sweatshop labour in developing countries. Usually, this type of boycotts are short-lived. But sometimes, customers may refuse to purchase any particular product in order to show their dissatisfaction to the excessive price or offensive action of a particular manufacturer or producer. It primarily focuses on the long-term change in the buying habits by bringing reform in commodity markets, or by inducing government commitment to moral purchasing.

Pursuant to the new, fresh view on this action, boycott can be sprung from geopolitical, religious or historical reasons, when the company is alienated from the radix of people's collective negative reaction. Societal boycotts are considered as causing greater long-term harm. Hostility and its effects on sales may endure due to the limitations of the ways addressing protest and also because these influences often take their roots from the very steady beliefs and values. Researchers assume that societal boycotts affect every company, and even those firms which are slightly associated with the country, can suffer from the harm produced by boycotts (Klein et al., 2004). Take as example the publications of Prophet Muhammad caricature in Danish newspaper Jyllands-Posten in September 2005, which caused the boycott of Danish goods. The main victim of this protest was Swedish-Danish Arla Foods Company, the largest Scandinavian dairy producer, which has its main office located in Denmark. However, the world's leading food and beverage producer Nestle, which is inaccurately associated as being Danish, has been significantly affected by this boycott also, being com-

pelled to issue a special commercial in Saudi Arabia emphasizing that popular there dairy brands Nido and Klim were not produced in Denmark. Swiss Group, focusing on the watch industry, also reported decrease of their sales, and motivated by Nestle, followed its example, providing the veracious information about the place where their goods were produced.

One of the characteristics of societal boycotts is that they are different in nature and demand divergent approach. Conventional practices and methods as modification of prices have scanty effect when citizens' antagonism is rising (Klein et al., 2004). Researchers suggest several ways which companies can apply to reduce negative effects of societal boycotts. The easiest and the most elementary one is to keep merely back the origin of the product, simply removing this information from the pack. Cognate method is to substitute the indication of the place where this product was manufactured for the universal one. For instance, some Danish producers replaced the labels "Made in Denmark" by "Made in the European Union" not to draw specific attention to particular localization. One more solution is to form joint ventures with local companies thereby enhancing relation with one geographic area while the connections with another region are getting abated.

Alternative tactic for businesses is to alienate themselves from the matter of incident plainly and in public. Furthermore, there is also a long-term solution, which consists in addressing the source of hostility directly, but nevertheless carefully. These measures were applied by aforementioned Arla Foods, when the company reprinted explanations of Danish government concerning inheritance of respect for Islam and freedom of expression as a part of Danish society in one of the commercials for the Middle East. Yet Arla Foods managers claimed that they did not expect abrupt consumer behaviour change towards to amiabil-

ity and instantaneous dramatic increase of sales. It was rather a strategy to alleviate the effects of boycott of Arla's brands.

### 3.5. Criteria affecting boycotting behaviour

One of the gurus in the area of research on consumer boycotts, Monroe Friedman (1996, 1999), analysed boycotts through the prism of social protests. His studies on this concept are based on the view from the perspective of leaders of the protests, and the scholar considered “surrogate groups”, such as housewives who were against increasing prices, as external element in the market. While investigating initiation of a boycott, scholar states it is necessary to reveal consumers’ motivation, to understand what propels them towards protest organization. Most of researchers come to conclusion that instead of a desire to revenge certain brand customers are motivated by more altruistic, self-serving goal, which they call “saving others from the same doom” (Koku, 2012: 21). Based on these assumptions, investigators created a conceptual framework with criteria of the effectiveness of a boycott action and determined which factors affect its fate.

The probability of any boycott to be successful is a very complex issue. In 1987 Garrett defined six key aspects to be considered before organizing a boycott:

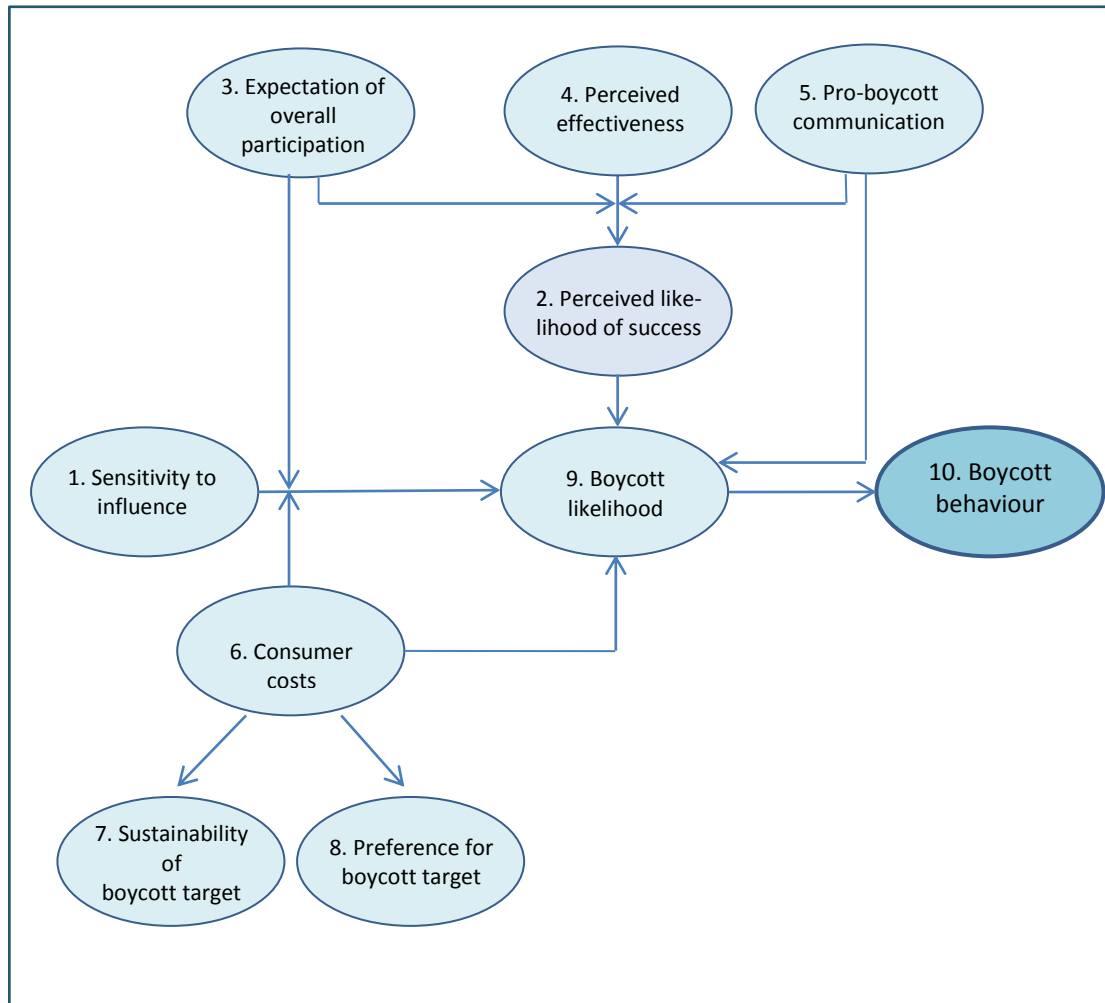
- consumers’ awareness;
- the values of boycott participants;
- correspondence of boycott target;
- attitude of participants;
- costs of participation social pressure;
- persuasiveness of the boycott leadership.

According to his studies, the key identifications of boycott’s success are economic pressure, corporate image pressure and policy commitment. Later Friedman (1999) suggested that before initiating any boycott its organizers have to investigate three significant aspects:

- whether consumers are actually interested in boycott issues, targets and objectives;
- whether boycott success can be achieved;
- whether the success of boycott leads to the desirable consequences established by its objectives.

It is admitted by modern scholars, that one of the necessary conditions for organizing a boycott is a requirement to enlist the support of groups of people who are attracted and actively participate in the protest. For this purpose, initial story, which is supposed to cause a boycott, has to be plausible and credible. However, only desire to take part in a boycott action is not enough for individual to get involved, because it requires some costs. Most consumers are likely to be unwilling to participate because expenses each boycotter has to undergo present a high probability to outbalance the vague utility value and positive changes acquired through boycott action. Facing this topic researchers found that these consumer expenditures depend on the access to get products-substitutes and their preference on boycotted goods (Sen et al., 2001). Furthermore, engaged group of boycott supporters besides being significant in its number, has to support continuously anti-consumption of targeted goods for producing the effect of perceptible economic loss. Additionally, the probability to be engaged in boycott for those consumers who are amenable to the influence of others, in this case – the reference group of boycotters-activists, increases dramatically, and this presents a kind of “chain reaction” or “gregarious feeling” in the boycott development. Such consumers find their motivation to participate in boycott not only to achieve its goals, but also to meet the purposes of the whole boycotting group in an effort to obtain group membership or approval. Based on this, researchers created a conceptual framework according to which any particular person makes a decision whether to participate in boycott action or not (see Fig. 1).

Figure 1. Conceptual framework for the individual boycott decision.



Source: Adapted from Sen, Gürhan-Canli & Morwitz (2001).

Seen on its layout, first parameter indicating the *probability to be involved into boycott action* is the level of individual's *sensitivity to normative influence* (see box 1 on the Fig. 1), which indicates how much person is affected by the pressure of already formed group of boycotters. According to the relevant literature consumers' expectations about the success of boycott are seen as a driving input into their opinion of the prognosticated utility of participation. This evidence suggests that besides intrinsic to each individual level of being submitted to external influence, decision about taking part in boycott action also depends on specific factors, framed by *perceived success of this participation* (see box 2)

(*expectation of overall participation* (see box 3), *perceived effectiveness* (see box 4) and *pro-boycott communication* (see box 5) as well as *expenditures* (see box 6) (*product sustainability* (see box 7) and *product preference* (see box 8).

Generally, consumers always produce subjective prediction of boycott's result (probability of positive or negative outcome), influenced by the messages from protest organizers group (*pro-boycott communication* (see box 5). Moreover, peoples' decision to engage into boycott participation has a high influence by the shades of these messages, which assumes that the probability of consumer's support of a boycott increases greatly in the case boycott organizers provide them with information about positive outcomes of successful protest, than about undesirable consequences of a protest collapse. Lindenmeier, Schleer, and Pricl (2012) argue that pro-boycott communication helps to accelerate group action and may play a great role in the successful outcome of a boycott.

Relevant literature asserts people concur more readily and actively when they perceive a high likelihood of successful social problem solving through this cooperation. Furthermore, the reference group sway to correspond to social standards implied in overall joint behaviour also promotes increase of this cooperation. For this reason, Sen et al. (2001) suggest that more predisposed to be influenced by social standards consumers have a more developed boycotting behaviour in direct proportion to the level of their *expectation of overall participation* (see box 3).

Within overall participation in cooperation people estimate individual contribution to the probable success. When consumers perceive low endowment of each person's engagement into outcome of cooperation's target, they consider general tendency of group participation, assuming that a clot of people with the same mood and intentions might achieve desired result through abundant efforts. Nevertheless, if consumers expect a great contribution by each individual

to the organized boycott cooperation, they are becoming less concerned about overall participation, but their likelihood to be involved into boycott action increases greatly.

Abovementioned concepts all together form an entrance to the main question driving consumers whether to participate in boycott action or not: will this boycott end up with the achieved target? In other words, the mainframe issue which affects consumer decision to get involved into protest action is *estimation of boycott's success* (see box 2). Going further, investigators suggest that one of the consumers' dominant characteristic is to focus on aspects which corroborate favourable outcome of the boycott, avoiding concentration on likelihood of availing result. However, if the possible success is framed by pro-boycott communication, this could be adequate incentive for engagement, omitting issues of overall participation and perceived effectiveness. Recapitulating, *pro-boycott communication* (see box 5) seems to be the most relevant input into consumers' decision whether to participate in a boycott action.

However, consumer behaviour of each individual is framed fundamentally on the key aspect: *costs* (see box 6). From the boycott perspective, consumer's decision to participate in the protest focuses on two factors: *product sustainability* (see box 7) and *preference for the target product* (see box 8). This means that if a person has a high preference of any product, the probability for him or her to engage into protest decreases due to psychological reasons: it would be more difficult for him/her to refuse purchasing this certain item. However, in the presence of substitutes of a target product on the marketplace consumers can reduce their costs stopping to buy boycott target and shifting to consumption of its substitute. Moreover, two mentioned factors have a strong correlation with *expectations of overall participation* (see box 3), supported by the assumption that when consumers' cost of boycott cooperation is low, what means they do

not prefer target product or there is no privation of substitutes, they do not consider overall participation significantly, what finally creates and shapes their *boycotting behaviour* (see box 10).

Effectiveness of a boycott can be measured through the extent to which boycott gets image pressure (when a target company gets objectionable reputation in public), economic pressure (when a target company suffers financial loss), and policy commitment (when a target company admits its fault and reacts through the means of changing firms' policy) (Koku, 2012). Similar to the protest which causes economic pressure, Friedman (1996) distinguishes a type of boycott as "marketplace-oriented" that pursues the same objective – to evoke financial difficulties. However, it is not the only objective of the boycotters. In many cases the final goal which activists of the protest are trying to achieve, is to create an undesirable image of the target company, so it modifies its policy.

Koku et al. (1997) assumed that it is difficult to estimate financial injury caused by consumers' boycott actions, it is not that obvious as, for example, boycott by employees in a form of strike in the enterprise, when final financial damage can easily be calculated. Shoppers' protests are considered to pursue moral goals and beliefs, and researchers suggest it could be easier to measure financial damage produced by their protests in the market in the case boycotters attracted more followers. In this situation joint effect of collateral efforts both boycotters and their supporters might be expressed in a significant fiscal loss for the target of protest.

### 3.6. Consumer motivation

Some researchers call boycotts “an intriguing form of consumer behaviour” (Klein et al., 2004: 1), which is not cordially adopted by managers but creates a significant part in today’s marketing structure. However, consumers’ motivation plays a key function in the political consumerism exploration, as far as the reason certain product is purchased or boycotted is a determinative factor. This motivation has to explain further and justify the background of consumers’ behaviour.

Due to the recent explosion of consumers’ interest in social responsibility issues companies’ and brands’ reputations are becoming more susceptible to external influences, which underscore the important role of consumer boycott cognition in marketing strategy-making. Most of shoppers respond that they would be ready and have a desire to be involved into political consumerism, such as boycotting, donating, volunteering, spreading information among friends and relatives, if they had a chance. However, when it comes to practice, a visible significant gap between consumers’ words and actions appears, what shows lost, missing, unused opportunities for companies to engage more ethically-oriented consumers. In order to understand the essence of consumer protests it is necessary to provide the insight to the drivers of their boycotting behaviour, starting with their motivation. Although the concept of consumer boycotts is under increasing consideration now, researchers assert that the factors which stimulate individuals to boycott still remain largely undiscovered (Hoffmann & Müller, 2009). Apart from frequency, such factors as behaviour and motivation form three main components of political consumerism (Stolle et al., 2005).

Moreover, Sen et al. (2001) tried to specify these findings and to identify how socially responsible firms’ practices affect individuals. It was revealed that con-

sumer responses to CSR depend significantly on the individual perception of social responsibility:

- the level of awareness;
- personal attitude to these practices;
- beliefs and general trust in the existence and the effectiveness of the CSR concept.

Furthermore, not less important key driver of consumer response is company-specific factors, including quality of the products and CSR issues emphasized by particular company. People's perception of their own character and qualities of the company generally forms their attitude to ethical purchase or rejection, and it seems that this consumer behaviour is even more complex within boycott participation.

Consumer boycott is seen as a response to a company behaviour considered as totally improper, entailing negative or injurious aftereffects for one or more parties, that could be consumers, employees, animals, society, environment, but not necessarily the boycotter himself. Perception of company's harmful actions are based on the moral evaluation, and people who share the same negative emotions about firm's policy form a boycott organizers group essential for boycott initiation. It seems that the degree of company's discourteous actions obviousness directly increases likelihood that consumers will positively respond to boycott organizers group call. However, as was suggested by Klein et al. (2004) people are not definitely going to be involved into boycott action even if they clearly consider company being guilty. This interdependence is shaped by the following factors: willingness and desire to stimulate alterations, self-enhancement, rationalization for not boycotting, and costs of participation.

As far as boycott is viewed as a kind of collective action, it is a subject of small-agent and free-rider problems that shape and limit the stimulus to engage. Individual consumer is a very tiny part in the market perspective, and his or her buying decisions have a trifling effect on producers. However, individuals will get the benefit of a successful boycott anyway, whether they participate or not, there is an increasing probability and incentive for free riding upon the boycott activity of others. This fact is seemed to be a reason of declined participation, nevertheless boycotts still happen and, moreover, spread all over the world with a growing power. Thus, consumers have to possess a strong motivation which drives the organisation of these protests.

We have already mentioned that researchers drew a parallel between shoppers' decisions and political poll, referring consumption as a metaphor of voting (Shaw et al., 2006) (see Chapter 2.2). In the voting perspective motivational concept is also not very clear yet; scholars question why an individual goes voting knowing that this single ballot will not bring significant difference to the overall outcome. However, in the case of political polls it is an occasional act, and it is verisimilar that the incentive which drives people is a civic duty or a sense of altruism, so they see it as a standard procedure where everyone has to participate every couple of years. On the contrary, boycotts are typically ongoing, and require individuals to refuse from purchasing and consumption of a preferred product repeatedly. This way researchers' interest in drivers of boycotters' motivation takes a significant part in overall investigations on this concept.

Andrew John and Jill Klein (2003) conducted a specific study regarding boycotters' motivation, and as its outcome researchers suggested a selection of explanation of consumers' incentives to boycott: a psychological aspect based on excessive estimation of the effectiveness of their actions; individual traits such as

sense of fault, self-esteem and the avoidance of discords; another personal motivation as seeking of a “thrill of victory”; influence on the individual’s behaviour by a “false consensus bias”. However, these motivations do not act as single independent factors; many consumers imply more than one of these reasons to get engaged into boycott action. The factor which unites consumers’ motivation is that individuals are greatly influenced by other participants, however, the concept of free riding also takes significant part – more active participation of others impedes contribution into boycott action of individuals. At the same time, researchers found discrepant results – consumers are significantly affected by social pressure, what implies that greater participation of others will encourage participation of individuals (John & Klein, 2003). Based on these results, decision to engage into consumers’ boycott is estimated as the perception of others’ behaviour – individuals go to boycott if they suppose others will do the same, and do not boycott in the case they think no one will support this action.

A lot of researchers also studied the effects produced on consumers’ behaviour in response to the corporate policy in the company, specifically unsafe working conditions (Klein et al., 2004). Furthermore, these studies found corroborations which resulted in organizational buying, where environmental affair acts as a significant noneconomic driver of purchase. Those consumers, who knew something about unethical company behaviour, were likely to project their negative perceptions on the product of this certain company, and this considerably affected overall evaluation of produced output, shaping consumers’ rejection to purchase and finally resulting in decrease of sales. And conversely, commendable firm’s policy made shoppers to consider its goods as adequate in general which promoted increase of marketing.

### 3.7. Drivers of consumer boycotting behaviour

Being a subject of increased interest, recently boycotters' motivation has been studied from the various perspectives, and several drivers of consumers' protest behaviour were defined:

- desire of bringing changes;
- self-enhancement;
- rationalization;
- expenses.

First, people are motivated by the *desire of bringing some change*, of being a part of an action which converts company's behaviour through sending boycott signals to the market. However, before taking part in any boycott most of people first estimate and evaluate its targets and possible outcomes, and in the case of being unsatisfied with the final appraisal they simply do not support boycott movement. Moreover, many consumers still prefer the quality of product, which they are not likely to give up to boycott. These concerns raise some doubts about the relevance of considering individual participation in a boycott action. Nevertheless, even if some consumers are disinclined to be engaged into consumers' protests under certain conditions, there exists general willingness to protest (Smith, 1990), intrinsic to almost any group of consumers.

Second driver of boycott motivation is referred to psychological aspect, suggesting that people participate in consumers' protests in order to feel good about themselves, to sense doing something right and helping others, the factor which scholars consider as *self-enhancement*. Boycott activists usually promote culpability of the target company, trying to inform in details as many people as possible about unethical company's practices. Protest organization groups act aggressively in the market, appealing to support their movement with such slo-

gans as “babykiller” (in the case of Nestle boycott), “slavery, if the shoe fits” (Nike boycott), “stop the slaughter” (boycott of Israeli goods), “animal killers” (Procter & Gamble boycott). When an ordinary consumer sees or hears these banners or appeals, it provokes feeling of guilty of being solidary and supporting the targeted company through continuous purchases. Thus, the pressure from the activists arouses a sense of duty to help others or to protect environment almost in every individual, and as a response these consumers start to act as followers of boycotters, keeping away from the boycotted products. Moreover, boycotting also enhances a feeling of self-esteem, what is recognized as a basic motive inherent to human’s behaviour (Kozinets & Handelman, 1998).

The next set of variables is *rationalization*. As far as boycott requires strong support from the mass to be effective and successful, a group of boycott organizers tries to engage more supporters who will act to achieve collective interests. However, as it has already been described earlier, each person before joining this cooperation estimates participation of every individual within this protest group. There are those who believe that only if each single individual contributes to the cooperation, the success of boycott is considered righteous. Also, there is another type of people, who do not act according altruistic incentives, and tend to suppose free riding as an acceptable form of participation. Thus, researchers suspect that rationalizations concerning boycotting moderate the relationship between egregiousness and boycott decisions (Klein et al., 2004).

And again, the factor which plays significant role in all consumers’ decisions, not only regarding boycott, is *expenses*. Participation in consumer’s protest implies refuse from purchasing certain products, and it might happen that some shoppers are accustomed to those particular items. Sometimes, there are many substitutes on the marketplace, but there are also situations when the choice of new preferences is very scanty. Thus, consumers have to revise their shopping

habits and estimate the amount of costs they have to pay extra. As follows, this factor shapes their motivation for boycott participation to a great extent.

Marketers who understand what motivates their consumers have a great advantage to turn their businesses in a right course, thus organising company's policy in a way that reconciling consumer demands, maintaining good reputation and nevertheless maximizing profit.

### **3.8. Social media as a powerful tool of boycott**

Apart from boycott itself, recently scholars started to investigate possible threats of boycotts, warning companies not to underestimate this phenomenon. It is claimed that threats of boycotts should not be excluded from consideration, as the effects of actual boycotts do not differ dramatically from the ones produced by the boycott menace. According to relevant studies, generally boycotts and threats of boycotts do not prejudice financially on target companies (Koku et al., 1997). Moreover, quite controversial curious results show that many firms even maximize their fiscal profit while being a butt of boycott or its menace. This is explained by increasing working intensity, abrupt accumulation of company's efforts to whittle down consequences and effects of boycott or its threat. Nevertheless, these general findings cannot be applied to every case of boycott or its menace, because each protest action causes different level of public response and leads to different outcome.

It is obvious that not all the boycotts are successful after their completion. To a great extent the result of any boycott depends on its organizational system, particularly – the channel of its propagation, the way through which information about the movement is spread. Companies must recognize social media as a very powerful tool with equal ability to bring benefits or damages. Such news media as newspapers, radio, and television have transformed the face of social responsibility now and helped to promote boycotts in very prompt terms due to its wide public use and access via websites, blogs, apps, etc. In 2013 it was published that 62% of global consumers use these social media to engage with companies around social and environmental matters (Cone Communications/Echo, 2013).

However, scholars acknowledge that nowadays, in the era of high technologies, Internet plays the leading role in boycott organization, because it affords indi-

viduals to get information quick and in the most cases for free, and it helps to form organized groups of people in short terms, becoming “the sacred double-edged sword” (Koku, 2012: 20). It is widely recognized that citizens everywhere use these media channels to get more knowledge about the issues, share positive and negative information and influence their personal networks. Studies on “net-boycotters” also show that participants are engaged in protests not to cause any economic loss to the targeted company, but rather following their personal emotions, explaining that involvement to the boycott brings the feeling of moral self-realization.

Despite the availability of much information nowadays about consumer behaviour, the aspect of resisting, withholding consumption is understood less than other branches. However, it forms a great influence on the marketplace, and cognition of forces and impacts which drive consumers’ decisions is seemed imperceptible for managers to build successful strategies to operate their companies so they stay persistent and prosperous in today’s changing conditions.

### **3.9. Summary of the chapter**

This chapter is devoted to the main component of political consumerism, which we are going to analyse in our investigation, namely consumer boycott. We provided some history and examples of boycott actions, which revealed that boycott is not a new concept, and the first known boycotts are dating 14th century. The term boycott received different definitions by different authors. However, the commonly adopted definition was suggested by Friedman in 1985 and sounds as "... an attempt by one or more parties to achieve certain objectives by urging individual consumers to refrain from making selected purchases in a marketplace" (Friedman, 1985: 97). Since the significance of boycott exploration is acknowledged, we proceeded with explanation of its importance for companies. To extend relative knowledge about boycott actions we explained consumer motivation and criteria which affect boycotting behaviour. Conceptual framework for the individual boycotting decision and definition of four drivers of consumer boycotting behaviour are also included in this chapter. Furthermore, since social media plays a great part in boycott promotion we considered this aspect in the end of the third chapter.

**4 THE IMPORTANCE OF  
STUDYING POLITICAL CONSUMERISM**

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- 4.1. CSR and consumer boycotts
- 4.2. Perception of CSR by consumers
- 4.3. Ethical purchase behaviour
- 4.4. Interaction between consumers and companies
- 4.5. Summary of the chapter

#### **4.1. CSR and consumer boycotts**

The concept of political consumerism is an interesting phenomenon to investigate not only because of its increasing influence on the society. From the perspective of academic world it is seen as a defiance of standard perception of the boundaries.

An expression “business is usual” is no longer valid in today’s world. Traditional models and methods of operating, where business exists only for generating and maximizing its profit, have been changed significantly. Nowadays, profit still remains the most important goal in company formation, but the ways and strategies to achieve this goal have shifted to a broader coverage. Today’s marketers are expected to be active participants in solving world’s global and local social and environmental issues.

More and more managers comprehend the growing importance of CSR practices and intent to implement business decisions and strategies that meet the requirements of social responsibility. This is considered as a moral motivation. However, there are also other sources of pressure for CSR (Smith, 2000). It can come from investors, who act individually or through organizations. It can also spring up from public interest groups, and very often in the form of consumer boycotts, leading to various economic aftereffects for the targeted company. Therefore consumer boycotts become in the firm’s economic interest to consider aspects of its socially responsible conduct. Summarizing, consumer marketplace is a very important source of pressure for CSR, when arising consumer boycotts can significantly damage companies that practice unethical behaviour. Moreover, there may be also the other side of the coin – firms that “behaving good” often derive encouragement from consumers and investors for being socially responsible.

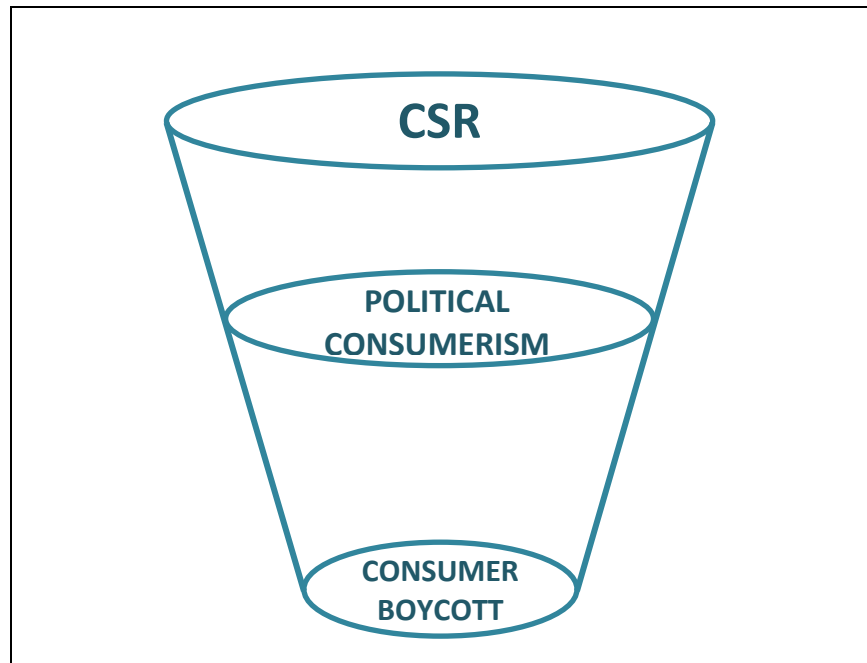
Early in 1987 Garrett noted that boycotting trend was blazingly increasing, and pointed out five reasons why it was important to study boycott actions:

- rapid growth of boycotting trends;
- more complex and refined character of the agents;
- lack of sufficient protection from boycotts for targets;
- disregard of boycott as an environmental force by marketers;
- double strength of challenge for marketers.

Looking thoroughly at all these reasons, we can conclude that the same issues have to be considered nowadays, but with an amendment that in today's competitive marketing world damage from boycott can bring even more significant loss to its target.

Consequently to the growing interest in the aspects of corporate social responsibility many scholars were encouraged to investigate the relationship between that and consumer conduct, trying to reveal whether CSR affects their purchasing decisions. This stream of research got a primary name of "socially responsible consumption" (also reported as "socially conscious consumption", "environmentally concerned/responsible consumption", and "ecologically concerned/responsible consumption") (Smith, 2000), which reflects the principles of political consumerism, especially buy- and boycotting. Thus, it is impossible to investigate the concepts of boycott activity without understanding its broader foundation, CSR, and its perception by consumers (see Figure 2).

Figure 2. The structure of boycott formation.



Source: Own research based on the literature review.

Here comes the conclusion that only after cognition of the fundamental aspects of CSR that act as a basis of peculiar “funnel”, we can talk about the concepts of political consumerism, and only then converging to its specific type, investigated in this study, *consumer boycott*.

Grounding on the increasing impact of CSR on political consumer behaviour, even several shopping guides (e.g. “The Green Consumer Guide: High Street Shopping for a better Environment” in 1988, “Shopping for a Better World” in 1991) have been published, which were created to help consumers to make deliberate purchasing actions, ranking companies and their products on the dimensions of corporate responsibility, such as animal testing, workplace issues, women’s rights, acts of charity, ecological aspects, and so on. That was a significant step towards the development of socially conscious consumer behaviour, what prompted consumers to organize political consumerism movements, where boycotting takes a considerable niche.

## **4.2. Perception of CSR by consumers**

The non-academic literature has almost exclusively been concerned with creating justification for a position that ethics matter (Belk et al., 2005). Different authors, exploring ethical consumer behaviour, were concentrated on many determinant aspects, such as the desire of consumers to get benefits from doubtful actions, the perception of company's ethical behaviour and product purchasing (Sen et al., 2001), the readiness of consumers to pay for the ethical products (Auger et al., 2003). Moreover, scholars also started to measure responsible consumer behaviour, their attitudes and intentions to buy certain ethical products (Belk et al., 2005).

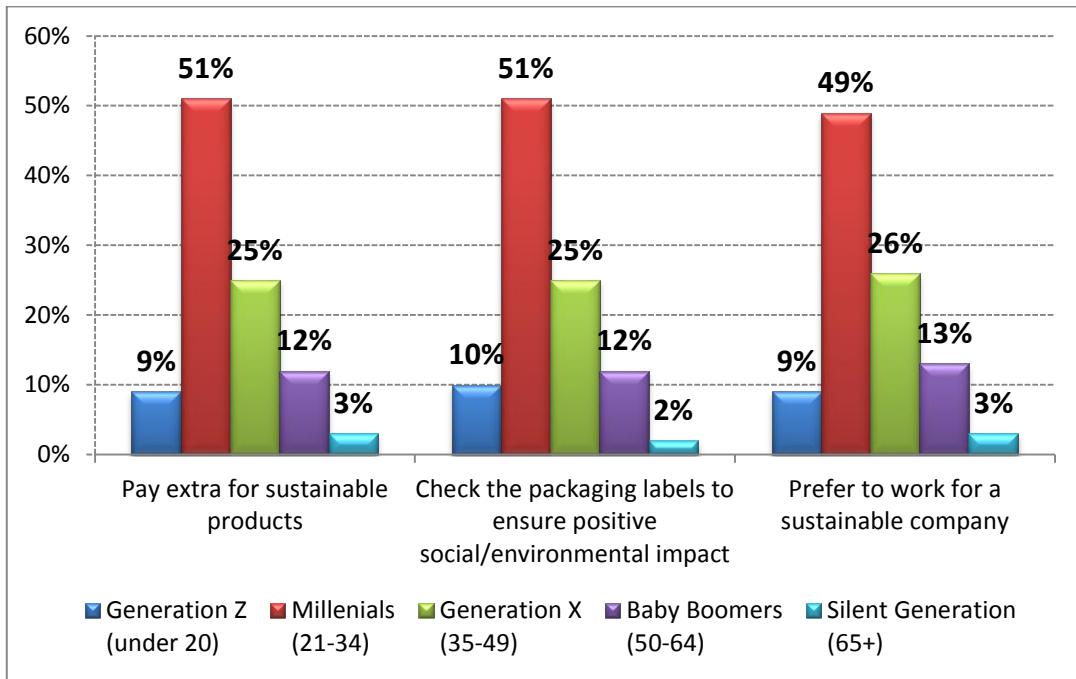
Most of researchers admit that engaging in social responsibility issues for companies is no longer an option, but an obligation. Today's consumers are more circumspect and prudent in their buying decisions, trying to save more and at the same time to benefit at the high. Through the years they have realized their collective power to influence companies, environment and individuals, and nowadays their attraction to these issues is very strong, so that consumers want to see implications of "ethical behaviour" not only in the company policy, but reflected in products and goods they offer to the market. Moreover, consumers have a huge desire of supporting these ethical movements, being a part of alterations through their purchases.

As revealed in Global CSR Study 2013 (Cone Communications/Echo, 2013), nowadays 93% of consumers want to see more products, services, and retailers which support social or environmental issues. More detailed, 19% of respondents mentioned environment as the most important problem companies have to think about while producing their products, 11% said that managers should first think about protection of human rights, the same way as 11% put poverty and hunger at the top of the most solemn question to deal

with. Consumers demand managers to tackle with these problems because they believe that companies have unique power to impact mentioned issues, certainly not alone, but taking the leading part in the process. Consumers expect companies to look through their policies, identifying areas of progress and improvement of the critical issues, as 30% of them are sure that managers can polish existing situation up, modifying the way firm operates. Interdependence between company's engagement into CSR and consumer's inclination to it is significant: 96% of citizens have a more positive image, 94% are more likely to trust and 93% are more loyal to this company.

Grant Thornton International Business Report (2011) claims that CSR activity in Europe was low in 2010, although there was a pronounced split between northern Europe – encompassing Finland, Ireland, Sweden and the United Kingdom – and much of mainland Europe – especially France, Germany, Belgium and Italy. However, Nielsen's 2014 Global Survey on Corporate Social Responsibility, released in June 2014, shows that 55% of global online consumers across 60 countries are willing to pay more for products and services from companies that are committed to positive social and environmental impact. Regionally, 40% of European respondents show willingness to pay extra for sustainable products, what has increased 7 points of purchasing sentiment since 2011. Four in 10 respondents answered they have already supported socially responsible company through acquisition of its products and services during the last sixth month. Among global respondents responsive to sustainability actions half is Millenials (see Graph 1), though in Europe the average age of citizens encouraging CSR practices is between 21...50 years.

Graph 1. Average age of global socially responsible consumers.



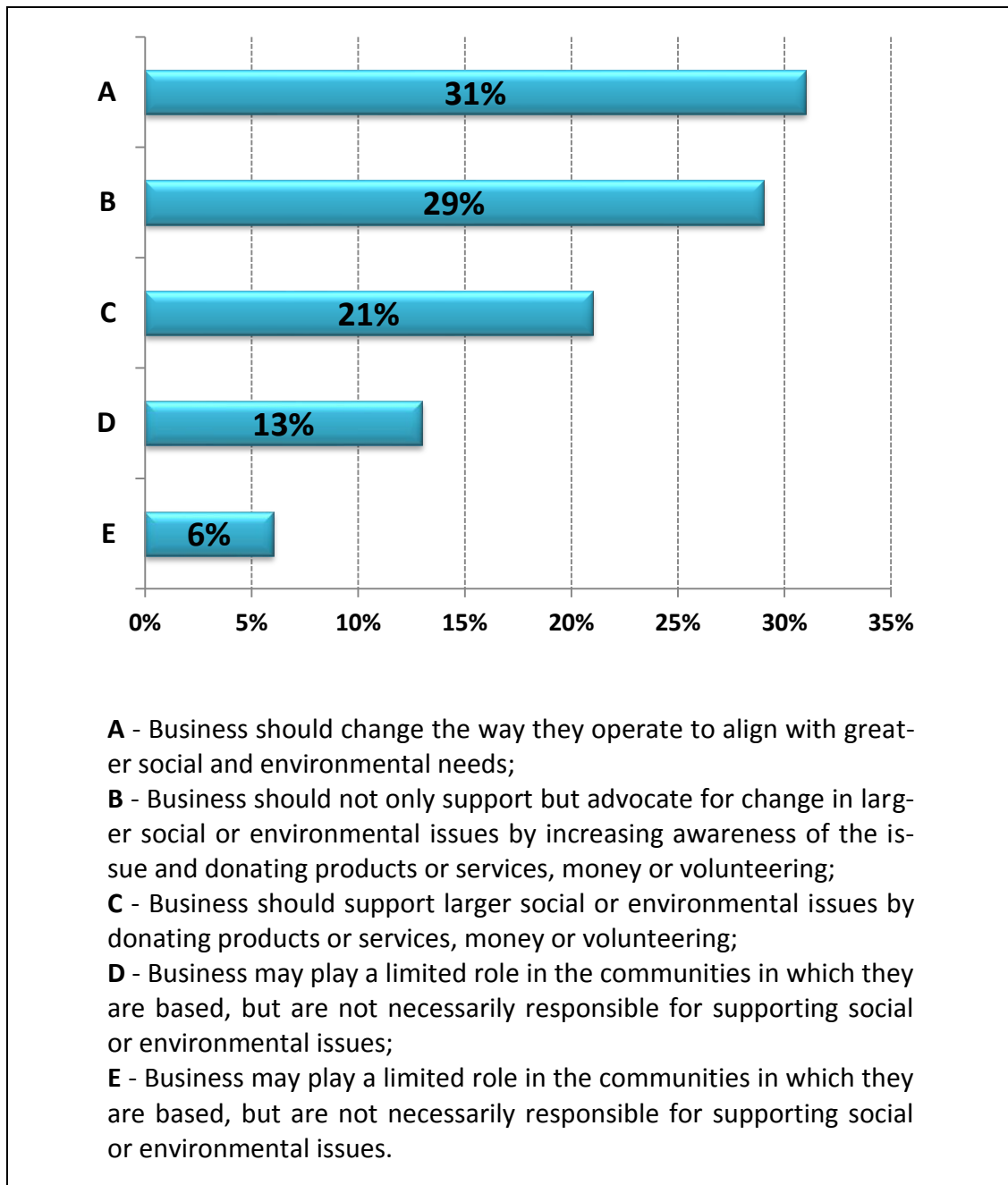
Source: Adapted from Nielsen, Doing Well by Doing Good (2014).

Age difference between presented consumer responsible activities (paying more money for sustainable products, reading labels to ascertain social responsibility of products and intention to work for sustainable company) remains in almost the same proportion. The most active conscious consumers are aged 21...34 years. These findings indicate that young people show greater inclinations towards sustainability issues. However, there are some possible reasonable explanations why people aged under 20 and 50+ are almost not included into responsible consumption. The youngest citizens usually do not possess fixed shopping habits and enough resources to make sustainable choices. The older population, on the contrary, has too established opinion on preferable products, and in most cases do not care about sustainable issues. However, though Generation X and Millennials are the most responsible consumers, there is remaining gap of around 50% between them. Since political consumers are considered as socially responsible shoppers, according to

presented age gap in sustainable attitudes we may conclude that boycotters are also presented by young people. However, this topic will be expanded in the next chapter of this thesis.

Anyway, what are consumer perceptions about the role of business in society nowadays? Founded on Global CSR Study Report 2013 (Cone Communications/Echo, 2013), most of consumers demand an active participation of companies in solving environmental and societal issues (see Graph 2). The respondents were asked to choose one answer out of five to express their opinion about the role business play in society nowadays.

Graph 2. Consumer perceptions about the role of business in society (% rate of chosen options).



Source: Adapted from Cone Communications/Echo Global CSR Study (2013).

As supported by the presented graph, the most frequent report by consumers is that they demand broad socially responsible practices from the companies, emphasizing its significance towards social and environmental needs.

However, some of them still do not associate the importance of CSR in business policy, assuming that companies may bring alterations to this issue, but not necessarily.

Nevertheless, the majority of consumers demand broader contribution to society from companies. And the evidence shows that consumers' buying decisions depend in a direct association on socially responsible initiatives to a great extent (Dolnicar & Pomeroy, 2007). Consumer's awareness about CSR policy of company leads to better attitudes and evaluation of this company and its products. It is suggested that pro-social marketing initiatives can become a differentiating strategy in the market, build brand equity, and achieve consumer loyalty as well as other post-purchase outcomes (Sen & Bhattacharya, 2001).

### 4.3. Ethical purchase behaviour

Although citizens realize to an increasing extent that they cannot avoid consuming products, they know that they can influence politics, government and producers through rejecting to buy certain goods in the market, pursuing their political or moral ethical goals (Schudson, 2007). Even in early 1990-s Smith wrote about ethical purchase behaviour (Smith, 1990) and how its factors might serve as advantages in the case of business. The author gives different designations to this concept – “conscience consumerism”, “ethical consumerism”, “green consumerism” – and it means that through making every single purchasing decision consumer thinks about matters of corporate responsibility, which in its turn affects the behaviour and politics of company, providing stimulus to be more caring and responsible.

As found in Starbucks’ Corporate Social Responsibility Annual Report (Starbucks Coffee Company, 2002: 3), “consumers are demanding more than “product” from their favourite brands. Employees are choosing to work for companies with strong values. Shareholders are more inclined to invest in businesses with outstanding corporate reputations. Quite simply, being socially responsible is not only the right thing to do; it can distinguish a company from its industry peers.”

Ethical Consumer Markets Report (The Co-operative Group, 2012) shows that in 2011 ethical food and drink markets increased by 7,8% to reach € 8,74bn, as well as the number of ethical food and drink boycotts rose by 2,68% in comparison to the previous year. According to the words of Barry Claving, Head of Ethical Policies & Sustainability Reporting at The Co-operative, “intervention of enlightened business, together with regulatory intervention, is driving ethical sales growth”. During the downturn there

have been seen some of the biggest ever fair trade alterations, be it in chocolate or sugar, and business is beginning to respond to the challenge to provide consumers with more sustainable products and services. Ethical consumers are a vitally important agent of change; however, the actions of progressive business are now a significant contributor to the sales growth. At the same time, the fact that ethical sales remain a small proportion of total sales is still should be under consideration. Eventually, over and above the efforts of responsible business and ethical consumers, sustainable solutions require a government committed to long term intervention.

It has already been said that while consumption has been seen as a mechanism for economic social good (supporting jobs, the economy), this is achieved secondary to personal profitability. Consumer voting lays beyond than this consequential social good, and shows that consumption can be a force for fairness, altruism and increased societal participation, therefore highlighting the connection between consumption and other aspects of creation (Shaw & Black, 2010). This is sprung from its ability to direct, via boycotting or buycotting, overall product design, individual product characteristics and extraction, manufacturer, assembly, supply chain and marketing practices. Boycotting is more effective in achieving this, if practiced through repeated rejection of purchasing certain products. This practice tells organizations what their loyal customers want by sending recurring signals, which are less likely to be omitted or misinterpreted. What is significant, that these signals do not go to individual producers whose goods are avoided, as they also give information to their competitors in a broader marketplace. The borders of this market based activity are more extended, these signals are transmitted to governments on all levels about the things that are a matter of interest for citizens, and in the spheres they tend to believe government performance is scanty and meagre.

Users' demands and requirements are recognised by most of producers unambiguously as a foundation on which they built their company strategy to decide what to produce to meet aspirations of consumers. Nevertheless some scholars argue that the perspective of consumer is only one of the factors taken into account, and in the long run producers will manufacture and launch on the market what fulfils their own interests, even if that may require tampering and manipulating consumers (Shaw et al., 2006). In this way consumer sovereignty is concerned only the role of the service provider to convince consumers of their freedom, while the producers and marketers actually dictate them how and what to buy. Further Shaw et al. (2006) discuss the limitations set by the market through a shortage of effective labelling, hindering the information available to consumers upon which to make their decisions.

However, to suggest that consumers are always under control of every step and buying decision in the market excessively accentuates the power of consumer freedom. Instead, the point of sovereignty is that consumers' desires and needs is the foundation, base on which producers initiate their manufacturing process. Undoubtedly, it is necessary to heed what people want from the market, but within the market economy there is also a place for provider led innovations, which design and mould consumers' tastes and desires. Hence, users cannot always expect an efficient or prompt response from using their consumer power as voting, inasmuch as it takes a considerable amount of time for companies to recognize these signals, process it and to transform their offerings and supply chain (Carbonnell & Rodriguez-Escudero, 2008).

#### **4.4. Interaction between consumers and companies**

Today's businesses should recognize that the increasing numbers of consumers are seeking to engage and influence the suppliers of products and services through their actions in the marketplace. Often responding to reports of doubtful practices such as child labour, environmental pollution and/or animal welfare mistreatment, consumer response is manifested in attempts to redistribute the power between consumer and producer. The ability to punish these suppliers is considered unethical through boycotting and protest and to reward those displaying genuine ethical credentials through buycotting has resulted in various manifestations of consumer empowerment directly targeted at changing traditional marketing and business behaviour.

In a modern world many consumers value different companies considering the issues of social responsibility. Unethical behaviour frequently jeopardizes firms for being boycotted. Consumer boycotts occur to company's detriment not only in economic sense, bringing financial loss. Such kind of revolt destroys brand's reputation, which has been probably built in many years and involved considerable effort. Cognition of the reasons driving consumers wish to engage to boycotts is a key to minimize exposure to such risk by taking appropriate countermeasures opportunely. This can help to avoid severe economic consequences through decrease of sales and significant harm of corporate image and brand reputation.

Although sometimes organisations have primarily been indicted of being responsible for producing environmental problems through, for example, the use of inappropriate equipment, dangerous substances, and non-recyclable materials, consumers have also been blamed for their uncontrollable consumption of goods and irresponsible treatment of the environment. Thus,

on the one hand, understanding the motives, attitudes, behaviour, and actions of consumers with regard to ecological or social issues is of paramount importance in alleviating part of the problems associated with the environment and society. On the other hand, a deeper understanding of the characteristics of political consumers by organisations can lead to the design of more efficient and effective ethical marketing programs (Rundle-Thiele, Paladino & Apostol, 2008).

Ethical trade and ethical shopping initiatives invite consumers to take moral responsibility or co-responsibility for consequences of buying behaviour, i.e. how other people, animals and other natural environments directly or indirectly are affected. The increase of internet technologies enhance consumers' power in the market, especially in the way of forming new horizontal networks, different from the previous vertical ones embedded within the power hierarchy, that exert company's practices more efficiently and rationally (Baek, 2010). With this prevalence of internet technology, such self-organisation has become much easier, technologically and economically. Business ethics as an academic field deals mainly with moral criticism (or self-criticism) of business behaviour. Within the market economy, business behaviour is not independent from consumer behaviour and consumer acceptance. Almost in every case businesses get the consumers they deserve and on the contrary. Rather than criticizing business alone (as politicians and consumer activists tend to do) or passing on the blame to the market and to the consumers (as businesses sometimes do) it seems more fruitful to consider child labour, environmental risks, consumer larceny (and similar issues) as a shared responsibility of business and consumers.

As it has always been said, the case of business is compulsorily based on three key agents: consumers, employees and investors care in ways that

create economic motives for producers to give attention to corporate responsibility. Business interests are heavily involved in developing markets for ethical products. Modern consumer markets are dominated by highly concentrated manufacturing industries and vertically integrated retailers who base their consumer communication on branding, TV-advertising, and product placement (Dulsrud & Beckstrøm, 2005). Producers of branded goods and distributors respond to consumers' concerns and protests to avoid blame, they actively appeal to consumers' consciousness to differentiate markets, and they are eager to demonstrate citizenship to avoid regulatory intervention from authorities (Marsden et al., 2000). The internet and globalized media push producers of branded goods to be seen as ethically virtuous and consistent and to enforce their claimed virtues throughout the value chain (Vogel, 2005). In this way, political consumption is approached and developed simply like any other market, where producers hope to build profitable niches where they can get a price above the standard products. In modern politics some of the dominant issues are racial, gender and religious identity (Mouffe, 2005). Companies are already applying different marketing strategies to appeal to consumers' identity, due to their consumption is closely linked to their identity construction and representation (Baek, 2010).

Managers should appreciate the fact that consumers derive high levels of product and life satisfaction from "good" behaviour. Hence, they should become more ethically-oriented in their production methods, marketing approaches, and products offered to the market. They should also investigate in more detail the cultural, political, and ethical characteristics of their target markets and try to adjust their company offerings according to whether or not their consumers are characterized by an environmentally-friendly attitude. Ethically-sensitive organisations should also systematically assess the pro-environmental behaviour of their current and potential customers in

order to adjust their marketing programs accordingly. It is also important to measure customer satisfaction (both at the product and life level) at regular intervals, so as to retain and expand the firm's customer base.

Studies on political consumerism, especially those originating from political science, have demonstrated that market mechanism can be regarded as another channel for political participation, and that the consumers are both able and willing to use this channel to achieve political goals. Nevertheless, marketers still need studies that are able to show how consumers really use this channel under which specific conditions, in order to know to what extent consumer behaviour in fact can be regarded as political consumerism. Previous researches of ethical consumption have shown that consumer behaviour can be quite different from what might be expected based on knowledge of the consumers' overall attitude to positive and negative political consumerism, their recalled behaviours, and ideal type characteristics of so-called political consumer.

Companies serving politicised markets therefore have to monitor and to assess continuously external political processes both inside and outside the institutionalised political system, attend to many stakeholder demands placed on them, and develop plans and strategies in order to respond to changing political conditions in a profitable way. These requirements correspond to three main areas of research in social issues in management, namely environmental assessment, stakeholder management, and issues management.

Nowadays the business case for social responsibility continuously attracts attention of scholars and investigators. Various associations produce reports on the business case for corporate responsibility, such as Business for Social Responsibility (see: [www.bsr.org](http://www.bsr.org)), the World Business Council for Sus-

tainable Development ([www.wbcsd.org](http://www.wbcsd.org)), and the International Business Leaders Forum ([www.iblf.org](http://www.iblf.org)) which in its report “Profits With Principles” shows “the quantifiable and enduring business advantage to doing the right thing.”

Nevertheless, attention to the business case for corporate responsibility may be fallacious in two respects. First, there is no one business case other than at the most basic level (corporate responsibility can provide an enduring economic advantage for a company). Second, because the business case is distinctive, it varies patently in both form and strength across companies, industries and other situational considerations. Without doubt, there are circumstances, and increasingly so, under which corporate responsibility is in the best economic interests of a particular company. However, because the business case for corporate responsibility is contingent upon a variety of circumstantial considerations, it is difficult to find a justification for many of the generalizations—and much of the exaggeration—about the business case, beyond wishful thinking. Vogel (2005: 45) has observed: “Unfortunately, a review of the evidence... finds little support for the claim that more responsible firms are more profitable. But this does not mean that there is no business case for virtue. It is rather to suggest that any such claim must be more nuanced. CSR does make business sense for some firms in specific circumstances.”

However, what seems to be especially important for companies serving such markets is the ability to pinpoint analytically what may instigate politically motivated buying decisions and to act proactively based on valid knowledge about such matters. Political consumers should not be regarded as a specific segment with specific characteristics concerning the expected response to marketer-dominated stimuli. Instead, they should be regarded

as potential political actors that may be mobilized under certain conditions based on personal experience and mediated storylines of corporate performance seen in relation to the on-going international debate on companies' social responsibility.

Thus it becomes significantly important for managers to meet consumers' beliefs, wishes and requirements to maintain good reputation and to improve their company policy towards the consumers. Global experts coincide that companies-leaders on the market are not only concerned about the way their business function, but also they explore and analyse constantly new models, which determine and value long-term societal needs. Flowing from collaboration with competitors to embrace broader industry matters managers begin to admit that their own company vitality depends on social and environmental sustainability to a great extent.

#### **4.5. Summary of the chapter**

Though the issue of importance of studying political consumerism appears throughout the whole PhD thesis, the fourth chapter extended this question, placing an emphasis on the relation of corporate social responsibility and boycott. After reviewing relevant literature we revealed the existence of so-called “funnel”, which shows that consumer boycott is a significant component of political consumerism, but initially it springs from the CSR. Thus, it becomes crucial to understand consumer perceptions of CSR and the role of business in society. Relevant literature shows that almost 100% of consumers want to see more products and services which support social and environmental issues. Moreover, the majority of global online consumers are ready to pay higher price for the products and services from socially responsible companies. Good knowledge of customers’ demands and requirements is a basis for successful strategies implication in order to increase marketing sales. Since we defined consumer boycott as a source of pressure for CSR, it accentuates significance of studying different aspects of political consumerism.

## **5 RESEARCH ON POLITICAL CONSUMERISM**

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5.1. Past researches of the aspects of political consumerism

5.2. Prevalence of boycott in European countries

5.3. Types of political consumers

5.4. Influence of geographical location

5.5. Research question and hypotheses

5.6. Summary of the chapter

### **5.1. Past researches of the aspects of political consumerism**

Though scholars started to discuss the concepts of political consumerism long time ago, the first international survey on political consumerism was reported in the *International Political Science Review* in 2005. The findings from the article “Politics in the Supermarket: Political Consumerism as a Form of Political Participation” by Dietlind Stolle, Marc Hooghe, and Michele Micheletti (2005), who surveyed undergraduate social science students in Belgium, Canada and Sweden, confirmed the increased significance of political consumerism as a form of political participation – 72% of those surveyed had chosen products based on ethical consideration over the past year (“buycotted”), while 63% had boycotted a product.

The findings provide fascinating insight into cross-national differences in political consumerism and this has become the most highly cited article in *International Political Science Review* in the past decade. While a majority of participants in all three countries engaged in political consumerism when grocery shopping, the ones who were much more likely to apply ethical considerations to buying soap or detergents were Swedes. Several investigations bear out the existence of high-profile eco-labelling systems in Sweden. Canadians, by contrast, were more likely to apply political consumerism to the purchase of clothing, something attributed to “no sweat” campaigns, which have a long history in the northern America. Already in the early 1900s Florence Kelley of the US National Consumers’ League was using a White Label system for employers that did not use sweated labour. The Belgians had yet another focus, being more likely than Swedes or Canadians to apply ethical considerations to banking choices, perhaps because of the visibility of a Dutch-based ethical bank in Belgium. They were however generally less engaged in political consumerism than their Canadian and Swedish counterparts.

More various researches have been afterwards held on the issue of political consumerism, presented in different countries, and using data from such sources as *The Citizenship Survey*, *the European Social Survey*, where the respondents were asked whether they have boy- or boycotted certain products within definite period of time (mostly 1 year). Various publications are based on case studies (Newholm, 2005) or on unrepresentative survey samples, for instance, student samples (Stolle et al., 2005), target samples (Friedman, 1999), purposive samples (Shaw, 2005). Some of the investigations with the most significant outcomes are listed in the Table 4 below in chronological order.

Table 4. Investigations of the concepts of boycott.

Researcher	Object of study	Countries under analysis	Method	Main findings
<b>1997</b>				
Koku, P.C., Akhigbe, A., Springer, T.M.	Financial impact of boycotts and threats of boycotts	Worldwide	Secondary data (Wall Street Journal Index, The New York Times Index, The Christian Science Monitor, supplemented with business news abstracts) on past and current boycotts and boycott threats between 1980 and 1993.	The effects of boycotts are the same as those produced by the threats of boycotts. However, the value of target firms increases more after boycott promulgation rather than threat of boycott.
<b>2001</b>				
Sen, S., Gürhan-Canli, Z., Morwitz, V.	Individual boycott decision	New York, USA	Individual survey (student sample)	Consumers who are sensitive to normative influence and have weak-

			as a class requirement.	er efficacy perceptions are more likely to be boycotters. The availability of substitutes and lower preference for boycotted products increase boycotting likelihood.
<b>2002</b>				
Klein, J.G., Smith, N.C., John, A.	Individual's motivation to boycott.	A European-based multinational firm	Telephone survey.	The key to boycott participation is the perceived egregiousness of the firm's actions (direct relationship) with a four sets of moderators: a desire to promote change, self-enhancement considerations, rationalizations that inhibit boycotting, the costs of boycotting. Moreover, females are more likely to express stronger ethical concern.
<b>2003</b>				
Diamantopoulos, A., Schlegelmilch, B.B., Sinkovics, R.R., et al.	Socio-demographic profile of boycotter.	UK	Mailed survey questionnaires and personal telephone interviews.	Being equally informed about boycotting issues as males, those females, who completed university education, display more interest and engagement into these activities, disregard of marital status, number of children and age.
Ferrer, M.	Cross-national patterns of political consumerism (buy- and boycotting).	Europe	Secondary data: the European Social Survey 2002-2003.	There is a huge cross-national variation on political consumerism in Europe, especially for boycotting products. southern and eastern European countries display lower rates of participation. Political consumerism is significantly related to political characteristics, mostly to protesting, but also to

				voting and contacting politician.
Ferrer, M.	Socio-demographic characteristics of boycotters.	Europe	Secondary data: the European Social Survey 2002-2003.	Typical boycotters are educated, middle-aged (in some countries also young), are employed, often women. In some societies housewives or students also show great involvement to political consumerism.
John, A., Klein, J.	Individual's motivation to boycott.	Worldwide	Online search for past and present boycotts, carried out during January 2002.	Individuals' involvement to boycott participation is greatly affected by such motivations as guilt, maintenance of self-esteem, avoidance of dissonance. Moreover, there is a direct influence by participation of others on the incentive to be engaged.
<b>2005</b>				
Stolle, D., Micheletti, M.	The profile of boycotters.	Sweden	Secondary data: the European Social Survey 2002-2003 and a Swedish national survey SOM 2003.	The typical Swedish boycotter is a middle-aged resourceful woman with a high level of education, generally in studies on political participation, who lives in an urban area, expresses strong interest in politics and supports left political orientation.
<b>2006</b>				
Ferrer, M., Fraile, M.	Social profile of political consumers (buy- and boycotters).	Europe, Israel	Secondary data: the European Social Survey 2002-2003.	Typical political consumers are well-educated, students, employed, middle aged, belong to service class. However, these results are less impressive for such southern European countries as Greece, Italy, and Portugal.
<b>2007</b>				
Gallego, A.	Inequalities between boycott participation	Europe	Secondary data: the European	Boycotters usually have high level of education and high income; they

	tors.		Social Survey 2004.	are members of a service class or a nonmanual household. Ethnic minorities, unemployed or inactive have less probability to join boycott action. Gender does not have significant impact on being a boycott-er.
Shah, D.V., McLeod, D.M., Kim, E., et al.	The profile of political consumer (buy- and boycott-er).	USA	Secondary data: panel mail survey for "Life Style Study", conducted in February 2002, November 2004, and July 2005.	Political consumer is white older educated person with a sense of altruism and strong personal values.
<b>2008</b>				
Strømsnes, K.	Social characteristics of the political consumers (buy- and boycott-ers).	Norway	Secondary data: the Citizenship Survey 2001.	Norwegian political consumer is a middle-aged woman, belonging to well-educated and politically interested radical elite and living in a large city. She also is active within the voluntary sector.
<b>2009</b>				
Lee, M.S.W., Motion, J., Conroy, D.	The reasons of consumers' boycotting.	Asia, Europe, New Zealand	Individual in-depth sensitization interviews.	Consumers boycott brands that represent their undesired self (associated with negative reference groups, inauthenticity, a loss of individuality)
Micheletti, M., Stolle, D., Berlin, D.	The profile of political consumer (buy- and boycott-er).	Sweden	Secondary data: the European Social Survey 2002-2003.	Political consumers are mostly women, with a high level of income, living in a large city and highly interested in politics and foreign affairs.
Paek, H.-J., Nelson, M.R.	The characteristics of political consumers (buy- and boy-	USA	Questionnaire survey mailed to a randomly	Political consumers are characterized by altruism and opinion leadership, they care about

	cotters).		chosen sample.	advertising ethics. As regards socio-demographic factors, more educated people with a higher level of income practice political consumerism, while gender becomes insignificant parameter.
<b>2010</b>				
Baek, Y.M.	The profile of political boycotters.	USA	Secondary data: National Civic Engagement Survey, spring and autumn 2002.	Boycotters are socially advantaged citizens – male, highly educated, wealthier and young citizens, interested in politics and politically active.
García-Arrizabalaga, I., Gibaja-Martíns, J.J., Mujika-Alberdi, A.	The development of boycotting.	Europe	Secondary data: the European Social Survey 2010-2011.	Boycotting is more present in the most advanced economies of northern and Central Europe, than in southern and eastern Europe. The highest rate of boycotters is found in Sweden, the lowest – in Portugal.
García-Arrizabalaga, I., Gibaja-Martíns, J.J., Mujika-Alberdi, A.	The profile of boycotter.	Europe	Secondary data: the European Social Survey 2010-2011.	Typical political consumer is middle-aged person, possessing high levels of income and education. Women are involved more to boycott actions, while men to the other forms of participation.
Isenhour, C.	Behavioural aspects of political consumers (boycotting).	Sweden	Ethnographic fieldwork interviews, conducted in July 2007-August 2008.	The majority of political consumers participate in practices related to food and travel issues. Ethical consumers are motivated by perceived risk towards environment and their families. Significant barriers withholding participation in political consumerism are lack of information, price,

				availability of substitutes, social pressure, time needed for re-search.
Neilson, L.A.	The difference between buy- and boycotters.	Europe	Secondary data: the European Social Survey 2002-2003.	Generally, political consumerism is not widespread among Europeans, though people more often boycott than boycott. Boycotters have smaller social capital, lower altruistic intentions and they are influenced by lower trust in institutions. There is no gender gap among boycotters, though boycotters are mostly females.
<b>2011</b>				
Bray, J., Johns, N., Kilburn, D.	Factors impeding ethical consumption (buy- and boycotting).	UK	Focus group discussion.	There are 7 exogenous factors impeding ethical consumption: price sensitivity, personal experience, ethical obligation, lack of information, quality, inertia, and cynicism.
Hoffmann, S.	The distinction of motivation of different boycott adopters.	Germany	Investigation of online posts and comments related to specific boycott.	The reasons to take part in a boycott vary among different adopter types: laggards first consider benefits and costs of participation, while early adopters have a higher level of proximity.
Llopis-Goig, R.	Relation of political consumerism (buy- and boycotting) to cosmopolitanism.	Spain	Secondary data: survey 2606 of the Center of Social Research.	Due to significant interrelation, political consumerism can be considered as a form of political participation related to cosmopolitanism.
Newman, B.J., Bartels, B.L.	The initial profile of boycotter.	USA	Secondary data: the 2005 United States Citizenship, Involvement,	US boycotter is someone who is educated, interested in politics, relatively young, willing to expend a good deal of effort in engaging onto

			Democracy (CID) Survey conducted by the Center for Democracy and Civil Society at Georgetown University.	participatory acts, feels a strong sense of duty to engage into political life, tends to embrace informal and individualized forms of engagement with political and social issues and groups, has a high level of general discontent and a high level of civic initiative.
<b>2012</b>				
Gill, K.	College students' attitudes towards political consumerism (buy- and boycotting).	India	On-line questionnaire (student sample).	College students do not perceive themselves as political consumers, however sometimes they boycott certain products. The main barrier which hinders them to purchase ethically is lack of information about ethical/unethical companies' practices.
Gotlieb, M.R., Wells, C.	The relation of political consumerism (buy- and boycotting) to civic participation.	USA	Secondary data: the Cooperative Campaign Analysis Project 2007-2008.	Political consumers also engage into conventional political activities. For youth the relationship of collective orientation to political consumerism is essential.
Koku, P.S.	The effectiveness of consumer boycotts organized through Internet.	Worldwide	Online analysis of boycotts targeted publicly traded companies, conducted in January 2004-December 2008.	Consumer boycotts launched by individuals on the internet are ineffective in inflicting economic harm on the targeted firm.
Lindenmeier, J., Tscheulin, D.K., Dreves, F.	The relation of unethical conduct of pharmaceutical companies and boycotting behaviour.	Germany	A personal questionnaire (spring 2010).	Information about testing pharmaceutical drugs on animals causes anger of consumers, what provokes further willingness to boycott certain company.

Micheletti, M., Stolle, D., Berlin, D.	Development of political consumerism (including boycott) across Europe.	Europe	Secondary data: the European Social Survey 2002-2003.	Absolute leaders of practicing political consumerism are Nordic countries, presented by young activists. However, generally political consumerism is more spread among older generation.
<b>2013</b>				
Albrecht, C.-M., Campbell, C., Heinrich, D.	Consumers' motivation to engage in boycott actions.	Germany	Personal in-depth interviews of 30-45 minutes.	Motivations that drive consumers' engagement to boycott are: desire to change something, to call attention to societal problems, to express one's feelings about the egregiousness of a breach of rules. Factors stimulating boycotts are: the perceived relevance of the cause of a boycott and engagement to the boycott personally or publicly known people.
Altintas, M.H., Kurtulusoglu, B.F., Kaufmann, H.R., et al.	Factors causing consumer boycotts of foreign goods.	Turkey	1. Analysis of online forums; 2. Individual random survey in a city centre.	Consumers are propelled by national drivers when they boycott foreign goods. Hate, citizen consumer and economic independence are three basic factors causing boycotts of foreign goods.
Cone Communications / Echo	Consumers' attitudes, perception and behaviours around CSR.	Brazil, Canada, China, France, Germany, India, Japan, Russia, UK, USA	Online survey.	Boycotting is a quite frequent activity within half of the respondents. However, lack of information about CSR plays significant role in involvement to political consumerism. The majority of political consumers are young males and females motivated by feeling good about themselves.
Copeland, L.	Characteristics of a boycotter.	USA	Individual survey by	Typical boycotter is young, highly educated,

			research firm YouGov (December 2011).	resourceful, politically interested and active female, not identifying herself with one of the major parties. She is risk adverse, does not trust government officials and institutions, supports postmaterialist values and emphasizes engaged citizenship norms.
Copeland, L.	Relation between political consumerism (buy- and boycotting) and political participation.	USA	Individual survey by research firm YouGov (December 2011).	Political consumers are significantly more likely to engage in all modes of political and civic engagement than non-political consumers, proving that political consumerism is an addition to another forms of political participation.
Gil de Zúñiga, H., Copeland, L., Bimber, B.	The influence of social media use on boycott engagement.	USA	Individual web survey (December 2008-January 2009).	Social media use mediates the relationship between general Internet use and boycott.

Source: Own research based on literature review.

Though literature suggests that the first known boycott actions are dating 14<sup>th</sup> century (Smith, 1990), Table 4 shows that expansion of investigation of the concept of boycott is rather recent in its origin, starting from 1997 (Koku, Akhibe & Springer, 1997). However, we are fully confident that research by Koku, Akhibe & Springer (1997) is not the first published investigation of boycott. Nevertheless, if we trace the amount of studies appearing in Table 4 during the certain laps of time we notice increasing tendency of boycott investigations.

The concept of boycott has been studied worldwide from different perspectives. However, the most frequent topics discussed by scholars are consumers' *motivation* to engage into such protest actions (e.g. Sen, Gürhan-Canli & Morwitz, 2001; Klein, Smith & John, 2002; Lee, Motion & Conroy, 2009; Hoffman, 2011;

Albrecht, Campbell & Heinrich, 2012; Altintas et al., 2012; Gil de Zúñiga, Copeland & Bimber, 2013), aspects of boycotters' *behaviour* (e.g. Isehour, 2010; Bray, Johns & Kilburn, 2011; Gill, 2012; Gotlieb & Wells, 2012) and boycotters' *profile* (e.g. Diamantopoulos et al., 2003; Stolle & Micheletti, 2005; Ferrer & Fraile, 2006; Gallego, 2007; Strømsnes, 2008; Paek & Nelson, 2009; García-Arrizabalaga, Gibaja-Martíns & Mujika-Alberdi, 2010; Newman & Bartels, 2011; Copeland, 2013). And what is notable, many researchers base their investigations on the analysis of secondary data, namely – the European Social Survey (Ferrer, 2004; Stolle & Micheletti, 2005; Ferrer & Fraile, 2006; Gallego, 2007; García-Arrizabalaga, Gibaja-Martíns & Mujika-Alberdi, 2010). In the present PhD thesis we also use the European Social Survey as a source of secondary data.

Significant part of studies on boycotting issue is devoted to defining characteristics of consumers who refrain from purchase of certain products (e.g. Klein, Smith & John, 2002; Ferrer, 2003; Stolle & Micheletti, 2005; Ferrer, 2003; Stolle & Micheletti, 2005; Newman & Bartels, 2011). Moreover, boycotter's profile is the most arguable aspect of research. For example, some scholars assert that there is no prevalent gender among boycotters (Gallego, 2007; Paek & Nelson, 2009; Neilson, 2010), while others argue that boycotters are presented mostly by females (Klein, Smith & John, 2002; Diamantopoulos et al., 2003; Ferrer, 2003; Stolle & Micheletti, 2005; Strømsnes, 2008; García-Arrizabalaga, Gibaja-Martíns & Mujika-Alberdi, 2010; Copeland, 2013) or males (Baek, 2010). The next disputable characteristic is age of boycotters. Researchers argue that they are middle-aged (Stolle & Micheletti, 2005; Ferrer & Fraile, 2006; Strømsnes, 2008; García-Arrizabalaga, Gibaja-Martíns & Mujika-Alberdi, 2010) citizens, others insist on their young (Baek, 2010; Newman & Bartels, 2011; Cone Communications/Echo, 2013; Copeland, 2013) or old age (Shah et al., 2007; Micheletti, Stolle & Berlin, 2011), while another research found age as insignificant boy-

cotters' determinant (Diamantopoulos et al., 2003). Most of boycotters are employed (Ferrer, 2003; Ferrer & Fraile, 2006; Gallego, 2007), though sometimes housewives and students are also engaged into boycotting activities (Ferrer, 2003; Ferrer & Fraile, 2006), contrary to Gill's findings (2012) which conclude that students do not perceive themselves as being boycotters. However, almost all of investigators come to the mutual opinion that boycotters are highly-educated people (Diamantopoulos et al., 2003; Ferrer, 2003; Stolle & Micheletti, 2005; Ferrer & Fraile, 2006; Gallego, 2007; Shah et al., 2007; Strømsnes, 2008; Paek & Nelson, 2009; Baek, 2010; García-Arrizabalaga, Gibaja-Martíns & Mujika-Alberdi, 2010; Newman & Bartels, 2011; Copeland, 2013) with a high level of household income (Stolle & Micheletti, 2005; Gallego, 2007; Micheletti, Stolle & Berlin, 2011; Paek & Nelson, 2009; Baek, 2010; García-Arrizabalaga, Gibaja-Martíns & Mujika-Alberdi, 2010; Copeland, 2013), who live in a big city (Stolle & Micheletti, 2005; Strømsnes, 2008; Micheletti, Stolle & Berlin, 2011). Such characteristics as marital status or number of children do not affect citizen's inclination to boycott products (Diamantopoulos et al., 2003).

Boycotters display high interest in political and foreign affairs (Baek, 2010; Micheletti, Stolle & Berlin, 2009; Newman & Bartels, 2011; Copeland, 2013), showing left-wing political orientation (Stolle & Micheletti, 2005; Strømsnes, 2008). Thus, being a sub-concept of political consumerism, boycotting is referred to political activity, significantly related to cosmopolitanism (Llopis-Goig, 2011). Such political actions as voting, contacting politician and protesting also shape boycotters' behaviour (Ferrer, 2003).

Researchers have found that the key factor of boycott participation is egregiousness of a company's actions (Klein, Smith & John, 2002; Lindenmeier, Tschulin & Dreves, 2012; Albrecht, Campbell & Heinrich, 2013). However, decision to boycott caused by company's unethical behaviour is moderated by set of

concepts, such as *desire to promote change* (Klein, Smith & John, 2002; Albrecht, Campbell & Heinrich, 2013), *self-enhancement* considerations (Klein, Smith & John, 2002; Lee, Motion & Conroy, 2009; Newman & Bartels, 2011; Cone Communications/Echo, 2013), *costs of boycotting* (Klein, Smith & John, 2002; Isenhour, 2010; Bray, Johns & Kilburn, 2011; Hoffmann, 2011). Citizens are less likely to refrain from consumption of certain goods if there are no *available substitutes* for boycotted products on the market, and if boycotted products are in their preference (Sen, Gürhan-Canli & Morwitz, 2001; Isenhour, 2010), or if they perceive low efficacy of boycott's outcome (Sen, Gürhan-Canli & Morwitz, 2001). Moreover, Hoffmann (2011) argues that boycotters' motivations differ according to the phase of boycott development. Thus, while early adopters have a higher level of proximity, laggards first consider benefits and costs of participation (Hoffmann, 2011).

Most of people are very sensitive to the normative influence, and participation of other citizens in boycotts impels consumers to engage in the same protest actions (Sen, Gürhan-Canli & Morwitz, 2001; John & Klein, 2004; Isenhour, 2010; Gotlieb & Wells, 2012). Moreover, if famous public and media persons are the source of this social pressure, consumers' willingness to be involved in boycott actions significantly increases (Albrecht, Campbell & Heinrich, 2013). Apart from being stimulated by other people, boycotters are greatly influenced by social media, especially by Internet resources (Gil de Zúñiga, Copeland & Bimber, 2013). However, Koku (2012) argues that Internet is not an effective mean of boycott's launch. Nevertheless, people report lack of information as a barrier from involvement to boycott actions (Isenhour, 2010; Bray, Johns & Kilburn, 2011; Gill, 2012; Cone Communication/Echo, 2013).

Boycott is international subject of research, being investigated from the worldwide (Koku, Akhigbe & Springer, 1997; John & Klein, 2004; Lee, Motion &

Conroy, 2009; Koku, 2012) to local (e.g. Stolle & Micheletti, 2005; Hoffmann, 2011; Llopis-Goig, 2011; Altintas et al., 2013) perspective. Interesting finding is that most of studies on boycotting are presented from the major developed and developed economies according to WESP, such as USA (e.g. Sen, Gürhan-Canli & Morwitz, 2001; Paek & Nelson, 2008; Baek, 2010; Newman & Bartels, 2010; Gotlieb & Wells, 2012; Copeland, 2013), UK (Diamantopoulos et al., 2003; Bray, Johns & Kilburn, 2011), Canada, Japan, France (Cone Communications/Echo, 2013), Germany (Hoffmann, 2011; Lindenmeier, Tscheulin & Drevs, 2012; Albrecht, Campbell & Heinrich, 2013), Sweden (Stolle & Micheletti, 2005; Micheletti, Stolle & Berlin, 2009; Isenhour, 2010), Norway (Strømsnes, 2008) and Spain (Llopis-Goig, 2011). Nevertheless, researchers study the concept of boycott also in developing countries, such as Israel (Ferrer & Fraile, 2006), Russian Federation, Brazil, China (Cone Communications/Echo, 2013), India (Gill, 2012; Cone Communications/Echo, 2013) and Turkey (Altintas et al., 2013). Though Neilson (2010) argues that boycotting is generally not developed among Europeans, we have discovered considerable researches from the countries of Europe (e.g. Klein, Smith & John, 2002; Ferrer & Fraile, 2006; Diamantopoulos et al., 2003; Strømsnes, 2008; Micheletti, Stolle & Berlin, 2009; García-Arrizabalaga, Gibaja-Martíns & Mujika-Alberdi, 2010). Most of European researches support the fact that boycotting is widely spread in northern and central parts of Europe, while citizens of southern and eastern European countries do not display high level of involvement into boycott actions (Ferrer, 2003; García-Arrizabalaga, Gibaja-Martíns & Mujika-Alberdi, 2010; Micheletti, Stolle & Berlin, 2011). Moreover, there is a suggestion that profile of southern European boycotter differs from the profile of northern European boycotter (Ferrer & Fraile, 2006).

However, though scholars indicate the prevalence of boycott actions in northern European countries (Ferrer, 2004; García-Arrizabalaga, 2010; Micheletti et

al., 2012), no study is found on analysis of this visible gap between the northern, southern and eastern European countries or comparing political consumers' profile. Moreover, no study was found on the investigation of the profile of political consumers in the southern and eastern European countries. Thus, these undiscovered issues determine the main idea of the research for the present PhD thesis.

## 5.2. Prevalence of boycott in European countries

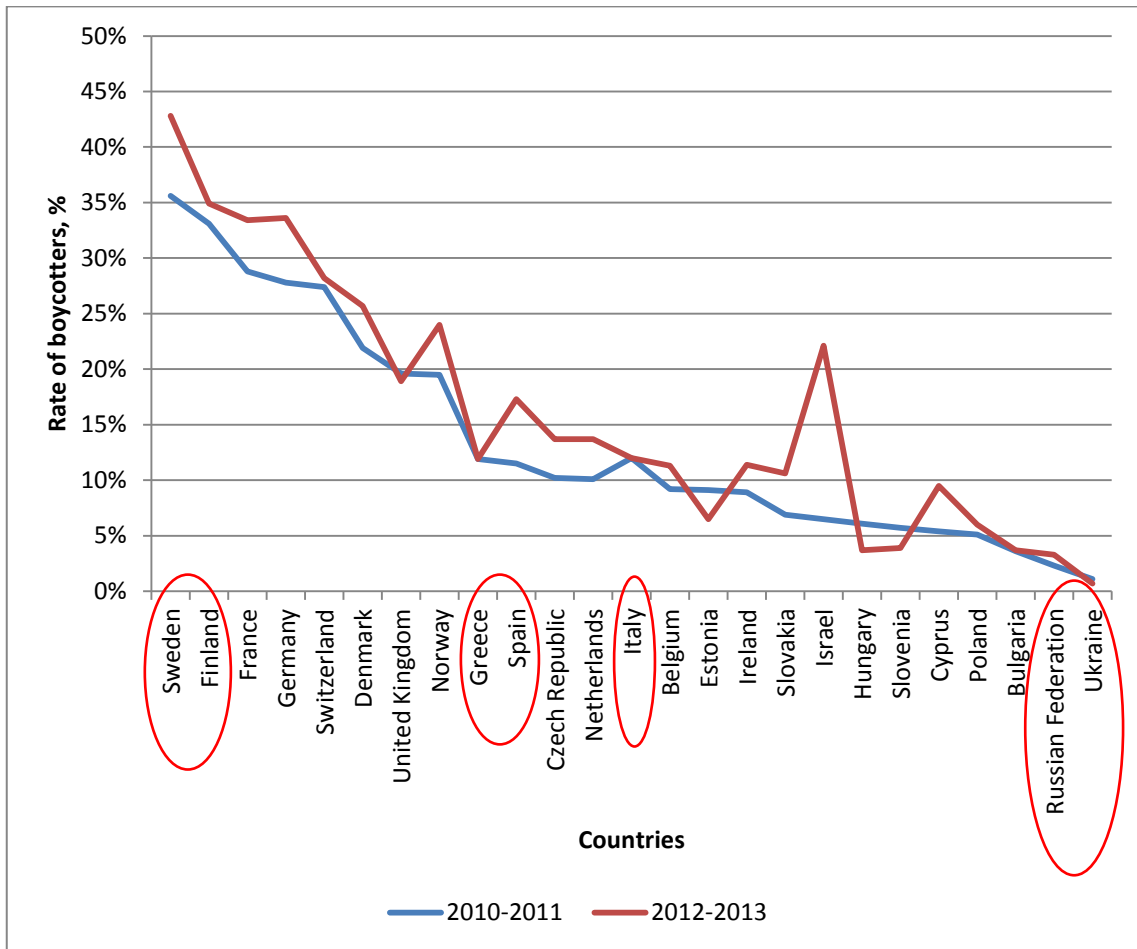
Grounding on the obtained results scholars argue that countries-leaders of this type of participation are obviously Scandinavian countries (Ferrer, 2004; Stolle et al., 2005), such as Sweden, Finland, Norway, Denmark, and additionally Switzerland, Germany, UK, while southern or eastern locations do not seem to be involved that much. Using data from the fifth and sixth waves of the European Social Survey we also check this assumption (see Table 5, Graph 3).

Table 5. Percentage rate of boycotters by countries, 2010-2013.

Country	2010-2011	2012-2013
Sweden	35.6%	42.8%
Finland	33.1%	34.9%
France	28.8%	33.4%
Germany	27.8%	33.6%
Switzerland	27.4%	28.2%
Denmark	21.9%	25.7%
United Kingdom	19.6%	18.9%
Norway	19.5%	24.0%
Greece	11.9%	—
Spain	11.5%	17.3%
Czech Republic	10.2%	13.7%
Netherlands	10.1%	13.7%
Italy	—	12.0%
Belgium	9.2%	11.3%
Estonia	9.1%	6.5%
Ireland	8.9%	11.4%
Slovakia	6.9%	10.6%
Israel	6.5%	22.1%
Hungary	6.1%	3.7%
Slovenia	5.7%	3.9%
Cyprus	5.4%	9.5%
Poland	5.1%	6.0%
Bulgaria	3.6%	3.7%
Russian Federation	2.3%	3.3%
Ukraine	1.1%	0.7%

Source: Own research based on the ESS (2010-2013).

Graph 3. Rate of boycotters by countries (2010-2013).



Source: Own research based on the ESS (2010-2013).

Thus, we observe that the previous findings by scholars are supported: countries-leaders of political consumerism movements are obviously located in the northern part of Europe with Sweden and Finland at the top. The middle of the scale is taken up mostly by the southern European countries as Greece, Spain and Italy. And eastern European countries such as Russian Federation and Ukraine do not indicate high involvement of citizens into political consumerism participation.

It can be concluded that movements towards creating a new ethical environment, safe and sustainable society are spreading all over the world, and the

most active participants are Swedes. In 2006 the investigation based on the European Social Survey also displayed that 60% of the population answered they have ever buy- or boycotted certain product during the last year (Ferrer & Fraile, 2006). Perhaps, great contribution to this fact makes the Swedish Society for Nature Conservation and the Nordic Council of Ministers (NCOM), who presented eco-labelling systems and constantly stirs up citizens' interest in purchasing ecological and organic products. According to the Nordic Consumer Survey (2013) 95% of respondents recognise the Nordic Ecolabel with the "Swan" logo and 78% say they trust the Nordic Ecolabel.

Concerning eastern countries, especially Russian Federation, experts note that social responsibility issues are on the stage of infancy (Cone Communications/Echo, 2013), and though many consumers respond that businesses exist only for making profit, there are visible portents that individuals and companies come to collaboration in addressing social and environmental issues, confirming the beginning of social responsibility development. The problem of these countries is assumed as consumers' incredulity in playing a significant part in solving social and environmental problems.

In 2013 24% of Russians responded they had great confidence in impossibility of producing global ethical impact through their buying decisions (Cone Communications/Echo, 2013). However, when choosing an employer or where to invest, great majority of eastern citizens prefers to address companies implying social responsible practices in their policy, what suggests the existence of self-beneficial matter as a driver of behaviour. Indeed, 37% of respondents would buy ethical-oriented products if they brought improvements to their own lives, or if they perceived a clear individual benefit (vs. 23% globally in other countries). Yurii Slinkin, general manager of BVC Russia, confirms that Russians have a strong belief that success is always individual, self-made issue, not collective.

“Without a clear tie to the brand, consumers think companies make donations just to check a box, or to be in a good graces of government. That kind of CSR comes off superficial, and the people do not trust it”, - concludes the expert (Cone Communications/Echo, 2013: 48). Still, according to consumers’ reports they would be eager to engage to political consumerism actions, if there was plenty information in social media.

### **5.3. Types of political consumers**

Going further, many scholars examined traits peculiar to political consumers, trying to identify the profile of typical political consumer. With some amendments, motivations to act as a socially responsible consumer are applied on a global scale. However, it is obvious that not all the shoppers are created equal, they differ in their intentions, what stipulates the necessity of implying different tactics, approaches and strategies for companies.

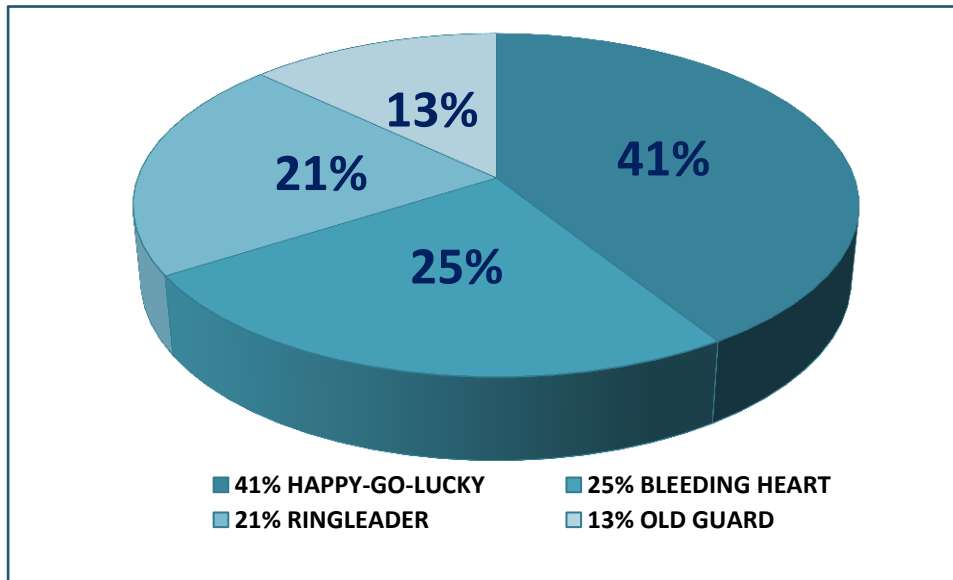
The mentioned researches on characteristics of consumers who base their purchasing decisions on the aspects of social responsibility characteristics started long time ago (Anderson & Cunningham, 1972). Given to the close relation of political consumerism with CSR, we can expect the same socio-demographic factors to affect deliberate marketing choices of consumers. However, the previous findings show that socially responsible consumers differ more due to socio-psychological variables than demographic ones (Anderson & Cunningham, 1972; Kinnear et al., 1974; Webster, 1975). And the general profile of socially responsible consumer was revealed as following:

- middle-aged female;
- possessing relatively high occupational and socioeconomic status;
- cosmopolitan;
- ecologically concerned;
- willing to bring social change through buying decisions;
- less dogmatic, conservative, status conscious, alienated, and personally competent than ordinary consumer.

However, the recent data from 2013 Cone Communications/Echo composed global consumer responsibility segmentation, based on the related question-

naire, which reflects how consumers view their role in addressing social and environmental issues through their buying decisions. According to their findings a very interesting amalgamated profile with specific demographic and psychographic characteristics of each personality type was created, providing assistance for companies to form their ethically-oriented strategies (see Graph 4, Table 6).

Graph 4. Segmentation of socially responsible consumers.



Source: Adapted from Cone Communications/Echo Global CSR Study (2013).

Table 6. Main characteristics of each socially responsible consumer type.

Characteristics of consumer	Type of consumer			
	HAPPY-GO-LUCKY	BLEEDING HEART	RINGLEADER	OLD GUARD
%	41%	25%	21%	13%
Gender	Male or female	Female	Male or female	Male
Age	18-34	18-34	35+	55+
Key takea-	Make infor-	Demonstrate	Establish dia-	Make it personal

<b>ways</b>	mation easily accessible	personal and corporate impact	logue	and local
	Focus on dual benefits	Encourage feedback	Be transparent and detailed	Keep engagement turn-key
	Provide simple ways to get involved	Make messages shareable	Consider a collaborative approach	Stick to traditional communications

Source: Adapted from Cone Communications/Echo Global CSR Study (2013).

Almost half of socially responsible consumers are so-called *Happy-Go-Lucky*, who assumes that to buy socially and environmentally responsible products is their role in formation of sustainable behaviour, provided that it is convenient. These people are happy and sanguine realizing that they can bring an impact through their shopping bag; however, it is not the most important driver of their buying decisions, since they prefer the concept of convenience above all the others, what means that they are likely to purchase ethically only if this opportunity presents itself. Moreover, these consumers prefer dual-benefit products, which also bring them a feeling of good about themselves. Due to the young age of *Happy-Go-Lucky*, they engage to political consumerism using social media, willingly sharing knowledge with their relatives and friends. It is a very progressive method of involvement, though companies are conscious about the possibility of sharing not only positive, but also negative information, since half of this group (51%) reported about participating in such activity as consumer boycott.

The next segment, which rallies a quarter of socially responsible consumers, belongs to young educated women. The name *Bleeding Heart* reflects their sympathy and emotional experiences to the global and local problems, strong desire to save the world, to help improving social and environmental issues with every single opportunity. Showing her empathy, this female makes her purchases consciously, equally supporting boycott and boycott practices. Thus, 57% of *Bleeding Hearts* have already boycotted certain products, while 92% confirm their

likelihood to reject buying goods or using service of the company, whose actions they consider unethical. Nevertheless, in spite of their benevolence, one of the traits of this type of consumers is incertitude in the real power of their shopping actions.

Contrary to those, *Ringleaders* (21%) have a very strong confidence in positive effects they bring to the world through their consumption. Furthermore, they not only engage in ethical behaviour individually, but act as aggressive promoters, inclining others to pursue the same objectives, encouraging them, this way trying to involve more citizens to act virtuously. These consumers believe in significant impact they make through their shopping bag that much, so they do not hesitate to make their own researches on policies of different companies, to reveal whether they meet ethical requirements using all sources of information, including on-pack (26%) and traditional (18%) media channels. Ringleaders take into account social responsibility concepts also when they decide which product recommend or not to their friends and relatives. As regards boycott practices, statistics show an impressive number: 71% is most likely refuse supporting particular brand if there appears negative action from its part.

The smallest segment of consumers (13%) is represented by elderly people, *Old Guards*. These individuals still have old-fashioned drivers of their buying decisions: price, quality and comfort. They interpret the fact they purchase something ethically is more probably to be fortuitousness than deliberate support or denunciation of any certain service, product or brand. Expressed numerically, only 41% of them bought socially responsible product the last year (2013), and even less (31%) are ready to be involved in boycott action if they suppose the “guilty” company actually deserves it. However, with all seeming aloofness the Old Guards should not be withdrawn from the list of ethical consumers. A lot of them (77%) show interest in information related to socially responsible implica-

tions in firms' policy, and above 80% will be more trustful and loyal towards the company considering ethical issues in its manufacturing process.

Nevertheless, at present, scholars' arguments are overburdened with the theoretical inferences, but not much of empirical evidence is adduced. There are also different attitudes to the concept of political consumerism, and opinions from the sides both adherents and adversaries have to be considered. Moreover, there is no almost any investigation in the "lagging countries", neither any study, based on the comparison between countries-leaders and countries, which stand at the bottom of the list. Also, the fact that socioeconomic disparity in output is obvious in most European countries argues with the past investigations, deserves further consideration and explanation. Thus, there seems to be a considerable gap between understanding consumers' profile and behaviour in the northern, southern and eastern European countries.

Consumers in different countries appraise their responsibilities and their powers as consumers in different ways. The possible explanations of these dissimilarities lay in the ways consumption is differently framed in all the countries, due to variations in markets, governance structures, and political and cultural histories. On the consumer side, it is noticed that there are everyday mechanisms serving to hamper the development of widespread political consumerism. First of all, the bulk of mundane consumption is normally outside the area for reflective choice. Moreover, the complexities of everyday life demand negotiations between conflicting moral and ethical considerations. Ethical concerns for distant causes often lose out against the moral obligation to care for the close ones through sound family budgeting. These mechanisms significantly delimit the market for ethical products. One of the main research questions, flowing from the scholars' discussions, whether there are existing considerable gaps in the level of involvement into political consumerism between different population

groups of European countries. Moreover, while determining the difference between political consumers it is necessary to assess which factors act as distinctive ones. Thus, understanding and narrowing the gap between boycotter of northern, southern and eastern European countries is considered crucial to the sustainability of ethical trading.

#### **5.4. Influence of geographical location**

As we have already pointed out (see Chapter 5.2), political consumerism is not equal between different countries and significantly differs between various cultures (Ger & Belk, 1999; Gallego, 2007). As far as another designation of this concept is “ethical consumerism”, and it is assumed that ethics is a part of culture, it is very important to undertake the study of this phenomenon in different geographical clusters to reveal the differences between political consumers.

People from different cultures perceive social and gender roles, moral values, laws, traditional rights, privileges and obligations unequally (Gallego, 2007), and this significantly shapes consumers’ perception of what is good and bad practice in the market. A possible explanation of these dissimilarities is that consumption might be framed differently in various countries due to diverse reasons: variations in markets, personal traits, governance structures, political and cultural histories, education and others. Some of the listed factors might be justified in sources such as the Human Development Index (United Nations Development Programme, 2014), OECD Better Life Index (OECD Better Life Index) and Quality of Life Index (Numbeo Database, 2013). Thus, we assume that geographical location and citizenship generally constitute socially responsible consumer behaviour.

As an example, the illustration of cultural differences among consumers is found in the research by Ger & Belk (1999), which examines behaviour and perceptions of consumers from the USA, Western Europe, Turkey and Romania. A major characteristic of interviewed consumers was a desire to have a better life, to possess materialistic things and to receive services of a better quality. However, though they shared the same wishes and ideas, consumers had different explanations and expositions of their behaviour, which were more similar among the respondents from the same countries. Americans and Romanians said that they

deserved more than they actually had. However, US citizens justified this due to their hard work and cleverness, and Romanians cited the deprivation from the years of communism. Western Europeans considered spending money on better food, music, entertainment and travelling as non-materialistic things, blaming Americans for being too materialistic because of their passion for high-tech gadgets. Turks mostly pointed to their families to justify their requirements. Thus, the research by Ger & Belk (1999) confirms the existence of cultural disparities among consumers' perception of the same things and actions. This finding corresponds to suggestion that consumer behaviour is shaped by commonly accepted cultural ethical patterns (Bolzendahl & Coffé, 2013).

However, presently, there remains a huge gap in empirical investigation on the concept of political consumerism. Unconditionally, theoretical perspectives discussed by scholars are very important and have to be listened to, but representative empirical evidence deserves to be investigated more thoroughly. Additionally, there is a notable lack of inquiries on political consumerism in southern and eastern European countries, both theoretical and experimental.

Our study can contribute to the world of literature as it is one of the very few studies on political consumerism in southern and eastern Europe, detecting the profile of political consumers of the countries, where this type of activity is not spread that much, revealing the differences between three European clusters according to their geographical location; and also it combines both micro- and macroeconomic research questions, examining sociological matters and trying to discover special traits that are peculiar to the citizens of the South and East. We tend to believe that the defining the profile of ethical consumers will lead to better understanding of consumers' behaviour. Additionally, we suspect our findings will help to resolve previously discussed questions in the world of research.

## 5.5. Research question and hypotheses

The question being in the centre of a lot of researches is “Why do modern consumers consume?” It is necessary to define those, who act as immediate drivers of this form of participation. Apart from global image of socially responsible consumers, there are some investigations on specific characteristics of Scandinavian political consumers, but no any research for the southern and eastern Europe can be found. Who are these political consumers? Is it almost every consumer involved in boycotting or buycotting practice or is it a small cluster of a Nordic population? What is their gender, level of education, occupational status? To which stratum of society do they belong? What is their level of income, are they among the poorest or the richest groups of society? What values do they have, are they happy with their lives? These and many other questions are in the centre of the studies on the profile of political consumers and have been there all the time. As far as presented studies on political consumerism are mostly of the Scandinavian countries, the next logical research question emerges:

***RQ: “What is the difference between political consumerism presented in northern, southern and eastern European countries?”***

While the assumption would appear to hold true at a first glance, a more in-depth look is needed in order to comprehend modern consumerism.

### 5.5.1. Interest in politics

Political consumerism mainly includes aspects from economics, politics and sociology, intertwines them and results in a dynamic and modern subject to study,

which implies a multitude of contradictions. For example, actors of political science are conventionally governments, nations or individuals; and traditionally, citizens are seen as a distinctive driver from consumers. However, in the case of political consumerism these concepts become a unique actor, that base its fundamental element. In this perspective, political consumerism changes traditionally separated public and individual spheres, and shows that politics is not something what is practiced only among political parties. Such individual acts as everyday shopping and consumption become public, and in the political approach it is seen as “lifestyle politics”.

Political consumerism is seen as a social phenomenon, and its understanding should be based on knowledge of fundamental changes in political participation. In many countries political research has shown that citizens are more inclined to regard the market as a channel for political participation (Andersen & Tobiasen, 2001; Micheletti, 2001). Thus, today’s consumers may be concerned as actual or potential political actors (Micheletti, 2001).

Individuals with a well-developed consumer identity and representatives of consumer organizations have been acting on the political stage for a long time (Jensen, 1986). Modern ordinary consumers also apparently realize that their decisions can be used for more than satisfying private needs and wants. This happens mainly due to the fact that consumers are increasingly being involved in solving political problems. They have been invited to do this not only by interest groups, companies, public authorities, and the mass media, but also by representatives of the institutionalized political system who have all contributed to increasing the politicization of markets (Jensen, 2003).

Existence of the Internet and social media networks has helped to promote political consumerism, and by 2005 general surveys such as the Australian Survey of Social Attitudes, for example, have found that over a third of Australians had

been engaged in political consumerism in the preceding year, and it was the most popular form of political participation apart from signing petitions (Sawer, 2013). Political science, however, was slow to investigate this form of political participation.

The literature situates consumer activism as an alternative to conventional participation for three main reasons. First, most of the literature attributes the expansion of political consumerism to the rise of post materialist values and engaged citizenship norms in established democracies in the decades following World War II (Micheletti, 2003; Micheletti et al., 2004; Stolle, Hooghe & Micheletti, 2005). According to these theories, people who have post materialist values and/or engaged citizenship norms prefer to participate in elite-challenging forms of participation that are characterized by looser ties, and focused on lifestyle politics (Inglehart, 1997; Bennett, 2008; Dalton, 2009). In other words, these theories suggest that people with post materialist values and/or engaged citizenship norms eschew conventional participation in favour of unconventional and direct forms of participation.

Risk-society theorists add that direct forms of political action like political consumerism represent a reaction against the state. When people believe they cannot trust governments to address social and political problems effectively they keep from conventional political activity in favour of direct forms of political action like political consumerism (Beck, 1992, 1997; Beck, Giddens & Lash, 1994). According to these theories, the emergence of technological and environmental risks in post-industrial societies calls for a new kind of politics, which goes beyond representative institutions associated with nation states, emphasizes the importance of coalition building between non-state actors, and calls upon individuals to manage and take responsibility for their personal and collective well-being. For example, people may use data from non-profit organizations

and information from labelling schemes to deliberately purchase food that minimizes their exposure to environmental risks (Beck, 1992, 1997; Halkier, 2004). They may also boycott companies whose policies pose a threat to the environment. In the mid-1990s, for example, consumer boycotts in North-Western Europe impelled Shell Oil to change the way of obsolete oil rigs disposal (Beck, 1997).

Finally, consumer activism has been conceptualized as an activity that appeals to people who feel alienated or isolated from traditional political settings (Micheletti, 2003; Micheletti, Føllesdal & Stolle, 2003). Throughout the history, marginalized groups have used consumer activism to detect and bind political preferences and demands. Conspicuous examples include, for example, colonists' boycotts of British goods during the pre-revolutionary period, women's use of buycotts to promote fair labour conditions for working-class women during the Progressive era, and African Americans' use of the boycott to fight isolated seating systems on city buses during the civil rights movement. In each of these examples people resorted to boycotts and buycotts because they could not address social and political grievances through conventional channels.

Then, what are the characteristic features of consumer political behaviour we are talking about? First, consumer behaviour becomes political when speculations beyond the use-related properties of a product, such as "justice or fairness, or an assessment of business or government practices" (Stolle et al., 2005: 246) enter into the calculations of a buying decision. The finding that political motives can be present in the formation of consumer behaviour is well-supported by the historical record on politicized consumer action in the United States (Newman & Bartels, 2010). Further studies of consumer behaviour and marketing identify politically-specified moral and ethical considerations as the main motivations underlying consumer behaviour. These investigations have

found that consumers' concern about the political, social, and ethical dimensions of firm behaviour and consumer choice had an incredible growth since the beginning of the 21<sup>st</sup> century (Doane, 2001).

Second, consumer behaviour becomes politicized when buy- or boycotting a product is intended to exert influence over the decisions and behaviours of other actors (Stolle et al., 2005). This feature of political consumerism from the citizen's perspective – the intention to force someone to behave in line with one's own preferences – clearly links the motive underlying political consumerism to standard notions of the exercise of power as a central feature of politics. In short, consumer choice is politicized when it is used as a means of expressing policy preferences and as a vehicle for exercising influence over the behaviour of others in order to obtain specific political and economic outcomes.

Consequently, the possible reason of this disparity of participation in political consumerism between different geographical clusters is the level of interest in political ambient in general. Existing findings point out that citizens who are more interested in politics also act as political consumers (Strømsnes, 2008), especially in Scandinavian countries. Additionally, the studies comparing political interest on different levels (international, European, national and local) show that all the political consumers are involved in different political activities. To verify if political concernment affects involvement into political consumerism we state the first hypotheses:

<b>H1</b>		
<b><i>There is a positive correlation between participation in boycotts and interest in politics.</i></b>		
<b>H1A</b>	<b>H1B</b>	<b>H1C</b>
<b><i>Boycotters from the southern European countries are less interested in politics than boycotters from northern Europe.</i></b>	<b><i>Boycotters from the eastern European countries are less interested in politics than boycotters from northern Europe.</i></b>	<b><i>Boycotters from the eastern European countries are less interested in politics than boycotters from southern Europe.</i></b>

### 5.5.2. Political Activity

Political consumerism has become an increasingly significant form of political engagement among all age categories. It is one of the forms of political participation that is continuing to increase, like signing petitions and other online activism and unlike party membership. Political science is catching up with it and developing new understandings of political participation to match the new forms of engagement.

Some researches call political consumerism “a novel form of extra electoral political participation” (Newman & Bartels, 2010: 804). It is admitted, that there is a relation between political consumerism and participation in politics in general. The principal political components of political consumerism are grounded on the subjective political meaning given to consumer choice and the political purposes behind these choices.

However, there are many disputes among scholars regarding the civic value of newly appeared citizenship practices. Some of them come to conclusion that

emerging non-traditional forms of political participation cause recession of participation in public life, and it is considered as a trend towards individualism (Gotlieb & Wells, 2012), and as a sequence it leads to the backward movement from the traditional activities. Researches state that habitual forms of politics have collective, public characteristics, that are substituted now by recent fresher trends, “extremely personal” and individual-oriented modes (Putnam, 2000) held by the leaders of post-civic generations. To recapitulate, this point of view assumes that supporters of these emerging political tenors are not involved into traditional politics, but represent a new separated brunch.

Contrary to this opinion other experts say that political consumerism is a complement to the traditional ways of participation. Some of them argue that these forms strengthen the conventional civic and political engagement, and there is a proof that among 20...29-year-old people political consumerism is seen as one of the branches of conventional participation (Stolle et al., 2010). According to this opinion political consumerism is viewed as an extension of habitual modes of participation, supporters of this movement do not act as opponents to usual forms, but they are the same people with the same needs and beliefs, already involved to the traditional politics. Now they are just becoming more active, carrying their ideas further with more hunger for being heard, not only through simple voting (Dalton, 2009).

Thus, these arguments pose that the consumers who are engaged in emerged activities as socially conscious purchasing decision-making are the same citizens who actively participate in traditional forms of politics and continue to carry the same ideas. Shaw & Black (2010) insist that political consumerism should be emboldened as a supplementary form of political actions and participants should be urged to be involved with traditional political mechanisms to help assure that the most powerful strategy, government intervention, is mobilized.

Given in this context, do political consumers also show a high citizen position of involvement into habitual forms of political participation?

The term “political participation” has been defined by different psychological and political investigators in a different way. It is seen as a voter turnout, involvement into campaign activities and electoral success (Ekman & Amnå, 2012; Lawless & Fox, 2012). Other scholars relate political activity with participation in political discussions, acting as a volunteer for campaigns, using mass media for political information acquisition or showing high level of activity in community politics (Alozie, Simon & Merrill, 2003). Political participation can also be viewed as a mix of preceding designations, for example, as the willingness to accept and to be involved into politically related behaviours, and what is measured by three different conceptions: political effectiveness, political activity and longing for becoming political representative (Estevez Cores, 2013).

To reveal whether this statement is valid or erroneous, we state the next hypotheses:

<b>H2</b>		
<b><i>There is a positive correlation between participation in boycotts and political activity.</i></b>		
<b>H2A</b>	<b>H2B</b>	<b>H2C</b>
<b><i>Boycotters from southern European countries show less engagement into political activity than boycotters from northern Europe.</i></b>	<b><i>Boycotters from eastern European countries show less engagement into political activity than boycotters from northern Europe.</i></b>	<b><i>Boycotters from eastern European countries show less engagement into political activity than boycotters from southern Europe.</i></b>

### *5.5.3. Satisfaction with government and democracy*

Going further, interest and participation in politics goes hand by hand with an attitude to the way government and democracy work in the country. In spite of some scholars' approvals of a strong relation between political consumers and the democratic potential, others argue that it is not even an optional form of engagement (Baek, 2010). Historical trends such as identity or lifestyle are being known to emerge from advanced countries, such as the United States or Western Europe, but even in these countries the new types of involvement are spread with a high level of inequality, specifically due to different levels of citizens' high education and total household income they have. Thus, political consumers cannot be a universal community to treat social disparity neither on a national nor on a worldwide level. Baek (2010) underlines that those who accept democratic potential of political consumerism are too rash and hasty in their conclusions.

Researcher also asserts that political consumerism is anti-democratic movement, citing the Frankfurt School as an example. With respect to consumption Frankfurt School alleges that collective culture does not have the vigour to liberate people and that consumers have to remain in the existing circumstances. In the market absolutely the same products are offered to everybody, though in mass culture this process goes through standardization which is masked and served as "individualization" (Baek, 2010). Despite many scholars condemn the concept of the Frankfurt School, considering it superfluously pessimistic, there is still a point that consumption can divert people from public engagement (Schudson, 2007).

Baek (2010) states that particular consumer boycotts cannot be democratic in the name of humanity, giving as an example Nazi boycotting of Jewish lawyers and medics. A range of other modern boycotts cannot be considered either

democratic or humanitarian due to the lack of corresponding motivation, such as the Walmart boycott by orthodox Christians. Though this boycott is distinctly political in character, it has a problem of being led with a lack of a sense of humanity, without the consideration of others. Political participation is not always a synonym to democratic behaviour. Researches assert that though consumption, even if it is political one, has common traits with democratic citizenship, these concepts nevertheless cannot be equated.

Yet do citizens who use this form of participation turn away from national politics and national political institutions? In other words, do citizens adopt this mode of participation because they feel alienated from the political system, what would in effect mean that such behaviour is the weapon only of outsiders? Theories of risk society or sub-politics and post materialism explain the occurrence of emerging forms of political action by emphasizing how citizens increasingly develop a lack of satisfaction with the capacity of government (Beck, 1992; Inglehart, 1998). Citizens fear that government either does not understand or cannot control new uncertainties and risks that characterize society today. They search for new ideas, arenas, and methods to work on these important political problems (Shapiro & Hacker-Cordón, 1999). As a result, they choose to take on this responsibility themselves rather than delegating it to professional political actors (Beck, 1992). Concerns about governability and ungovernability therefore can motivate citizens to venture into new or simply different forms of political participation.

Indubitably, one of the prominent roles we play in society is the role of a consumer. As it is seen, a central set of questions about ethical consumerism stems from the fact that some decisions in a liberal democracy should be made through a market process, while others should be made through a democratic legislative process, and the role of a modern consumer effectively straddles the

boundary between these two domains. Once we appreciate how the ethics of political consumerism involves a question about the responsibilities of a consumer in a liberal democracy, it becomes quite natural to approach the issue by asking how consumers might be required to think about their purchasing decisions in different contexts. Shaw & Black (2010) also assert that boycotting is a signal to governments providing it with the information to which extent citizens are ready to pay for change, what lessening in utility they are prepared to accept and which supplementary actions and movements they are ready to undertake.

Since 1970's citizens in a number of countries have become more disposed to reflect their dissatisfaction with governments in public and to express this discontent frankly (Nevitte & Kanji, 2002). Though, accidental citizen discontent with a particular government is seen as a normal occurrence, the problem appears in the possibility of interweaving discontent with governments and the workings of democracy more extensively. There is no evidence from the relevant literature of democracy being in crisis nowadays, but nevertheless most citizens perceive that it does not work well (Putnam, Pharr & Dalton, 2000). One of the reasons of this perception is change of values, which have its reflections on people's desires from everyday life and their expectations from the governments. This is aroused from the postmaterialist affairs, encompassing a preference of more opened government. The same concept appears nearly in each country, and those citizens who stick to postmaterialist values are usually more censorious to conventional politics and governments, tending to be involved into challenging behaviours (Nevitte & Kanji, 2002). Citizen propensity to challenge political authority is noticed as a fundamental characteristic of open societies, and open societies have a tendency to be more flourishing. Nevertheless, what is important is that readiness of publics to influence political authority does not seem to be "just a proxy for public satisfaction with democracy".

The study of political consumerism, especially boycott activity, forces us to reconsider where we locate political participation, which links citizens to democratic government. Even in recent revisions of the political participation literature both the government and the state are seen as the ultimate targets for political action (Dalton et al., 2004). However, as states tend to lose control or meet with competition from other spheres over the authoritative allocation of values in society, citizens seek new arenas for political participation. Political consumerism is an instance of political action repertoires through which citizens overreach traditional channels for political participation to address the market and companies directly.

The example of political consumerism makes clear that citizens use political values and goals to target selected companies, international organizations, or simply public attention. The goal is not always national legislative change, as citizens are not satisfied with national governments to regulate international labour practices successfully. The study of political consumerism and similar repertoires therefore forces to expand the number and types of political targets citizens choose for their engagement. Thus, the question about satisfaction with the government and democracy presented in each particular country seems to be an important issue to consider while analysing the profile of consumer-boycotter.

It is found that public trust in political institutions is a significant predictor of level of satisfaction with democracy (Nevitte & Kanji, 2002). This also includes contentment with people who work in governmental institutions, who act as “holders of country’s concerns”. Relevant findings even suggest citizen’s confidence in people who work in government to be much more significant index of satisfaction with democracy, taking into account contextual and socio-demographic factors.

Worries about the capacity of government is an important gauge of more reflexive models of citizenship, including sustainable citizenship. If citizens fear that government does not understand and cannot control vagueness presented in the modern world, they introduce new ideas and methods to take more active responsibility for solving political problems they consider important (Beck, 1992; Inglehart, 1998). If this theoretical reasoning is correct, it should be found that political consumers are more worried about or unsatisfied with conventional institutions than other citizens. However, contrary Micheletti, Stolle & Berlin (2012) to these expectations, high satisfaction with national representative political institutions seems to incite political consumerism among those aged 30 and above (at least in Sweden), but not for the younger age group. On the other hand, higher levels of satisfaction with institutions are positively associated with engagement in political consumerism, particularly (but not only) for the young citizens. Finally as shown in other research (Berlin, 2011), dissatisfaction with governmental performance on issues of the environment, human rights and war on poverty mobilize people to practice political consumerism.

As Mariona Ferrer (2004) states, the impact on the low level of political consumerism presented in southern and eastern democracies could be years of democratic experience or political modernization, as well as the characteristics and results of welfare state regimes. The researcher suggests that citizens from countries with social and economic well-being may have stronger global politically-oriented motivations to think about poor working conditions and exploitation of the child labour in China, India, Pakistan or any other less developed country-producer, from where they buy any goods. On the contrary, in the countries where the high rate of unemployment is observed (referring mostly to southern and eastern Europe) as well as the low level of social protection from the State, citizens do not have any intention to worry about working conditions in the world because they are more concerned about their own matters. These

theoretical investigations offer the next hypotheses regarding satisfaction with government and state democracy:

<b>H3</b>		
<b><i>There is a positive correlation between participation in boycotts and satisfaction with government and democracy in the country.</i></b>		
<b>H3A</b>	<b>H3B</b>	<b>H3C</b>
<b><i>Boycotters from southern European countries are less satisfied with the government and democracy in their countries than boycotters from northern Europe.</i></b>	<b><i>Boycotters from eastern European countries are less satisfied with the government and democracy in their countries than boycotters from northern Europe.</i></b>	<b><i>Boycotters from eastern European countries are less satisfied with the government and democracy in their countries than boycotters from southern Europe.</i></b>

#### 5.5.4. Satisfaction with life

Scholars started to examine how political factors affect humans' perception of happiness and life satisfaction many years ago, and some of them, like Adam Smith, linked these studies to the governing structures and economic institutions of society (Helliwell & Putnam, 2004; Owen et al., 2008). Lately, psychologists and social researchers started to measure both personal and collective levels of happiness to understand the relationship between personal well-being with institutions, behavioural concepts and predispositions. Referring to the state governments as the main factor providing people with well-being and happiness, these researches focus on judging the quality and efficiency of the governments. In almost all of these studies life satisfaction is posed as depend-

ent variable correlated with such parameters as political culture, political freedom, level of democracy, welfare of the state, labour union density, absence of government corruption. Across a variety of investigations it was revealed that age, education, income, race, employment and marital status all have a strong relationship with self-reported life satisfaction (Blanchflower & Oswald, 2004).

On the contrary, Veenhoven (1988) argues that if people are happy, they become alienated from political participation, consequently asking if satisfaction with life would be a result of emptying of democracy because “contended idleness” would prompt to “easy conservation and political apathy” (Veenhoven, 1988: 342). Nevertheless, going through further investigations and relevant literature analyses the author finally comes to agreement that more satisfied citizens are more likely to participate actively in community organizations and are generally more interested in broader social and political issues than less happy people.

The literature on psychology gives two main explanations of the fact that mood can significantly influence decisions of anyone, which could correspond to political or buying ones. According to the *mood misattribution theory* (Schwarz & Clore, 2006), emotional signals of mood affect discernments directly by acting as empirical and actual information concerning the condition how a person feels towards an object of judgement. Thus, people make their decisions according to the mood they have at the moment, contrary to rational cogitation. In our context, voting is not an easy task for people, owing to cognitive limitations and given information about economic, social and other policies. In this way the mood misattribution theory predicts that satisfied and happy people would apply their positive spirits as a cue to incumbent success, while unhappy individuals would transform their negative emotions as indicative of incumbent failure (Healy et al., 2009).

Another elucidation lies in the *mood-congruent priming theory* (Schmid & Schmid Mast, 2010), which contends that people interpret events favourably or remember positive events when they are in a good mood, and tend to interpret information adversely or recall negative memories when they are in a bad spirit. Amenable to the experiment in a shopping centre by Isen & Simmonds (1978) people who received a free gift afterwards reported that their cars and TV sets performed better and needed less spare parts and mending, than was perceived by those who did not receive that free gift. Another research on this subject by Bower (1998) found out that individuals with stimulated happiness tended to interpret their childhood with more positive and favourable memories. Combined, these evidences imply that more satisfied people tend to make their decisions linking them to the positive outcome they might bring.

An interesting research held by Healy, Malhorta and Mo (2009) demonstrates that voters' decisions are influenced by events which affect their emotional condition even when those events are not slightly related to the government activity. These researchers have found that a victory by the local college football team in the ten days before the Election Day leads to significant increase in incumbent vote share. Additionally, the mentioned effect has been founded stronger in areas with larger fan bases as measured by game attendance and whether the local team had a long history of winning national championship. The findings also show that there was no any effect on voting behaviour produced by post-election games. Scholars have detected that happiness can impel citizens to help people, find more creative approach for problem solving, provide bigger amounts of charity, better recall positive memories. Empirical evidence shows that even a slight fluctuation of the mood, depending on such factors as for example, free gift, positive or negative statements about oneself can have significant impact even on seemingly unrelated judgement, behaviours and attitudes.

However, all the studies linked to political activism and the rate of life satisfaction show quite discrepant results. Thus, the survey from Chinese villages (Flavin & Keane, 2007) pointed out that it is much more likely to find happy people among those who vote in elections. According to Flavin's research (2007) political consumers are individuals who actively participate in voting and political process through other means and perceive the higher level of life satisfaction in general. Moreover, the magnitude of this relationship even rivals the one of education.

Veenhoven (1988), studying whether the happiness thing indeed is the driving force behind political participation, concludes that happier people do not appear to be underrepresented either in political movements or in parliaments. The positive view of this matter is supported by the finding that happy people take part in community organizations more often, and they are more concerned with political and social issues. Quite the contrary, the negative view is reflected in the fact that happy individuals tend to maintain the political status quo and slightly less inclined to be involved in boycotts, demonstrations and strikes. The author also suggests that satisfied citizens make their choices more rationally and they are more able to meet the requirements of democratic decision making.

Many economists argue that individuals buy products in order to maximize their utilities (Hayek, 1994). These utilities are typically assumed to be created in the context of the preferences of the individual and to be primarily evaluated in terms of his/her self-interest. Nowadays shopping is even referred more to the entertainment, leisure activity; it is no longer a necessity only. The long-term effects of encouraging consumerism, which is in direct conflict with the definition of being sustainable, is a real conflict to tackle as a retailer and retailers are encouraged to address this important challenge (Jones et al., 2005). In a modern

world, consumerism has induced people to seek happiness by means of constant expansion of their material standard of living. Consumerism has led to a growth of status consumption and want-creation, both of which increase consumption without contributing to happiness. Adam Smith observed that lasting happiness is found in serenity as opposed to consumption. In their pursuit for more consumption, people have forgotten about three virtues Smith observed that best provide for a placid lifestyle and general social well-being: justice, beneficence and prudence (Smith, 1982). Applying these virtues to modern society may decrease overall consumption but will lead to a more satisfied life.

As it has already been discussed above and is widely supported in literature, people can reflect their values and beliefs through what they buy and refuse to buy (Dickinson & Hollander, 1991). Further, consumption can fill the longing for a space in which to construct a sense of self and what is important in life (Kozinets, 2001). Set in this context, high levels of consumption desire can be perceived as a dominant thrust of society (Holbrook, 2005). This establishment of a consumption culture has been accompanied by mounting concern among many consumers about the impact of consumption levels generally on the natural environment as well as on their personal well-being and that of others (Diamantopoulos et al., 2003).

The survey of ethical consumerism (Barnett et al., 2005) has revealed the types of values people think about when they do an ordinary weekly shopping. The results show that primarily people are worried about the value of money, what may seem like a rather self-interested, probably individualistic concern. But this is supplemented by more ethical affairs, such as the impact of one or another product on one's health, or the general exposure on people or on their loved-ones. Customary consumption is already shaped in all types of values of taking care of other people, and sometimes, by quite definite moral values taken, for

example, from the faith communities or ethic groups to which they belong. So, there are various arenas of values, commitments and attitudes that guide people's ordinary consumption.

It is not a secret that the level of our life satisfaction directly affects our happiness' perception. The "happiness thing" has become quite an issue. Business schools are running courses on happiness and numerous books on the subject have appeared. Some economists even suggest that their subject has had it all wrong and that economic development is not the be-all-and-end-all of a nation's needs. The happiness of the population is touted as the new measure and organizations are starting to listen to the happiness merchants (Cunningham, 2006).

By the moment the relationship between level of life satisfaction and involvement to the political consumerism is an issue which has not gained almost any discussion. Therefore as previously revealed by scholars, those people who are involved into voluntary participation have a higher level of engagement into political consumerism, a higher level of life satisfaction (Howard & Gilbert, 2008) and usually are more trusting than others. Active participation in these organizations also refines the quality and quantity of political participation (Paxton, 2002) by strengthening life satisfaction (Putnam, 2000) among other factors. One of the expected behavioural effects on political consumerism and participating in voluntary organizations, apart from the higher level of trust, is the level of life satisfaction (Putnam, 2000; Howard & Gilbert, 2008). Scholars argue that happier and more trusting people are more likely to join and actively participate in voluntary associations, and therefore that higher levels of trust and life satisfaction are not necessarily products of their participation in organizations, but are instead a function of the type of people who join.

Many studies on political participation show that politically active people, especially females, are more happy with their lives than those who are alienated (Flavin & Keane, 2007; Owen et al., 2008). It is also found that there is a strong interdependence between involvement to the political activities and high levels of life satisfaction. Estevez Cores (2013) asserts in her investigation that women who are more politically active also show the higher perception of happiness in their lives.

Additionally, Ronald Inglehart (1988) states that a person's life satisfaction, interpersonal trust, political satisfaction and support for the existing social order have an effect on larger institutional processes such as economic development and democratic stability. Moreover, as follows from the previous studies there is an obvious relation between the frequency of participating in political actions and life satisfaction (Howard & Gilbert, 2008): a considerable increase between inactive and super-active categories of consumers is noted, pointing out that more satisfied citizens partake more actively.

Likewise, as can be drawn from the helping behaviour literature, people's feeling good about themselves and being enraptured by others are the main advantages of aiding, whereas self-blame and public censure are consequences of not helping (Dovidio et al., 1991). Participation enables the boycotter to boost social and personal self-esteem either by associating with a cause of a group of people or just as viewing the person as a moral one. Kozinets & Handelman (1998: 477) observe that boycotting seems to allow for a bettering that is "akin to a hygienically cleansing process". This comparison is remaining of Smith's (1990) notion that potential boycotters may believe that they are under a decent commitment to keep away from the company's products to have "clean hands". Findings of Klein's et al. research (2004) suggest that people boycott products to feel good about themselves (self-enhancement), but they are less

likely to participate if they think that specific boycott has any negative outcomes.

However, as can be seen from the literature of consumer complaining behaviour (for instance Boote, 1998), there is a strong link between consumers' discontent in general and their complaining behaviour, what provokes boycotts in its turn. One of the scenarios has the starting point when people feel uncomfortable with their lives and as a consequence begin to vent their negative emotions on the outer world. In the case they have complaints to any brand, they are more eager to use their consumer power to change situation on the market, thus directing their ambitions on this "guilty" company. Although there is another class of humans who are not happy with their lives so they are deeply concentrated on individual matters, trying to introduce better changes, so they act like "tortoises" in their shells without paying attention to the matters happening in the world of buy- and boycotts. People who are quite satisfied with the way how the things are in their lives, on the contrary, do not focus on the personal issues that much, what in its turn disengage more time to worry about global matters (such as fair trade, for example), and the ways they can improve something (Isen, Daubman & Nowicki, 1987). Happiness gives a stimulus "to help strangers, become more creative in problem solving, provide larger donations to charity, report fewer problems with consumer goods, take greater interest in one's patients, and better recall positive memories" (Healy, Malhotra & Mo, 2009: 4).

For deeper understanding the possible positive relationship between life satisfaction and political consumerism let us try to suggest some ideas why less happy people might turn to political arena more often. There is assumed that increased life gratification leads to political and social indifference (Veenhoven, 1988) because citizens see these types of participation as means of achieving

personal goals. Once the needs are satisfied and a person has achieved the subjective level of happiness, active participation fades into insignificance. In the discordant literature authors argue that when people attain certain personal level of life satisfaction they go beyond individual needs and private well-being, trying to improve more extensive things through engagement into social and political participation.

This theoretical framework has a ring of the post-materialism theory (Inglehart, 1988), when individual thinks that his happiness has already been secured, and this person begins to look outwards over personal utilities becoming involved to the political and social participation. Nevertheless, there still remains a great gap in the exploration of the correlation between life satisfaction and political participation, though Nakhaie (2006) points out that there are commingling factors which have to be under control, such as measures of social capital. Furthermore, Flavin's research (2004) has pointed out that dissatisfied citizens are not more likely to appear among those who act in the arena of political protests (a more demanding and conflictive form of participation).

Many traditional acts of participation in the American context fit within a theoretical framework that is not intrinsically contradictory. For example, settling into the private confines of the voting booth to select candidates for office is not an activity that requires one to engage people with opposite viewpoints or to defend one's political position. The same goes for sitting down at the kitchen table and writing out a check to a candidate or interest group that one supports and sending it off to them in the mail. For these forms of conventional political participation we expect citizens who are satisfied with their own lives to look beyond their own material self-interest and to be more likely to engage in political consumerism to address broader political and social concerns.

In contrast, political protest is a form of participation that is explicitly contradictory because it tends to involve direct and active confrontation with one's political opponents. The main impetus and underlying motivation of protest is rarely satisfaction, but instead discontent or even anger (Gamson, 1968). If higher levels of life satisfaction do produce a sort of "contented idleness," then we should expect citizens who are more satisfied with their lives to be less likely to participate in less conventional and more contradictory forms of participation like political protest. This prediction follows Bahry and Silver's (1990: 827) expectation that citizens who are more satisfied with their material standard of living will be more likely to engage in "conventional" forms political participation (e.g., voting) and less likely to engage in "unconventional" political participation (e.g., protests and other "unsanctioned" activity).

Generally speaking, literature on life satisfaction and political consumerism is jumbled. The limited researches that are directed to investigation of the relation between life satisfaction and consumers' activism do not give any well-defined results. As follows it is very difficult to conclude if people's feeling happy with their lives somehow affects their involvement to political consumerism. Thus, what is the relation between life satisfaction and involvement in the political consumerism? Is the reason that people from northern European countries are happy with their lives so they can afford themselves thinking about life- and world-related issues, such as pollution, health care, public education or labour conditions in India, China; or poor children whose toil is exploited to make customary goods? But if a boycott seems to be a reflection of people's discontent, why is not it popular in Russia and Ukraine, where people do not show high levels of happiness due to the low quality of life index (according to [www.numbeo.com](http://www.numbeo.com))? In what follows, we have to test empirically whether higher levels of life satisfaction truly lead to "contented idleness" and an "emptying of democracy," to increased participation as satisfied citizens seek to affect the

world beyond their own self-interest, or to a mixture of both, contingent on the type of participation under consideration. Based on these problems we venture to propose the next hypotheses, which have not been tested by researchers yet:

<b>H4</b>		
<b><i>There is a positive correlation between participation in boycotts and satisfaction with life.</i></b>		
<b>H4A</b>	<b>H4B</b>	<b>H4C</b>
<b><i>Boycotters from southern Europe are less satisfied with their lives than boycotters from northern Europe.</i></b>	<b><i>Boycotters from eastern Europe are less satisfied with their lives than boycotters from northern Europe.</i></b>	<b><i>Boycotters from eastern Europe are less satisfied with their lives than boycotters from southern Europe.</i></b>

#### 5.5.5. Gender

Since Micheletti (2003) defines political consumerism as a new window for citizens to express their views, the activists are supposed to be those who stay aloof from the traditional channels of political participation, such as women, young people and citizens who have restricted interest in institutional politics. As pointed out from the previous studies, age, education and social class emerge as the most common causes of inequality (Gallego, 2007), while gender, membership in minorities and occupation seem to be less related to the participation.

First, in many investigations gender gap is manifested as a significant matter, causing a disparity in most of political activities, such as voter turnout, protesting or political consumerism (Micheletti et al., 2003; Gallego, 2007), but nevertheless it has not been applied to the traditional forms. Some findings suggest

that men possess higher and better knowledge about ethical consumerism, though at the same time females show higher concern and tend to participate more frequently in different types of ethical behaviour and display “greener shopping habits” (Diamantopoulos et al., 2003).

The first international survey of political consumerism reported on in the *International Political Science Review* in 2005 confirmed the gender gap in preference for this form of political participation, despite male and female students reporting the same frequency of shopping. Nevertheless, as follows from the relevant researches, political consumerism is more women-friendly type of activism (Trentmann, 2001; Micheletti, 2003). Though, some scholars argue that sex, even if it was a source of disparity before, is not a factor of inequality anymore (Gallego, 2007; Paek & Nelson, 2009; Neilson, 2010), it has a very scanty effect and women consume politically as frequently as men do, the findings of studies on political consumerism show that there is a significant gender gap between political consumers (Micheletti, 2003), and it poses a relevant question how to interpret this evidence. If these gender differences countenance women, it is not considered as gender inequality, but it is better understood as a specific behaviour trait of females. Therefore, a gap remains between the reasons of this gender difference.

There are some surmises which could explain this disparity. First, in sociological studies women are considered to be more frequently shopping gender (Micheletti, 2004), thus they have more opportunities to choose their consumer’s behaviour on the market. For instance, in average Norwegian family women are responsible for more than for 80% of household goods (Strømsnes, 2008). This also includes the fact that women are considered to be more sensitive, more caring about their families, what stimulates to be more ethically motivated.

On the other hand, Daniel Miller (2001) found out how his housewife informants established a relationship between virtues as love and caring and buying behaviour. They turned “the discourse of shopping as an antisocial, hedonistic, and materialistic pursuit” into the “dutiful attempt to save money on behalf of the household at large” (Miller, 2001: 134).

Another possible reason is that due to the historical past women did not have much access to political participation (e.g. voting), and as far as political consumerism is usually considered as a political activity, boycotting different products may play a role of a peculiar political participation. According to the latest statistical data, in US, for example, there are only 20% of seats in the Senate and 17,9% of the seats in the House of Representatives are being held by women (Estevez Cores, 2013). Through decades, women were always underrepresented in the political institutions, and the only political activity where they outperform men is voting. Exploring the reasons of this inequality scholars suggest that women are politically ambitious to the same extent as men are, but they perceive gender discrimination in running for office.

However, there are some investigations related to political orientations and gender gap during the childhood, whether there are any differences in sex as regards to political interest and activity. This question has been studied since long time ago, and has resulted in contradictory results. Almost all of previous studies confirmed the fact that girls are less politically interested and less likely to possess relevant information on political issues than boys (Sapiro, 1983; Sherkat & Blocker, 1994). Nevertheless, Alozie et al. (2003) suggested that this gender discrepancy has been narrowed through years in a favour of boys. Thus, the researchers conducted a new investigation, which surprisingly did not corroborate anticipation of reduced gender gap and confirmed that girls outstrip boys in political interest and activities, and this tendency does not have dra-

matic changes in teen years (Alozie, Simon & Merrill, 2003). Baek's findings (2010) suggest that boycotters are presented by socially advantaged citizens, where males play the dominant part. Ultimately, gender-based political discrepancies act as an integral part of studies on consumers' boycotts, but as was predicted by scientists natural predisposition of men to be more active does not have significant influence on their leading role in society anymore.

Discrimination had always a place to be not only in politic institutions, but also in the other spheres of life. For example, women are underrepresented at the highest levels of management, and through the history in long-term selection of females who are not competent enough for the position enhances the stereotype that women are bad leaders. And this stereotype is not easy to break. Although, northern Europe is considered to be more advanced in the issues of feminism than, for example, Russian Federation or Ukraine, where the society still remains in the captivity of old-fashioned views. Perhaps, women consider boycotting on the market as a new, innovative chance to be involved into civic engagement or political participation, to show that they possess enough power and merit to take rational decisions.

Moreover, as can be seen from the relevant literature, one of the factors, differentiating men's and women's behaviour is a risk threshold (Micheletti, 2003): in the case of females this index is considerably lower. Thereby, women's perception of the risk being involved to political participation is minor. Thus, the next objective of our research is to define if this gender inequality exists in southern and eastern European countries, and to try to find explanation of this phenomenon.

<b>H5</b>		
<b><i>Women present larger percentage of boycotters than men in European countries.</i></b>		
<b>H5A</b>	<b>H5B</b>	<b>H5C</b>
<b><i>Boycotters from northern Europe are represented by women more than boycotters from southern Europe.</i></b>	<b><i>Boycotters from northern Europe are represented by women more than boycotters from eastern Europe.</i></b>	<b><i>Boycotters from southern Europe are represented by women more than boycotters from eastern Europe.</i></b>

#### 5.5.6. Age

One of the next significant characteristics of political consumers that have been widely studied among researchers is their age. The most common outcome of these studies is that it seems quite logical to expect young people to support newly appeared way of political participation, which is perceived by them as a threatening the existing social order, possibly requiring essential alterations in traditional values, habitual behaviours and existing institutions (Diamantopoulos et al., 2003). As society is undergoing quite significant changes and modifications nowadays, young people in particular see it as a new aperture for expressing themselves, more actively engaging in a public life. Hence, understanding the relationship between political consumers' age and their participation in newer channels is under crucial importance. Some findings suggest that newly appeared forms of political participation, such as political consumerism, are more opened to shift in and out, and might have a greater tendency to involve minorities who have previously been left out from participation (Gallego, 2007).

As provided by the World Economic Forum's Report (2013) young people, millennials (born between early 1980s to the early 2000s), are the ones to whom future belongs, who are ready and eager to change the environment through their market decisions. According to statistics, millennials represent 25% of the world's population nowadays, and they will predictably present 20% of the global population in 2030. Youth is an action-oriented age group, and at least 80% of young people have already been acting as vigorous consumers: sharing brand experiences, joining an online brand community, publishing reviews. As young people are starting to act actively in the marketplace, bringing there their ideologies, this generation is seen as a powerful group which can shape the behaviour of other people and consumer markets. They already communicate with others on the issues of recommending a brand, criticising it or willing to share their preferences online (86%). Moreover, as they are forming their predilections in market now, they will definitely influence choices and decisions of their children, the next generation.

Young people are increasingly seeking performance in expressive manners of political participation, and researches began to inspect involvement of this disposition for engagement in traditional politics. Some scholars argue that conventional politics have been improved to meet character, needs and requirements of young citizens (Benett, 2008). There is a great variety of choices of traditional modes of participation, which are on the stage of "updates" every certain period of time, and which address directly youth's personal values and expectations. However, there is also a contrary view on this engagement, other researches state that non-traditional ways of participation are more and more seizing the world nowadays, affording young citizens enlarged spectrum of opportunities, where they can satisfy their exigencies through unconventional ways of activism (Gotlieb & Wells, 2012). Though there exists a point of view, pessimistically contending that modern means of participation force out the ha-

bitual ones, asserting this process as futile since civic actors invest more effort and time in expressive behaviours, and thus forsake the previous, formally political ones (Putnam, 2000).

It is also expected that youth may suppose boycotting goods as a form of protest, and as it is widely known, young people are more often involved in different protest demonstrations (Stolle et al., 2005). A number of theoretical perspectives have shown that conventional political engagement – such as voting, contacting politicians, working in political parties – has endured significant decline since the mid-twentieth century (Putnam, 2000; Zukin et al., 2006). This decline was expounded as cohort effects, with a supersession of generations: under the changing circumstances of the modern world, the younger one appeared on the scene with dissimilar needs and requirements, with fresh standpoints and beliefs. Coherent to this diminution a stable growth of new activities is observed, sometimes replacing the traditional ones. Scholars give different designations to this phenomenon – “lifestyle politics” (Shah et al., 2007), “political engagement” (Dalton, 2009), “postmaterialist politics” (Inglehart, 1997), “rights-bearing citizenship” (Schudson, 1998) – but the main idea remains the same: increasing significance of practices which give the actor possibilities to express civic identities more complex and individual than simple party identification.

Among these newly emerged “expressive” activities protests and petitioning are incontestable leaders (Dalton, 2009). In the middle of all political activity types expressing one’s needs and beliefs by the means of politicization of consumer decisions is the one where the attention has to be attracted on, because these practices are the most frequent from those citizens use behind voting (Zukin et al., 2006). As these new forms of political activism gain more and more popularity it becomes indispensable to examine the relation of one of these types – po-

litical boycotting – and whether young citizens participate here more frequently than the older part of population.

Though some previous studies show young people are less interested in politics and active participation (Gauthier, 2002; Stolle & Hooghe, 2005), several scholars have documented how young citizens tend to develop other ways to participate in politics, and show that it is important to focus on their creative actions (Baek, 2010). According to Bennet et al. (2010) a great increment in interest in politics by young generation is observed during the last years, and one of the reason of this sharp growth is that youth is successfully implementing its creativity and good skills of using new media for civic expression and social networking. However, as a form of individualistic political action it is particularly attractive to young people, because many youngsters are more likely to engage in this form of participation than in demonstration or protest.

Pursuant to the recent research by Gotlieb & Wells (2012) age is one of the prominent characteristics of consumers who make conscious choices about the products – older generation makes its consumer purchasing decisions on the base of personal view of the product and policy of the company, while for youth participating in boycotts is more a collective action, manifestation of solidarity and relationship to those who share common beliefs and ideas. If political consumerism is considered as a collective action (Micheletti, 2003; Holzer, 2006), its essential role for young people may be to suggest a personalized but potentially collective ingress point into larger collective civic activity. For them, understanding the concept of political consumerism is a way to get to the other forms of activities through joint participation. Contrariwise, older people do not have a necessity for cooperation with others for active participation, because they already have enough experience and established opinion within political actions.

Young people also tend to see a greater merging between politics and patterns in everyday life than older people. Probably it is easier for millennials to choose politically-oriented products due to the fact that their consumer behaviour is not precisely defined yet. Also they sometimes find lifestyle politics and lifestyle political consumerism as an interesting option for individualized political action (Sandovici & Davis, 2010; Ward, 2008). However, one of the main affairs concerning young generation is that they have a lack of civic experiences that once helped to develop “habits of cooperation and public-spiritedness” in previous years (Putnam, 2000). The similar findings are discussed by Diamantopoulos et al. (2003), explaining the higher level of ethical participation by older people with the fact that younger members of population have lack of resources, although at the same moment youth is likely to state that they will gain more resources to support ethical issues in the future.

However, brands play a very important role more for the young people than for older population, they consider brand appurtenance of any purchased item. And before buying a product or using a service, millennials do not flounder to search information about company’s characteristics related to ethical behaviour. When interviewed, the majority (71%) answered that such concepts as environmentally concerned and ethical behaviour are the first criteria they check about any particular firm. Development of the Internet and high technologies promotes young consumers to be more cognizant about companies’ policies, and they also consider social media as a driver for positive changes. It is obvious, that youth use Internet more frequently and is more familiar with it. According to statistics young people address to the Internet to find out information about brands more often than other age categories do (53% vs. 37%). Due to the loads of available nowadays data, millennials tend to be more self-reliant in choosing what to buy. In a worldwide format, they check information about relevant products approximately 7.4 times every month; and most of

them do not set up a limit of one source, going beyond to an average of six different informational channels before purchasing a product or using a service.

Moreover, those young citizens who employ and create other ways of participation have been found to take interest particularly in broader community affairs and societal issues that are related to issues of justice and globalization, as illustrated by student anti-globalization, fair trade, and student sweatshop movements (Featherstone & USAS, 2002). They also utilize different tools in their political involvement, where internet-mediated activism (Livingstone et al., 2005) and political consumerism (Stolle et al., 2005) serve as examples. Micheletti (2003) has found that political consumerism is a phenomenon widely spread among the youngest groups of citizens, referring to presumed network-oriented, individualistic and global characteristics of political consumerism, which are usually inherited to Millennials.

Nevertheless, there is also a view that age is completely insignificant characteristic of political consumers' profile (Diamantopoulous et al., 2003; Zukin et al., 2006), and their intentions and motivations to be engaged into this type of activity have a greater significance. Zukin et al. state (2006: 203): "People, regardless of their age or generation, are more likely to participate in public life if they have the motivations, skills, resources, and opportunities to do so".

Consequently, it is of the paramount significance to examine whether political consumerism has any echo of its activists' age. Thus, we obtain the following objective – to analyse political consumers' age in all the three clusters:

<b>H6</b>		
<b><i>Young people present larger percentage of boycotters than older age categories in European countries.</i></b>		
<b>H6A</b>	<b>H6B</b>	<b>H6C</b>
<b><i>Boycotters from northern Europe are younger than boycotters from southern Europe.</i></b>	<b><i>Boycotters from northern Europe are younger than boycotters from eastern Europe.</i></b>	<b><i>Boycotters from southern Europe are younger than boycotters from eastern Europe.</i></b>

#### 5.5.7. Level of education and income

A large number of investigations have studied the impact of education and income on consumer ethical behaviour. Yet nowadays scholars canvass if these two variables affect consumers' decisions to act as political consumers. Wilk (2004) names economic barriers associated with price for more sustainable products while talking about the factors that determine the profile of political consumer. Furthermore, as follows from other discussions, involvement into political consumerism implies limitation of level of education and budget restrictions: "At times boycotts were the only available way for people without money, connections, suffrage, social status, and education to show others where they stood on issues of importance to them" (Micheletti, 2003: 70).

However, the most steadfast empirical proof from the past researches is the fact that advantaged level of academic background induces higher level of consumer's engagement into political consumerism activities in every country (Ferrer & Fraile, 2006; Strømsnes, 2008). The higher level of formal education is specifically significant because it provides a broader citizen outlook and promotes formation of more concerned consumer behaviour (Nevitte & Kanji,

2002). Individuals with rich educational background become more broad-minded, what in its turn allows them to organize information with a greater capacity and to use it more rationally and independently.

Besides, as a sequence of higher levels of education greater interest in politics is observed, and this provides more incentive to seek information about political concerns. Aina Gallego (2007) argues that higher levels of education increase the probability of consumption for political reasons. Discussing the concepts of ethical behaviour, scholars assume that better-educated people tend to score higher on all components of the ethical domain, and this could be explained with the deeper understanding of the complex of interactions between environment, society and consumers by people with a strong academic background (Diamantopoulos et al., 2003). These people may understand the aspects, engaged to political consumerism in a better and profound way, and therefore they are more interested in the related issues and are more motivated to bring some alterations with their responsible behaviour.

It is quite obvious that people with more years of academic background have better-paid jobs, and ethnic minorities have less educational opportunities. Also, as pointed out by scholars, educational acquirement is the most prevalent socioeconomic source of inequality in participation (Gallego, 2007). Even if the educational deflection was restricted or didn't exist in Europe (Norris, 2002), recent investigations show that these biases are becoming more and more substantial for this type of activism, which has been considered as the most equalizing (Caul, 2005).

Another frequent point of criticism is that political consumerism all over the world is an activity which belongs to high-resourced people. It is anticipated that to ignore some products and to support others may require paying higher prices. Being outside of the labour market certainly excludes people from this

practice. Baek's findings (2010) show that political consumption is usually practiced by wealthy citizens who are able to find alternative products. People cannot always select more ethical products because these options are not readily available, and there is a commonly spread belief that those products and services that are more sustainable result in higher prices and sometimes are not very convenient to use. Consumers with higher income vote and take part in boycotts more frequently. Others argue that working class and the level of revenue does not affect politics and its activities anymore, the rate of income is not the strongest factor influencing these types of activities (Gallego, 2007).

Several studies show that activists of sustainable consumer movements are substantially middle class (Andersen & Tobiasen, 2004; Stolle & Micheletti, 2005). This, of course, raises interesting questions whether political consumerism can be viewed as a means of social distinction and a middle-class attempt to assert perceived moral superiority. Indeed, Daniel Miller (2001) has prompted scholars to investigate the class-based moral imperatives and ethnocentric assumptions that underlie many sustainability movements. And, certainly, the current movement towards more sustainable lifestyles would not point out at the first time that the environment has become entangled with class politics.

However, the survey conducted by Isenhour (2010) on Sweden population shows that the majority of citizens do not mention the wealth as a factor which determines a political consumer, focusing instead on issues related to gender and age, blaming Sweden's wealthiest citizens for their overconsumption. One of the participants of the survey says: "Yes, they are egoistic, they have a really good income but that is because that is what they value, they make money because that is all they care about. They are destroying the earth but they do not care about others, they have very low solidarity with other people or groups of

other people. And they are consuming at the costs of other people's lives" (Isenhour, 2010: 521).

Nevertheless, we do not have authentic information whether employment situation in Europe is considered as a spring of disadvantage as it is found in the United States (Isenhour, 2010). Nowadays the employment situation is not the one which suits to the so-called full-employment society. According to the Eurostat data (2013), there is presented a high rate of unemployment in southern countries under our analysis (especially 27,8% in Greece and 25,8% in Spain; Italy has 12,7%), while northern European countries do not possess these high rates (8,0% and 8,4% in Sweden and Finland respectively). Interesting that even lower level of unemployment is observed in eastern countries under investigation (5,5% and 7,2% in Russian Federation and Ukraine respectively) (<http://www.gks.ru/>, <http://ukrstat.org/>). Unemployment and new forms of limited employment contracts gain more and more significance nowadays, when job temporality creates a horizontal division of the labour market where analogous jobs differ by working conditions and earnings. As can be predicted, unemployment and temporality, default of stability may act as springs of participation disparity or influence on the type of participation involvement.

There is also opinion that discontent with occupational status or employment situation can be a result of political radicalization or removal of participation activities because of perception of low political efficacy, what results in political sloth and disenchantment (Gallego, 2007). However, the further findings show that unemployed and temporary workers vote less frequently than workers with unlimited contracts, but if there are quite important distinctions concerning other ways of participation, they show more active position.

Thus, the last hypotheses we have to verify are:

<b>H7</b>		
<b><i>There is a positive correlation between participation in boycotts and level of education.</i></b>		
<b>H7A</b>	<b>H7B</b>	<b>H7C</b>
<b><i>Boycotters from southern European countries have lower level of education than boycotters from northern Europe.</i></b>	<b><i>Boycotters from eastern European countries have lower level of education than boycotters from northern Europe.</i></b>	<b><i>Boycotters from eastern European countries have lower level of education than boycotters from southern Europe.</i></b>

<b>H8</b>		
<b><i>There is a positive correlation between participation in boycotts and level of income.</i></b>		
<b>H8A</b>	<b>H8B</b>	<b>H8C</b>
<b><i>Among boycotters there are more people with high level of income in northern European countries than in southern Europe.</i></b>	<b><i>Among boycotters there are more people with high level of income in northern European countries than in eastern Europe.</i></b>	<b><i>Among boycotters there are more people with high level of income in southern European countries than in eastern Europe.</i></b>

Thus, we have defined eight principal hypotheses, each supplemented with three sub-sections. To show target objectives of the current research more accurately we present all specific issues under consideration in one table, which also contains references to scholars who support our hypotheses or have a contrary opinion on the relevant issues (see Table 7).

Table 7. Hypotheses of the present research.

<b>RQ: What is the difference between political consumerism presented in northern, southern and eastern European countries?</b>	
<b>H1: There is a positive correlation between participation in boycotts and interest in politics.</b>	
<p>H1A: Boycotters from southern European countries are less interested in politics than boycotters from northern Europe.</p> <p>H1B: Boycotters from eastern European countries are less interested in politics than boycotters from northern Europe.</p> <p>H1C: Boycotters from eastern European countries are less interested in politics than boycotters from southern Europe.</p>	
Political consumerism is a conventional form of political participation.	Political consumerism is not conventional form of political participation.
Beck (1992); Beck, Giddens & Lash (1994); Andersen & Tobiasen (2001); Micheletti (2001); Jensen, (2003); Stolle et al. (2005); Strømsnes (2008); Newman & Bartels (2010); Sawyer (2013).	Inglehart (1997); Bennett (2008); Dalton (2009).
<b>H2: There is a positive correlation between participation in boycotts and political activity.</b>	
<p>H2A: Boycotters from southern European countries show less engagement into political participation than boycotters from northern Europe.</p> <p>H2B: Boycotters from eastern European countries show less engagement into political participation than boycotters from northern Europe.</p> <p>H2C: Boycotters from eastern European countries show less engagement into political participation than boycotters from southern Europe.</p>	
Boycotters are politically active.	Boycotters are not politically active.
Dalton (2009); Newman & Bartels (2010); Shaw & Black (2010); Stolle et al. (2010).	Putnam (2000); Gotlieb & Wells (2012).
<b>H3: There is a positive correlation between participation in boycotts and satisfaction with the way democracy and government work in the country.</b>	
<p>H3A: Boycotters from southern European countries are less satisfied with the government and democracy of their countries than boycotters from northern Europe.</p> <p>H3B: Boycotters from eastern European countries are less satisfied with the government and democracy of their countries than boycotters from northern Europe.</p> <p>H3C: Boycotters from eastern European countries are less satisfied with the government and democracy of their countries than boycotters from southern Europe.</p>	
Boycotters are satisfied with government and democracy in the country.	Boycotters are not satisfied with government and democracy in the country.
Mariona Ferrer (2004); Micheletti, Stolle & Berlin (2012).	Beck (1992); Inglehart (1998);

		Shapiro & Hacker-Cordón (1999); Putnam, Pharr & Dalton (2000); Baek (2010); Shaw & Black (2010); Berlin (2011).
<p><b>H4: There is a positive correlation between participation in boycotts and satisfaction with life.</b></p> <p>H4A: Boycotters from southern Europe are less satisfied with their lives than boycotters from northern Europe. H4B: Boycotters from eastern Europe are less satisfied with their lives than boycotters from northern Europe. H4C: Boycotters from eastern Europe are less satisfied with their lives than boycotters from southern Europe.</p>		
Boycotters are satisfied with their lives.		Boycotters are not satisfied with their lives.
Dovidio et al. (1991); Kozinets & Handelman (1998); Putnam (2000); Diamantopoulos et al. (2003); Flavin (2007); Flavin & Keane (2007); Howard & Gilbert (2008); Owen et al. (2008); Estevez Cores (2013).		Gamson (1968); Bahry & Silver (1990); Boote (1998); Veenhoven (1988).
<p><b>H5: Women present larger percentage of boycotters than men in European countries.</b></p> <p>H5A: Boycotters from northern Europe are represented by women more than boycotters from southern Europe. H5B: Boycotters from northern Europe are represented by women more than boycotters from eastern Europe. H5C: Boycotters from southern Europe are represented by women more than boycotters from eastern Europe.</p>		
Boycotters are presented mostly by males.	Boycotters are presented mostly by females.	Gender does not affect inclination towards boycotting.
Alozie et al. (2003); Baek (2010).	Trentmann (2001); Alozie, Simon & Merrill (2003); Diamantopoulos et al. (2003); Micheletti (2003); Strømsnes (2008).	Gallego (2007); Paek & Nelson (2009); Neilson (2010).
<p><b>H6: Young people present larger percentage of boycotters than older age categories in European countries.</b></p> <p>H6A: Boycotters from northern Europe are younger than boycotters from southern Europe. H6B: Boycotters from northern Europe are younger than boycotters from eastern Europe. H6C: Boycotters from southern Europe are younger than boycotters from eastern Europe.</p>		
Boycotters are presented mostly by young people.	Boycotters are presented mostly by older people.	Age does not affect inclination towards boycotting.
Diamantopoulos et al. (2003);	Gauthier (2002);	Diamantopoulos et al (2003);

Micheletti (2003); Stolle et al. (2005); Holzer (2006); Benett (2008); Ward (2008); Baek (2010); Bennet et al. (2010); Sandovici & Davis (2010); Gotlieb & Wells (2012); World Economic Forum (2013).	Diamantopoulos et al. (2003); Stolle & Hooghe (2005); Gotlieb & Wells (2012).	Zukin et al. (2006).
<p><b>H7: There is a positive correlation between participation in boycotts and level of education.</b></p> <p>H7A: Boycotters from southern European countries have lower level of education than boycotters from northern Europe. H7B: Boycotters from eastern European countries have lower level of education than boycotters from northern Europe. H7C: Boycotters from eastern European countries have lower level of education than boycotters from southern Europe.</p>		
Boycotters possess high level of education.		Boycotters possess low level of education.
Nevitte & Kanji (2002); Diamantopoulos et al. (2003); Ferrer & Fraile (2006); Aina Gallego (2007); Strømsnes (2008).	Micheletti (2003).	
<p><b>H8: There is a positive correlation between participation in boycotts and level of income.</b></p> <p>H8A: Among boycotters there are more people with high level of income in northern European countries than in southern Europe. H8B: Among boycotters there are more people with high level of income in northern European countries than in eastern Europe. H8C: Among boycotters there are more people with high level of income in southern European countries than in eastern Europe.</p>		
Boycotters possess high level of income.	Boycotters possess low level of income.	Level of income does not affect inclination towards boycotting.
Wilk (2004); Ferrer & Fraile(2006); Strømsnes (2008); Baek (2010).	Micheletti (2003); Andersen & Tobiasen (2004); Stolle & Micheletti (2005).	Gallego (2007); Isenhour (2010).

Source: Own research based on literature review.

All presented hypotheses (see Table 7) will be framed by the set of predictors which will be measured in next chapters in order to develop the research ques-

tion of this thesis. Thus, following sections are devoted to methodology explanation and empirical part of our research.

## **5.6. Summary of the chapter**

This chapter combined the outcomes of the previous researches of political consumerism and introduced the hypotheses for our investigation. We provided the summary of relevant global researches (1997-2003) on the concepts of consumer boycott with their main outcomes. This summary shows that the concept of consumer boycott has been studied worldwide from different perspectives. Within the geographical limits of European countries we found out that boycotting activity is prevalent in the North of Europe, moderately spread among the countries of southern Europe and stays in its infancy in the East European countries. We suggested that cultural differences resulted from various geographical locations could serve as an explanation of this disparity. Referring to the relevant literature we defined four types of political consumers. This classification revealed that the majority of political consumers are young (aged 18-34) males and females, who focus on dual benefits, provide simple ways to get involved and make information easily accessible. After the discussion of the results of previous investigations we proceeded with the main research question of our study, namely “What is the difference between political consumerism presented in northern, southern and eastern European countries?” We introduced seven corresponding hypotheses, which are going to be tested in the next chapter. At the end of the fifth chapter we provided a short summary of all introduced hypotheses including the references to relevant studies.



## **6 METHODOLOGY**

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6.1. The European Social Survey

6.2. Clusters under analysis

6.3. Variables under analysis

6.4. Country- and cluster-level variable analysis

6.5. Summary of the chapter

### **6.1. The European Social Survey**

This study employs secondary data derived from the fifth and sixth waves of the European Social Survey (2010 – 2013). The European Social Survey is an appropriate source of data to analyse differences of participation in boycotting activities, which provides a wide spectrum of investigated questions and meets the standards of comparability in various countries. It has the same structure, questionnaire and methods for all surveyed countries. Social interweaving agencies are tightly bound together, and correlation coefficients can be interpreted in a meaningful way as average participation indices in Europe. The ESS is therefore an important source of innovative international comparative research within the social and behavioural sciences, and it pursues the main following objectives:

- to monitor and interpret changing public attitudes and values within Europe and to investigate how they interact with Europe's changing institutions;
- to advance and consolidate improved methods of cross-national survey measurement in Europe and beyond;
- to develop series of European social indicators, including attitudinal indicators.<sup>1</sup>

Academically driven but designed to feed into key European policy debates, the ESS aims to measure and explain how people's social values, cultural norms and behaviour patterns are distributed, the way in which they differ within and between nations, and the direction and speed at which they are changing.

*Data collection* takes place by means of face-to-face interviews of around an hour in duration, followed by a short supplementary questionnaire, which can

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<sup>1</sup> For more details visit <http://www.europeansocialsurvey.org/>

be administered as a continuation of the face-to-face interview, or as a self-completion supplement.

The ESS *questionnaire* consists of a collection of questions that can be classified into two main parts – a core section and a rotating section. The core module lasts about half an hour, most of which will remain constant from round to round. And the core section is supplied by smaller rotating modules, repeated at intervals, each of which will be devoted to a substantive topic or theme. Thus, while the purpose of the rotating modules is to provide an in-depth focus on a series of particular academic or policy concerns, the core module aims instead to monitor change and continuity in a wide range of socio-economic, socio-political, socio- psychological and socio-demographic variables, and to provide background variables for the analysis of the rotating modules.

The ESS strives to achieve a principle of equivalence with regard to its *translations*. Translation procedures on the ESS are guided by the requirements with the following key principals:

- the ESS source questionnaire is designed in British English and then translated by each national team;
- translations are required for each language used as a first language by 5 per cent or more of the population;
- the ESS follows TRAPD methodology;
- all National teams are provided with detailed Translation Guidelines;
- following translation, a selection of items are subject to two innovative additional steps - verification and SQP coding;
- all translated questionnaires must be pre-tested following the completion of verification and SQP coding.

Another key part of achievement of high methodological standards is to *maximise the reliability and validity* of the final questionnaire across the

participating countries and make the quality (reliability and validity) as comparable as possible across countries. This is done in six ways:

- proper operationalization of the different concepts;
- the structure of questions is assessed using the SQP program, to predict the likely quality of the questions based on a meta-analysis of previously fielded questions;
- in the questionnaire design process experiments are designed to evaluate measures tested in the pilot;
- translated questionnaires are checked with the coding program in SQP on comparability of the form of the questions across countries in order to avoid differences in quality due to unnecessary changes in the form of the questions;
- supplementary section to the main questionnaire is designed. This questionnaire together with the main questionnaire makes possible to estimate the validity and reliability of a limited set of measures. This information can be used in the analysis for correction for measurement errors and is also used to develop new version of the program SQP which allows the prediction of the quality of all questions asked in the ESS;
- optimal composite scores are estimated for the complex concepts. The scores for all respondents across all countries are calculated. This saves the users of these composite scores a lot of work. For these composite scores, the quality is also available so that in the analysis correction for measurement error can be applied.

The analyses are carried out using the MTMM approach or using the program SQP that is based on a meta-analysis of the MTMM experiments done in the ESS.

The achievement of high methodological standards is only possible through the use of high quality questions that are designed to ensure that they are as

comparable as possible across countries. A combination of qualitative and quantitative *pre-testing strategies* is employed during the design process of each rotating module to achieve this. The pre-testing process lasts for 20 months – from the appointment of the successful question module design team through to when the source questionnaire for the round is issued. It incorporates expert review from members of the ESS Core Scientific Team as well as the National teams, alongside SQP Coding, cognitive interviewing and quantitative testing on omnibus surveys and in a two-nation pilot survey.

An important step in planning a survey is the *definition of the population under study*. In the case of the ESS it contains persons 15 years or older who are resident within private households, regardless of nationality and citizenship or language. In countries in which any minority language is spoken as a first language by 5% or more of the population, the questionnaire has to be translated into that language. This definition applies to all participating countries and thus every person with the defined characteristics must have a non-zero chance of being selected. Thus, the more completely the frame covers the persons belonging to the target population, the higher the quality of the sample will be. However, the quality of the sampling frames – e.g. coverage, updating intervals and accessibility – may differ from country to country. Therefore, frames will be evaluated carefully by the responsible sampling expert together with the National Coordinator. The results of these evaluations have to be documented and taken into account when the data are analysed.

Thus, *sampling* on the ESS is guided by the requirements with the following key principals:

- samples must be representative of all persons aged 15 and over (no upper age limit) resident within private households in each country, regardless of their nationality, citizenship or language;

- individuals are selected by strict random probability methods at every stage;
- sampling frames of individuals, households and addresses may be used;
- all countries must aim for a minimum 'effective achieved sample size' of 1,500 or 800 in countries with ESS populations of less than 2 million after discounting for design effects;
- quota sampling is not permitted at any stage;
- substitution of non-responding households or individuals (whether 'refusals', 'non-contacts' or 'ineligibles') is not permitted at any stage.

The *fifth* wave of the ESS has been undertaken in 2010-2011 and includes 26 countries, the *sixth* – 2012-2013 with the data from 24 countries. We suspect this survey to provide us with rich individual-level data, and to allow testing before mentioned hypotheses in a truly comparative and cross-national perspective. To achieve the purpose of our research we distinguish different types of consumers according to their behaviour in the sphere of political consumerism, and more specifically - boycotting: non-participants or participants. The measure of this involvement is developed from the ESS data, and should capture how often consumers participate in a kind of political consumerism activity, such as boycott of different products; how they perceive the level of satisfaction with government and state democracy, with life in general, if they are interested and participate in politics, what are their gender, age, level of income and education.

## 6.2. Clusters under analysis

The core question for our research is number B19 according to the ESS5 and number B17 according to the ESS6: *“There are different ways of trying to improve things in your country or help prevent things from going wrong. During the last 12 months, have you boycotted certain products?”* Thus, *boycotting certain products* is a dependent variable with the code *BCTPRD*.

As far as measures for this study are derived from the ESS, they can be applied to all countries under analysis. Therefore, for this particular study, we do not go through all the sample countries. Based on the relatively similar characteristics of the individual-level analysis, the following countries are selected as representatives of different European clusters according to geographical position (United Nations Organization, 2013):

- Northern – Finland and Sweden;
- Southern – Greece, Italy and Spain;
- Eastern – Russian Federation and Ukraine.

Moreover, we combine data from the fifth and sixth waves of the ESS to get more detailed picture with the correction of possible shifts in the political consumers' behaviour during the last years. By the moment of this investigation there is no available data for Italy in the fifth wave of the ESS and for Greece in the sixth wave of the ESS, therefore these countries are omitted in the analysis of 2010-2011 and 2012-2013 respectively. The initial sample size of each country under analysis is presented in the Table 14.

Excluding all the countries that are not of interest for this particular research, we create ranking of all the countries under analysis according to the prevalence of boycott actions (see Table 8, Graph 5).

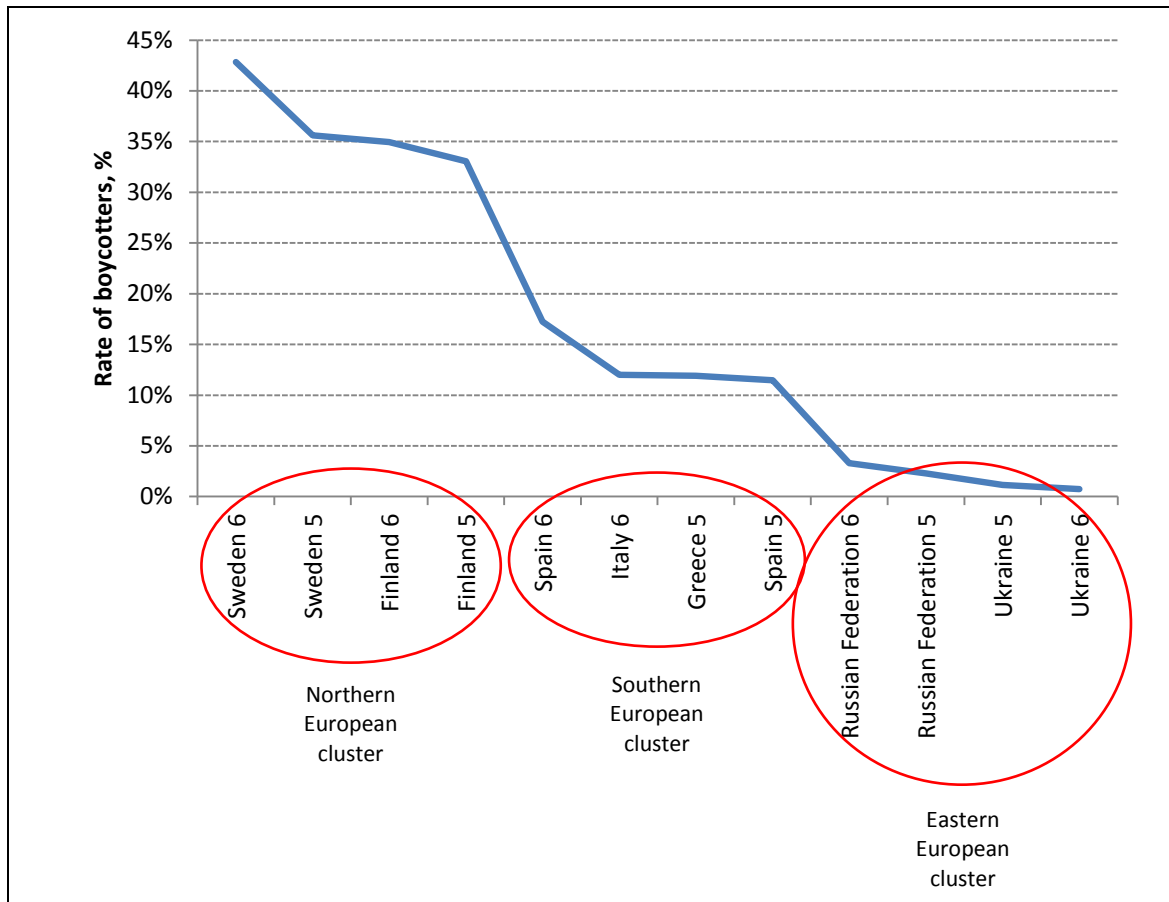
Table 8. Percentage rate of boycotters in countries under analysis, 2010-2013<sup>2</sup>.

Country	Percentage
Sweden 6	42.8%
Sweden 5	35.6%
Finland 6	34.9%
Finland 5	33.1%
Spain 6	17.3%
Italy 6	12.0%
Greece 5	11.9%
Spain 5	11.5%
Russian Federation 6	3.3%
Russian Federation 5	2.3%
Ukraine 5	1.1%
Ukraine 6	0.7%

Source: Own research based on the data from ESS5 and ESS6.

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<sup>2</sup> Countries marked with "5" are referred to 2010-2011 data, "6" – to 2012-2013.

Graph 5. Rate of boycotters in countries under analysis (2010 -2013<sup>3</sup>).

Source: Own research based on the data from ESS5 and ESS6.

On the presented graph it is obvious that the values for all the countries under analysis have been increased in 2012-2013 comparing to 2010-2011, what may indicate growing importance of boycotting in these countries with the time. However, countries of the northern European cluster (Sweden, Finland) still remain leaders in boycott activities, southern cluster (Spain, Italy, Greece) is in the middle of the scale, and eastern countries (Russian Federation, Ukraine) have the lowest boycott participation.

However, due to data from several countries being combined, the probability of over-representing smaller countries at the expense of larger ones has to be

<sup>3</sup> Countries marked with "5" are referred to 2010-2011 data, "6" – to 2012-2013.

excluded. To ensure that each country is represented in proportion to its population size, population size weight (pweight) is applied, which corrects the fact that most countries taking part in the ESS had very similar sample sizes, no matter how large or small their population. This weight corrects for the fact that most countries taking part in the ESS have very similar sample sizes, no matter how large or small their population. Without weighting, any figures combining two or more country's data would be incorrect, over-representing smaller countries at the expense of larger ones. So the *Population size weight* makes an adjustment to ensure that each country is represented in proportion to its population size. The *Population size weight* (1) is calculated as:

$$PWEIGHT = \frac{\text{Population size aged 15 years and above}}{\text{Net sample size in data file} * 10\ 000} \quad (1)$$

Moreover, several of the sample designs chosen by countries participating in the ESS were not able to give all individuals in the population aged 15+ precisely the same chance of selection. Thus, for instance, the unweighted samples in some countries over- or under-represent people at certain types of addresses or in certain types of households, such as those in larger households. To exclude the probability of such under-representation, design weight (dweight) is applied, which corrects for these slightly different probabilities of selection, thereby, making the sample more representative of a "true" sample of individuals aged 15+ in each country. The *Design weights* are computed as normed inverse of the inclusion probabilities.

As far as we are going to compare clusters of countries, both *Population size* and *Design weight* have to be applied, as it is recommended. To carry out this purpose, we weight data by computing a new variable, PDWEIGHT (2):

$$PDWEIGHT = PWEIGHT * DWEIGHT \quad (2)$$

### 6.3. Variables under analysis

#### 6.3.1. Linear predictor equation and characteristics of variables

To test our foregoing hypotheses we have to explore if there any correlation between our dependent and independent variables, and what types of these relations are presented. First, we model the following linear predictor equation (3) to test the null hypothesis (4):

$$y = \alpha + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + \beta_3 x_3 + \beta_4 x_4 + \beta_5 x_5 + \beta_6 x_6 + \beta_7 x_7 + \beta_8 x_8 + \beta_9 x_9 + \beta_{10} x_{10} + \beta_{11} x_{11} + \beta_{12} x_{12} + \varepsilon \quad (3)$$

$$H_0 : \beta_i = 0 \\ i = \{1, 2, \dots, 12\} \quad (4)$$

where:

$y$  – dependent variable, *BCTPRD*;

$x_i$  – independent variables (see explanation of each in the Table 9);

$\alpha$  – the intercept coefficient;

$\beta_i$  – coefficient of independent variable;

$\varepsilon$  – random error.

Table 9. Dependent and independent variables under analysis.

Variable	Code of variable	Variable decoding	Research Question, Hypotheses	No of question in ESS questionnaire	Type of variable	Values
Dependent	BCTPRD, $y$	Boycotted certain products last 12 months	Core Question	ESS5: B19 ESS6: B17	Dichotomous	0 – No 1 – Yes
Independent	POLINTR, $x_1$	How interested in politics	RQ1 H1a H1a <sub>1</sub> H1a <sub>2</sub>	ESS5: B1 ESS6: B1	Dichotomous	0 – Hardly/Not interested 1 – Quite/Very interested
	VOTE, $x_2$	Voted last national election	RQ1 H1b H1b <sub>1</sub> H1b <sub>2</sub>	ESS5: B11 ESS6: B9	Dichotomous	0 – No 1 – Yes
	SGNPTIT, $x_3$	Signed petition last 12 months	RQ1 H1b H1b <sub>1</sub>	ESS5: B17 ESS6: B15	Dichotomous	0 – No 1 – Yes
	CONTPLT, $x_4$	Contacted politician or government official last 12 months	RQ1 H1b H1b <sub>1</sub> H1b <sub>2</sub>	ESS5: B13 ESS6: B11	Dichotomous	0 – No 1 – Yes
	PBLDMN, $x_5$	Taken part in lawful public demonstration last 12 months	RQ1 H1b H1b <sub>1</sub> H1b <sub>2</sub>	ESS5: B18 ESS6: B16	Dichotomous	0 – No 1 – Yes
	STFCNTRY, $x_6$	How much satisfied with government and state democracy	RQ1 H1c H1c <sub>1</sub> H1c <sub>2</sub>	ESS5: B26 B27 ESS6: B22 B23	Quantitative	0 (Extremely unsatisfied) ... 10 (Extremely satisfied)
	HAPSAT, $x_7$	How satisfied with life	RQ1 H1d H1d <sub>1</sub> H1d <sub>2</sub>	ESS5: B24 C1 ESS6: B20 C1	Quantitative	0 (Extremely unsatisfied) ... 10 (Extremely satisfied)
	GNDR, $x_8$	Gender	RQ2 H2a H2a <sub>1</sub> H2a <sub>2</sub>	ESS5: F2 ESS6: F2	Dichotomous	0 – Male 1 – Female
	AGEA, $x_9$	Age	RQ2 H2b	ESS5: F3 ESS6: F3	Quantitative	15 ... 102 (Age in years)

			H2b <sub>1</sub> H2b <sub>2</sub>	Calculated		
EDUYRS, $x_{10}$	Years of full-time education completed	RQ2 H2c H2c <sub>1</sub> H2c <sub>2</sub>		ESS5: F16 ESS6: F16	Quantitative	0 ... 50 (Number in years)
INCOME, $x_{11}$ $x_{12}$	Total household's income, from all sources	RQ2 H2d H2d <sub>1</sub> H2d <sub>2</sub>		ESS5: F41 ESS6: F41	Qualitative	1 – High (30%) 2 – Medium (40%) 3 – Low (30%)
CLUSTER, $x_{13}$	Cluster under analysis	-		ESS5: C29 ESS6: C21	Qualitative	1 –Northern 2 – Southern 3 – Eastern

Source: Own research based on the ESS.

At the first step we analyse the data on individual level for each cluster, thus not including independent variable CLUSTER (*Geographical location of respondents*) in the regression model (3). In order to get a more detailed picture of boycotters' participation in politics, we examine separately four variables, characterizing this activity: VOTE (*Voted last national election*), SGNPTIT (*Signed petition last 12 months*), PBLDMN (*Taken part in lawful public demonstration last 12 months*) and CONTPLT (*Contacted politician or government official last 12 months*).

### 6.3.2. Computing new variables STFGOV and STFLIFE

To test the set of hypothesis H3 we compute one new variable, calculating the average of the variables STFGOV (*Satisfaction with the national government*) and STFDEM (*Satisfaction with the way democracy works in country*), thus obtaining STFCNTRY – *satisfaction with the way government and democracy work in country*. To implement this operation first we have to check whether there is strong interdependence between merged variables with the help of measuring Pearson correlation.

Thus, we check the strength of a linear association between variables *satisfaction with government* and *satisfaction with democracy* (see Table 10).

Table 10. Pearson correlation between variables STFDEM and STFGOV.

Correlations		
		How satisfied with the national government
How satisfied with the way democracy works in country	Pearson Correlation	0.599**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).		

Source: Own research based on the ESS.

As it is seen from the Table 10, the value of Pearson correlation coefficient  $r$  for the interdependence between satisfaction with the way democracy works in country and satisfaction with the national government variables is 0.599, which lies within the interval 0.69 – 0.40 and is considered as a large strength of association (according to [www.statistics.laerd.com](http://www.statistics.laerd.com)). Moreover, Pearson's  $r$  is significant (0.000).

Furthermore, we also estimate the reliability of our test using the coefficient of internal consistency Cronbach's alpha.

This way we check overall reliability coefficient between variables *satisfaction with government* and *satisfaction with democracy* (see Table 11).

Table 11. Cronbach's alpha reliability test for variables STFDEM and STFGOV.

Reliability Statistics	
Cronbach's $\alpha$	N of Items
0.749	2

Source: Own research based on the ESS.

It is visible from the Table 10 that the actual value for Cronbach's alpha is 0.749, which belongs to the interval  $0.7 \leq \alpha < 0.9$  and thus indicates a high level of internal consistency for our scale with our parameters (according to [www.statistics.laerd.com](http://www.statistics.laerd.com)).

Doing the same way, to verify the set of hypotheses H4 we compute another variable, HAPSAT (*Satisfaction with life*), originated from the combination of variables HAPPY (*The perception of individual happiness*) and STFLIFE (*Satisfaction with life as a whole*), referring to the coefficient of Pearson correlation (see Table 12).

Table 12. Pearson correlation between variables HAPPY and STFLIFE.

Correlations		
		How satisfied with life as a whole
How happy is in life	Pearson Correlation	0.656**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).		

Source: Own research based on the ESS.

The same as in the previous example, the coefficient of Pearson correlation is 0.656 (refers to the interval 0.69 – 0.40) with the significant Pearson's  $r$  (0.000).

The next step is to measure the coefficient of internal consistency between the variables HAPPY and STFLIFE (see Table 13).

Table 13. Cronbach's alpha reliability test for variables HAPPY and STFLIFE.

Reliability Statistics	
Cronbach's $\alpha$	N of Items
0.789	2

Source: Own research based on the ESS.

After performing Cronbach's alpha reliability test, we found out that this parameter is equal 0.789 ( $0.7 \leq \alpha < 0.9$ ), displaying a high internal consistency between two variables under consideration.

### *6.3.3. Decoding of variable INCOME*

The set of hypotheses H8 concerning level of income of boycotters and coded with variable *INCOME* will be checked with the help of initial variable *HINCTNTA* from the ESS. This variable corresponds to the question F41 (for the both waves of the ESS): "Which letter describes your household's total income, after tax and compulsory deductions, from all sources?" Respondents were also asked to indicate income which they know best: weekly, monthly or annually. The categories in variable *HINCTNTA* are national and based on deciles of the actual household income range in each country. These deciles are derived from different sources. The median income is the reference point and the 10 deciles are calculated with the median itself at the top of the fifth decile. Minor rounding is applied where necessary. The deciles are documented in national currency, and exchange rate to Euro (€) is also provided in the country specific reports. These ten rows indicate the income ranges selected and presented by ten letter codes in order to ensure respondent confidentiality. However, in our particular research we transform this initial variable *HINCTNTA* from the ESS to another one, *INCOME*, which is defined by qualitative character and has three gradations: high, medium or low (30%, 40% and 30% of population respectively).

#### 6.4. Country- and cluster-level variable analysis

This way we get one dependent and eleven independent variables for the analysis of the linear predictor equation indicated above, character of each of them has already been explained above in the Table 9.

So as to get complete image of each country under consideration we provide a detailed percentage explanation of variables (see Table 14).

Table 14. Country-level variable analysis, %.

Variable	Cluster, country											
	Northern				Southern				Eastern			
	Sweden 5	Sweden 6	Finland 5	Finland 6	Greece 5	Italy 6	Spain 5	Spain 6	Russian Federation 5	Russian Federation 6	Ukraine 5	Ukraine 6
Sample size	1267	1516	1553	1892	1669	960	1236	1424	1696	1663	1197	1502
Valid %	7.2	8.6	8.8	10.8	9.5	5.5	7.0	8.1	9.6	9.5	6.8	8.6
<b>BCTPRD</b>												
Yes	35.6	42.8	33.1	34.9	11.9	12.0	11.5	17.3	2.3	3.3	1.1	0.7
No	64.4	57.2	66.9	65.1	88.1	88.0	88.5	82.7	97.7	96.7	98.9	99.3
<b>POLINTR</b>												
Very / Quite interested	64.0	62.4	50.9	57.5	30.0	53.7	31.2	38.9	49.5	44.3	39.7	35.9
Hardly / Not interested	36.0	37.6	49.1	42.5	70.0	46.3	68.8	61.1	50.5	55.7	60.3	64.1
<b>VOTE</b>												
Yes	94.3	91.9	80.9	86.0	78.5	84.4	84.1	77.5	71.2	70.8	83.5	78.4
No	5.7	8.1	19.1	14.0	21.5	15.6	15.9	22.5	28.8	29.2	16.5	21.6
<b>SGNPTIT</b>												
Yes	38.1	46.8	29.0	25.2	4.5	25.6	29.6	36.7	7.1	6.6	9.6	3.7
No	61.9	53.2	71.0	74.8	95.5	74.4	70.4	63.3	92.9	93.4	90.4	96.3
<b>CONTPLT</b>												
Yes	16.8	17.4	22.5	20.1	9.8	19.9	15.4	15.1	8.7	8.1	9.6	8.0
No	83.2	82.6	77.5	79.9	90.2	80.1	84.6	84.9	91.3	91.9	90.4	92.0

<b>PBLDMN</b>												
<b>Yes</b>	5.2	7.7	1.3	1.4	10.5	20.7	19.5	28.2	3.8	3.7	3.7	2.7
<b>No</b>	94.8	92.3	98.7	98.6	89.5	79.3	80.5	71.8	96.2	96.3	96.3	97.3
<b>STFCNTRY</b>												
<b>Very satisfied</b>	37.7	33.6	22.0	32.0	1.9	1.6	3.2	4.5	9.7	7.3	1.3	2.1
<b>Quite satisfied</b>	50.1	52.1	57.8	56.9	15.4	36.4	40.8	27.0	38.9	40.5	18.4	20.5
<b>Not satisfied</b>	12.2	14.3	20.2	11.1	82.7	62.0	56.0	68.5	51.4	52.2	80.3	77.4
<b>HAPSAT</b>												
<b>Very satisfied</b>	76.0	72.6	78.7	83.2	24.0	46.7	60.5	55.6	23.2	27.1	16.3	20.9
<b>Quite satisfied</b>	21.3	24.4	18.8	15.3	54.9	43.9	35.6	36.9	50.8	54.3	50.2	50.5
<b>Not satisfied</b>	2.7	3.0	2.5	1.5	21.1	9.4	3.9	7.4	26.0	18.7	33.5	28.6
<b>GNDR</b>												
<b>Male</b>	48.0	52.7	50.5	50.1	43.7	51.2	50.6	51.1	40.7	37.5	36.3	36.4
<b>Female</b>	52.0	47.3	49.5	49.9	56.3	48.8	49.4	48.9	59.3	62.5	63.7	63.6
<b>AGEA</b>												
<b>15...30 years old</b>	16.0	16.1	14.5	14.3	15.9	18.9	15.9	15.0	19.6	22.5	15.8	19.4
<b>31...45 years old</b>	25.9	23.9	24.4	23.4	29.9	26.4	33.1	33.9	26.5	25.5	21.4	23.4
<b>46...65 years old</b>	34.6	36.0	39.5	39.7	29.0	36.6	32.7	34.0	35.0	35.6	36.9	34.7
<b>66...103 years old</b>	23.5	24.0	21.6	22.6	25.2	18.1	18.3	17.1	18.9	16.4	25.9	22.5
<b>EDUYRS</b>												
<b>0...10 years</b>	23.1	19.1	27.9	25.1	39.9	31.3	42.0	39.7	20.7	17.9	28.9	24.6
<b>11...20 years</b>	75.2	79.1	68.3	70.6	58.8	62.2	51.9	52.3	79.0	81.9	70.8	74.5
<b>21...51 years</b>	1.7	1.8	3.8	4.3	1.3	6.5	6.1	8.0	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.9
<b>INCOME</b>												
<b>High</b>	40.1	42.2	29.4	32.3	12.3	17.1	26.9	22.0	27.5	38.2	13.3	13.5
<b>Medium</b>	36.7	34.3	44.6	46.0	47.9	37.2	44.7	35.6	37.4	38.5	42.8	46.7
<b>Low</b>	23.2	23.5	26.0	21.7	39.8	45.7	28.4	42.4	35.0	23.3	43.9	39.7

Source: Own research based on the ESS.

In our research variables STFCNTRY and HAPSAT are measured with the help of numerical scale from 0 to 10. However, for simplicity's sake in Table 14 we classify the values of these variables into three groups: very satisfied (HAPSAT =

8...10), quite satisfied (HAPSAT = 4...7) and not satisfied (HAPSAT = 0...3). In SPSS data analysis we nevertheless stick with quantitative measure of mentioned variables.

As far as one of the main objectives of our research is analysis and comparison of boycotters between different clusters, we present cluster-level analysis of those who boycotted certain products last 12 months (see Table 15).

Table 15. Cluster-level variable analysis of boycotters, %.

Variable	Cluster		
	Northern	Southern	Eastern
Sample size	2274	702	118
<b>POLINTR</b>			
Very / Quite interested	69.8	58.5	66.2
Hardly / Not interested	30.2	41.5	33.8
<b>VOTE</b>			
Yes	91.6	85.7	90.9
No	8.4	14.3	9.1
<b>SGNPTIT</b>			
Yes	52.4	54.6	61.0
No	47.6	45.4	39.0
<b>CONTPLT</b>			
Yes	25.5	29.2	33.3
No	74.5	70.8	66.7
<b>PBLDMN</b>			
Yes	18.0	40.3	17.9
No	82.0	59.7	82.1
<b>STFCNTRY</b>			
Very satisfied	29.3	2.9	1.0
Quite satisfied	61.8	43.1	42.0
Not satisfied	8.9	54.0	57.0
<b>HAPSAT</b>			
Very satisfied	75.6	51.4	17.6
Quite satisfied	23.2	42.7	61.4
Not satisfied	1.2	5.9	21.0
<b>GNDR</b>			
Male	46.2	47.6	52.8
Female	53.8	52.4	47.2
<b>AGEA</b>			
15...30 years old	17.3	12.7	26.7
31...45 years old	27.0	27.1	40.2
46...65 years old	37.9	39.0	24.8

<b>66+ years old</b>	<b>17.8</b>	<b>21.2</b>	<b>8.3</b>
<b>Average</b>	<b>46.8</b>	<b>50.4</b>	<b>35.3</b>
<b>EDUYRS</b>			
<b>0...10 years</b>	<b>15.0</b>	<b>22.6</b>	<b>15.6</b>
<b>11...15 years</b>	<b>50.0</b>	<b>35.2</b>	<b>66.0</b>
<b>16...20 years</b>	<b>31.9</b>	<b>30.2</b>	<b>18.5</b>
<b>21+ years</b>	<b>3.1</b>	<b>11.9</b>	<b>0.0</b>
<b>Average</b>	<b>14</b>	<b>14</b>	<b>13</b>
<b>INCOME</b>			
<b>High</b>	<b>42.4</b>	<b>29.7</b>	<b>19.5</b>
<b>Medium</b>	<b>36.6</b>	<b>45.3</b>	<b>44.3</b>
<b>Low</b>	<b>21.0</b>	<b>25.0</b>	<b>36.2</b>

Source: Own research based on the ESS.

## **6.5. Summary of the chapter**

The sixth chapter introduced methodology which we will use in our investigation. The source of secondary data for our study is the European Social Survey (2010 – 2013). According to this survey, action of boycotting certain products was assumed as a dependent variable of our analysis. Moreover, we did not extract data from all European countries. Instead, we created three clusters (Northern, Southern, and Eastern) with representative countries of different geographical parts of Europe. We introduced linear predictor equation which we will use in this research to test the null hypothesis. Apart from the dependent variable, the equation contains twelve independent variables. We explained the character of each of them, and also we provided statistically justified explanation of the computed variables. Moreover, we introduced country- and cluster-level variable analysis in the end of this chapter in order to get the complete statistical description of each country and cluster under consideration.



## **7 RESULTS**

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7.1. Introduction

7.2. Northern European cluster

7.3. Southern European cluster

7.4. Eastern European cluster

7.5. Discussion of individual analyses of three clusters

7.6. Boycotters' profile comparison

7.7. Discussion of boycotters' profile comparison and study results

7.8. Summary of the chapter

### 7.1. Introduction

Our task is to predict dependent variable BCTPRD which has categorical (dichotomous) character from a set of predictor variables. For this purpose we employ linear predictor equation (3):

$$\boxed{y = \alpha + \beta_1x_1 + \beta_2x_2 + \beta_3x_3 + \beta_4x_4 + \beta_5x_5 + \beta_6x_6 + \beta_7x_7 + \beta_8x_8 + \beta_9x_9 + \beta_{10}x_{10} + \beta_{11}x_{11} + \beta_{12}x_{12} + \varepsilon} \quad (3)$$

According to the tasks of our study, fundamental activity encountered in this analysis is modelling the relationship between explanatory and response variables. To investigate the relationship between a single explanatory (predictor) variable and a single response variable researchers usually use simple linear regression. Multiple regression is used when there are several explanatory variables. However, in our case the response is not a numerical value. Instead, the response is simply a designation of one of two possible outcomes (a binary response), e.g. *yes* or *no*, *male* or *female*. Although responses may be accumulated to provide the number of males and the number of females, the binary nature of the response still remains.

Logistic regression analysis examines the influence of various factors on a dichotomous outcome by estimating the probability of the event's occurrence. It does this by examining the relationship between one or more independent variables and the log odds of the dichotomous outcome by calculating changes in the log odds of the dependent as opposed to the dependent variable itself. The log odds ratio is the ratio of two odds and it is a summary measure of the relationship between two variables. The use of the log odds ratio in logistic regression provides a more simplistic description of the probabilistic relationship of the variables and the outcome in comparison to a linear regression by which linear relationships and more information can be drawn. Binary logistic regres-

sion is typically used when the dependent variable is dichotomous and the independent variables are either continuous or categorical variables. Since logistic regression is best used in this condition, we imply it in our study.

Thus, further we implement *binary logistic regression* in our research. We divide our data investigation in 5 steps:

- Step 1. Individual analysis of the northern European cluster;
- Step 2. Individual analysis of the southern European cluster;
- Step 3. Individual analysis of the eastern European cluster;
- Step 4. Discussion of individual analyses of different European clusters;
- Step 5. Comparing the profile of boycotters from the northern, southern and eastern European clusters.

In each of the steps with the help of IBM SPSS Statistics 20 we perform the same binary logistic regression with the same variables. BCTPRD is defined as dependent variable, the coding of which is presented in the Table 16.

Table 16. Encoding of the variable *BCTPRD*.

Dependent Variable Encoding	
Original Value	Internal Value
No	0
Yes	1

Source: Own research based on the ESS.

Thus, we interpret our results on the basis of respondent's answer "Yes" to the question related to boycotting products.

The variables *POLINTR*, *VOTE*, *SGNPTIT*, *CONTPLT*, *PBLDMN*, *GNDR*, and *INCOME* are defined as categorical variables, and encodings of each of them for every cluster remains the same (see Table 17).

Table 17. Encodings of the categorical variables.

Categorical Variables Codings				
			Parameter coding	
			(1)	(2)
How interested in politics	POLINTR	Very / Quite interested	1.000	
		Hardly / Not interested	.000	
Voted last national election	VOTE	Yes	1.000	
		No	.000	
Signed petition last 12 months	SGNPTIT	Yes	1.000	
		No	.000	
Contacted politician or government official last 12 months	CONTPLT	Yes	1.000	
		No	.000	
Taken part in lawful public demonstration last 12 months	PBLDMN	Yes	1.000	
		No	.000	
Gender	GNDR	Female	1.000	
		Male	.000	
Level of income	INCOME	High	1.000	.000
		Medium	.000	1.000
		Low	.000	.000

Source: Own research based on the ESS.

## 7.2. Northern European cluster

On the Step 1 we perform binary logistic regression for the northern European cluster, including data from Sweden and Finland from the fifth and sixth waves of the ESS.

Starting to analyse logistic regression we get the full model that we specified in the logistic regression command (see Table 18).

Table 18. Fitness of the northern cluster's data to the general model.

Omnibus Tests of Model Coefficients			
	Chi-square	df	Sig.
Step	277.498	12	.000
Block	277.498	12	.000
Model	277.498	12	.000

Source: Own research based on the ESS.

As we did not employ stepwise logistic regression or blocking the lines *Step*, *Block* and *Model* remain with the same values. The main outcome of this table is confirmation that our overall model is statistically significant as the *p-value* is equal 0.000.

There is one degree of freedom for each predictor in the model, and given to the fact that the variable *INCOME* has three levels, there are two dummies for it. Thus, we obtain 12 degrees of freedom for our model.

Classification chart of the cases for the northern cluster is presented in the Table 19.

Table 19. Classification table for the cases of the northern cluster.

Classification Table <sup>a</sup>				
Observed		Predicted		
		Boycotted certain products last 12 months		Percentage Correct
		No	Yes	
Boycotted certain products last 12 months	No	1050	207	83.5
	Yes	459	348	43.1
Overall Percentage				67.7
a. The cut value is .500				

Source: Own research based on the ESS.

This table shows how well our full model correctly classifies cases. Here we can see that 1050 cases are observed to be *No* and they really are, as well as 348 cases are observed and predicted to be *Yes*. However, this table also indicates that some cases are not correctly predicted: 207 of them are observed to be *No* but are predicted to be *Yes*, 459 cases are observed to be *Yes* but are predicted to be *No*. Thus, our classification accuracy is equal 67.7%. This percentage does not correspond to the perfect model, but suggests that our model is acceptable and well-predicted.

The last step in this chapter is to analyse the coefficients, their standard errors, the Wald test statistic with associated degrees of freedom and p-values, and the exponentiate coefficient (also known as an odds ratio). All these characteristics are presented in the Table 20.

Table 20. Results of logistic regression of the northern cluster's model.

Variables in the Equation						
	B	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)
polintr(1)	.579	.107	29.431	1	.000	1.784
vote(1)	.030	.172	.030	1	.863	1.030

sgnptit(1)	.853	.101	70.717	1	.000	2.347
contplt(1)	.422	.125	11.487	1	.001	1.526
pbldmn(1)	.575	.243	5.599	1	.018	1.778
stfcntry	-.107	.029	13.386	1	.000	.898
hapsat	-.031	.037	.700	1	.403	.970
gndr(1)	.318	.099	10.202	1	.001	1.374
agea	-.006	.003	3.595	1	.058	.994
eduys	.074	.015	25.189	1	.000	1.076
income			2.646	2	.266	
income(1)	.199	.140	2.027	1	.154	1.220
income(2)	.044	.132	.110	1	.740	1.045
Constant	-1.294	.390	10.987	1	.001	.274

Source: Own research based on the ESS.

Table 20 shows the values for logistic regression equation (3). The estimation of the coefficients  $\beta$  for the independent variables is displayed in the second column,  $B$ . Each estimated coefficient show the amount of increase (if the sign of the coefficient is positive) or decrease (if the sign of the coefficient is negative) in the log odds of  $BCTPRD$  that would be predicted by a 1 unit increase in the predictor, holding all other predictors constant. For each coefficient  $\beta$ , the null hypothesis  $H_0 : \beta_i = 0$  (4) is tested. Thus, the interpretation of values for each variable is the following:

- POLINTR:  $b_1 = 0.579$  suggests that more politically interested consumer has more probability of being a boycotter. The p-value ( $p < 0.000$ ) evidences that this relationship is strongly significant, and involves that the null hypothesis  $\beta_1 = 0$  must not be accepted. According to these findings we conclude that  $\beta_1 > 0$ , that is, **there is a strongly significant positive relationship between being interested in politics and being a boycotter.**

- VOTE:  $b_2 = 0.030$  suggests that consumer who voted last national elections has more probability of being a boycotter. However, the p-value ( $p=0.863$ ) evidences that this relationship is not significant, and involves that the null hypothesis  $\beta_2=0$  must not be rejected. According to these findings we conclude that **there is no significant relationship between having voted last national elections and being a boycotter.**
- SGNPTIT:  $b_3 = 0.853$  suggests that consumer who signed a petition during last 12 months has more probability of being a boycotter. The p-value ( $p<0.000$ ) evidences that this relationship is strongly significant, and involves that the null hypothesis  $\beta_3=0$  must not be accepted. According to these findings we conclude that  $\beta_3>0$ , that is, **there is a strongly significant positive relationship between signing petitions and being a boycotter.**
- CONTPLT:  $b_4 = 0.422$  suggests that consumer who contacted politician or government official during last 12 months has more probability of being a boycotter. The p-value ( $p=0.001$ ) evidences that this relationship is significant, and involves that the null hypothesis  $\beta_4=0$  must not be accepted. According to these findings we conclude that  $\beta_4>0$ , that is, **there is a significant positive relationship between contacting politician or government official and being a boycotter.**
- PBLDMN:  $b_5 = 0.575$  suggests that consumer who took part in lawful public demonstration during last 12 months has more probability of being a boycotter. The p-value ( $p=0.018$ ) evidences that this relationship is significant, and involves that the null hypothesis  $\beta_5=0$  must not be accepted. According to these findings we conclude that  $\beta_5>0$ , that is, **there is a significant positive relationship between participating in lawful public demonstration and being a boycotter.**

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- STFCNTRY:  $b_6 = -0.107$  suggests that consumer who is more satisfied with the way government and democracy work in country has less probability of being a boycotter. The p-value ( $p < 0.000$ ) evidences that this relationship is strongly significant, and involves that the null hypothesis  $\beta_6 = 0$  must not be accepted. According to these findings we conclude that  $\beta_6 < 0$ , that is, **there is a strongly significant negative relationship between satisfaction with government and democracy in country and being a boycotter.**
  - HAPSAT:  $b_7 = -0.031$  suggests that consumer who is more satisfied with life has less probability of being a boycotter. However, the p-value ( $p = 0.403$ ) evidences that this relationship is not significant, and involves that the null hypothesis  $\beta_7 = 0$  must not be rejected. According to these findings we conclude that **there is no significant relationship between being satisfied with life and being a boycotter.**
  - GNDR:  $b_8 = 0.318$  suggests that female consumer has more probability of being a boycotter. The p-value ( $p = 0.001$ ) evidences that this relationship is significant, and involves that the null hypothesis  $\beta_8 = 0$  must not be accepted. According to these findings we conclude that  $\beta_8 > 0$ , that is, **there is a significant positive relationship between being a woman and being a boycotter.**
  - AGEA:  $b_9 = -0.006$  suggests that older consumer has less probability of being a boycotter. However, the p-value ( $p = 0.058$ ) evidences that this relationship is not significant, and involves that the null hypothesis  $\beta_9 = 0$  must not be rejected. According to these findings we conclude that **there is no significant relationship between age and being a boycotter.**
  - EDUYRS:  $b_{10} = 0.074$  suggests that more educated consumer has more probability of being a boycotter. The p-value ( $p < 0.000$ ) evidences that this relationship is strongly significant, and involves that the null hypoth-

esis  $\beta_{10}=0$  must not be accepted. According to these findings we conclude that  $\beta_{10}>0$ , that is, **there is a strong significant positive relationship between consumer's level of education and being a boycotter.**

- INCOME: this variable displays if the overall variable *INCOME* is statistically significant. There is no coefficient indicated, because in fact *INCOME* is not a variable in the model; rather, dummy variables with code for *INCOME* have coefficients. However, the coefficients for both of the dummies are statistically insignificant. The statistic given on this row tells if the dummies that represent *INCOME*, taken together, are statistically significant. This test has two degrees of freedom because there are two dummies:
  - INCOME (1): the reference group is low level of income (see Table 17). Coefficient  $b_{11}= 0.199$  suggests that high resourceful consumer has more probability of being a boycotter than low resourceful consumer. However, the p-value ( $p=0.154$ ) evidences that this difference is not significant, and involves that the null hypothesis  $\beta_{11}=0$  must not be rejected. According to these findings we conclude that **there is no significant difference between high and low resourceful consumers in the probability of being a boycotter.**
  - INCOME (2): the reference group is low level of income (see Table 17). Coefficient  $b_{12}= 0.044$  suggests that consumer with middle income has more probability of being a boycotter than low resourceful consumer. However, the p-value ( $p=0.740$ ) evidences that this difference is not significant, and involves that the null hypothesis  $\beta_{12}=0$  must not be rejected. According to these findings we conclude that **there is no significant difference between consumer with middle income and low resourceful consumers in the probability of being a boycotter.**

- Constant: the expected value of the log-odds of boycotting products last 12 months when all of the predictor variables equal zero is -1.294. As in the most cases zero is not a realistic value for variable to take, this variable is not of a great significance for our research.

### 7.3. Southern European cluster

On the Step 2 we perform binary logistic regression for the southern European cluster, including data from Spain and Greece from the fifth wave of the ESS and Spain and Italy from the sixth wave.

Starting to analyse logistic regression we get the full model that we specified in the logistic regression command (see Table 21).

Table 21. Fitness of the southern cluster's data to general model.

Omnibus Tests of Model Coefficients			
	Chi-square	df	Sig.
Step	838.220	12	.000
Block	838.220	12	.000
Model	838.220	12	.000

Source: Own research based on the ESS.

As we did not employ stepwise logistic regression or blocking the lines *Step*, *Block* and *Model* remain with the same values. Our overall model is statistically significant as the *p-value* is equal 0.000.

There is one degree of freedom for each predictor in the model, and given to the fact that the variable *INCOME* has three levels, there are two dummies for it. Thus, we obtain 12 degrees of freedom for our model.

Classification chart of the cases for the southern cluster is presented in the Table 22.

Table 22. Classification table for the cases of the southern cluster.

Classification Table <sup>a</sup>				
Observed		Predicted		
		Boycotted certain products last 12 months		Percentage Correct
		No	Yes	
Boycotted certain products last 12 months	No	7394	101	98.6
	Yes	1268	97	7.1
Overall Percentage				84.5
a. The cut value is .500				

Source: Own research based on the ESS.

Here we can see that 7394 cases are observed to be *No* and they really are, as well as 97 cases are observed and predicted to be *Yes*. However, this table also indicates that some cases are not correctly predicted: 101 of them are observed to be *No* but are predicted to be *Yes*, 1268 cases are observed to be *Yes* but are predicted to be *No*. Overall percentage of cases that are correctly predicted by the full specified model is equal 84.5%. In comparison to the northern cluster (see Table 20) with the overall percentage equal to 67.7, we can conclude that our linear regression model works much better for the southern cluster (84.5% > 67.7%).

The last step in this chapter is to analyse the coefficients, their standard errors, the Wald test statistic with associated degrees of freedom and p-values, and the exponentiate coefficient (also known as an odds ratio). All these characteristics are presented in the Table 23.

Table 23. Results of the logistic regression of the southern cluster's model.

Variables in the Equation						
	B	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)
polintr(1)	.463	.068	46.521	1	.000	1.588
vote(1)	-.018	.089	.040	1	.842	.982
sgnptit(1)	.890	.070	163.353	1	.000	2.434

contplt(1)	.491	.075	42.444	1	.000	1.634
pbldmn(1)	.347	.073	22.419	1	.000	1.415
stfcntry	-.120	.016	56.437	1	.000	.887
hpsat	-.034	.018	3.578	1	.049	.967
gndr(1)	.200	.064	9.870	1	.002	1.222
agea	.007	.002	12.464	1	.000	1.008
eduyrs	.055	.006	73.195	1	.000	1.056
income			.811	2	.667	
income(1)	.080	.090	.790	1	.374	1.084
income(2)	.027	.076	.128	1	.720	1.027
Constant	-3.046	.207	217.107	1	.000	.048

Source: Own research based on the ESS.

Table 23 shows the values for logistic regression equation (3). The estimation of the coefficients  $\beta$  for the independent variables is displayed in the second column, *B*. Each estimated coefficient show the amount of increase (if the sign of the coefficient is positive) or decrease (if the sign of the coefficient is negative) in the log odds of *BCTPRD* that would be predicted by a 1 unit increase in the predictor, holding all other predictors constant. For each coefficient  $\beta$ , the null hypothesis  $H_0 : \beta_i = 0$  (4) is tested. Thus, the interpretation of values for each variable is the following:

- POLINTR:  $b_1 = 0.463$  suggests that more politically interested consumer has more probability of being a boycotter. The p-value ( $p < 0.000$ ) evidences that this relationship is strongly significant, and involves that the null hypothesis  $\beta_1 = 0$  must not be accepted. According to these findings we conclude that  $\beta_1 > 0$ , that is, **there is a strongly significant positive relationship between being interested in politics and being a boycotter.**
- VOTE:  $b_2 = -0.018$  suggests that consumer who voted last national elections has less probability of being a boycotter. However, the p-value ( $p = 0.842$ ) evidences that this relationship is not significant, and involves that the null hypothesis  $\beta_2 = 0$  must not be rejected. According to these

findings we conclude that **there is no significant relationship between having voted last national elections and being a boycotter.**

- SGNPTIT:  $b_3 = 0.890$  suggests that consumer who signed a petition during last 12 months has more probability of being a boycotter. The p-value ( $p < 0.000$ ) evidences that this relationship is strongly significant, and involves that the null hypothesis  $\beta_3 = 0$  must not be accepted. According to these findings we conclude that  $\beta_3 > 0$ , that is, **there is a strongly significant positive relationship between signing petitions and being a boycotter.**
- CONTPLT:  $b_4 = 0.491$  suggests that consumer who contacted politician or government official during last 12 months has more probability of being a boycotter. The p-value ( $p < 0.000$ ) evidences that this relationship is strongly significant, and involves that the null hypothesis  $\beta_4 = 0$  must not be accepted. According to these findings we conclude that  $\beta_4 > 0$ , that is, **there is a strongly significant positive relationship between contacting politician or government official and being a boycotter.**
- PBLDMN:  $b_5 = 0.347$  suggests that consumer who took part in lawful public demonstration during last 12 months has more probability of being a boycotter. The p-value ( $p < 0.000$ ) evidences that this relationship is strongly significant, and involves that the null hypothesis  $\beta_5 = 0$  must not be accepted. According to these findings we conclude that  $\beta_5 > 0$ , that is, **there is a strongly significant positive relationship between participating in lawful public demonstration and being a boycotter.**
- STFCNTRY:  $b_6 = -0.120$  suggests that consumer who is more satisfied with the way government and democracy work in country has less probability of being a boycotter. The p-value ( $p < 0.000$ ) evidences that this relationship is strongly significant, and involves that the null hypothesis  $\beta_6 = 0$  must not be accepted. According to these findings we conclude that

$\beta_6 < 0$ , that is, **there is a strongly significant negative relationship between satisfaction with government and democracy in country and being a boycotter.**

- HAPSAT:  $b_7 = -0.034$  suggests that consumer who is satisfied with life has less probability of being a boycotter. The p-value ( $p = 0.049$ ) evidences that this relationship is significant, and involves that the null hypothesis  $\beta_7 = 0$  must not be accepted. According to these findings we conclude that  $\beta_7 < 0$ , that is, **there is a significant negative relationship between being satisfied with life and being a boycotter.**
- GNDR:  $b_8 = 0.200$  suggests that female consumer has more probability of being a boycotter. The p-value ( $p = 0.002$ ) evidences that this relationship is significant, and involves that the null hypothesis  $\beta_8 = 0$  must not be accepted. According to these findings we conclude that  $\beta_8 > 0$ , that is, **there is a significant positive relationship between being a woman and being a boycotter.**
- AGEA:  $b_9 = 0.007$  suggests that older consumer has more probability of being a boycotter. The p-value ( $p < 0.000$ ) evidences that this relationship is strongly significant, and involves that the null hypothesis  $\beta_9 = 0$  must not be accepted. According to these findings we conclude that  $\beta_9 > 0$ , that is, **there is a strongly significant positive relationship between age and being a boycotter.**
- EDUYRS:  $b_{10} = 0.055$  suggests that more educated consumer has more probability of being a boycotter. The p-value ( $p < 0.000$ ) evidences that this relationship is strongly significant, and involves that the null hypothesis  $\beta_{10} = 0$  must not be accepted. According to these findings we conclude that  $\beta_{10} > 0$ , that is, **there is a strongly significant positive relationship between consumer's level of education and being a boycotter.**

- 
- INCOME: this variable displays if the overall variable *INCOME* is statistically significant. There is no coefficient indicated, because in fact *INCOME* is not a variable in the model; rather, dummy variables with code for *INCOME* have coefficients. However, the coefficients for both of the dummies are statistically insignificant. The statistic given on this row tells if the dummies that represent *INCOME*, taken together, are statistically significant. This test has two degrees of freedom because there are two dummies:
    - INCOME (1): the reference group is low level of income (see Table 17). Coefficient  $b_{11}=0.080$  suggests that high resourceful consumer has more probability of being a boycotter than low resourceful consumer. However, the p-value ( $p=0.374$ ) evidences that this difference is not significant, and involves that the null hypothesis  $\beta_{11}=0$  must not be rejected. According to these findings we conclude that **there is no significant difference between high and low resourceful consumers in the probability of being a boycotter.**
    - INCOME (2): the reference group is low level of income (see Table 17). Coefficient  $b_{12}=0.027$  suggests that consumer with middle income has more probability of being a boycotter than low resourceful consumer. However, the p-value ( $p=0.720$ ) evidences that this difference is not significant, and involves that the null hypothesis  $\beta_{12}=0$  must not be rejected. According to these findings we conclude that **there is no significant difference between consumer with middle income and low resourceful consumers in the probability of being a boycotter.**
  - Constant: the expected value of the log-odds of boycotting products last 12 months when all of the predictor variables equal zero is -3.046. As in

the most cases zero is not a realistic value for variable to take, this variable is not of a great significance for our research.

#### 7.4. Eastern European cluster

On the Step 3 we perform binary logistic regression for the eastern European cluster, including data from Russian Federation and Ukraine from the fifth and sixth waves of the ESS.

Starting to analyse logistic regression we get the full model that we specified in the logistic regression command (see Table 24).

Table 24. Fitness of the eastern cluster's data to general model.

Omnibus Tests of Model Coefficients			
	Chi-square	df	Sig.
Step	840.138	12	.000
Block	840.138	12	.000
Model	840.138	12	.000

Source: Own research based on the ESS.

As we did not employ stepwise logistic regression or blocking the lines *Step*, *Block* and *Model* remain with the same values. The main outcome of this table is confirmation that our overall model is statistically significant as the *p-value* is equal 0.000.

There is one degree of freedom for each predictor in the model, and given to the fact that the variable *INCOME* has three levels, there are two dummies for it. Thus, we obtain 12 degrees of freedom for our model.

Classification chart of the cases for the eastern cluster is presented in the Table 25.

Table 25. Classification table for the cases of the eastern cluster.

Classification Table <sup>a</sup>					
Observed		Predicted			Percentage Correct
		Boycotted certain products last 12 months			
		No	Yes		
Boycotted certain products last 12 months	No	19747	7	100.0	
	Yes	579	6	1.0	
Overall Percentage				97.1	
a. The cut value is .500					

Source: Own research based on the ESS.

Here we can see that 19747 cases are observed to be *No* and they really are, as well as 6 cases are observed and predicted to be *Yes*. However, this table also indicates that some cases are not correctly predicted: 7 of them are observed to be *No* but are predicted to be *Yes*, 579 cases are observed to be *Yes* but are predicted to be *No*.

The overall percent of cases that are correctly predicted by the full specified model is equal 97.1%. Comparing this value to that of the northern (see Table 20) and southern European clusters (see Table 23) we conclude that our data fits binary logistic model the best in case of eastern cluster (97.1% > 84.5% > 67.7%), and it has a tendency to perform as a perfect model.

The last step in this chapter is to analyse the coefficients, their standard errors, the Wald test statistic with associated degrees of freedom and p-values, and the exponentiate coefficient (also known as an odds ratio). All these characteristics are presented in the Table 26.

Table 26. Results of the logistic regression of the eastern cluster's model.

Variables in the Equation						
	B	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)
polintr(1)	.581	.095	37.295	1	.000	1.787
vote(1)	.301	.114	6.909	1	.009	1.351
sgnptit(1)	1.736	.108	263.413	1	.000	5.732
contplt(1)	1.767	.107	274.464	1	.000	5.853
pbldmn(1)	.724	.132	30.192	1	.000	2.063
stfcntry	-.090	.022	17.049	1	.000	.914
hapsat	-.055	.023	5.849	1	.016	.947
gndr(1)	-.454	.090	25.372	1	.000	.635
agea	-.019	.003	38.838	1	.000	.981
eduys	.005	.017	.071	1	.789	1.005
income			10.726	2	.005	
income(1)	-.342	.129	6.984	1	.008	.710
income(2)	-.013	.113	.013	1	.909	.987
Constant	-2.865	.309	85.948	1	.000	.057

Source: Own research based on the ESS.

Table 26 shows the values for logistic regression equation (3). The estimation of the coefficients  $\beta$  for the independent variables is displayed in the second column,  $B$ . Each estimated coefficient show the amount of increase (if the sign of the coefficient is positive) or decrease (if the sign of the coefficient is negative) in the log odds of  $BCTPRD$  that would be predicted by a 1 unit increase in the predictor, holding all other predictors constant. For each coefficient  $\beta$ , the null hypothesis  $H_0 : \beta_i = 0$  (4) is tested. Thus, the interpretation of values for each variable is the following:

- POLINTR:  $b_1 = 0.581$  suggests that more politically interested consumer has more probability of being a boycotter. The p-value ( $p < 0.000$ ) evidences that this relationship is strongly significant, and involves that the null hypothesis  $\beta_1 = 0$  must not be accepted. According to these findings we conclude that  $\beta_1 > 0$ , that is, **there is a strongly significant positive relationship between being interested in politics and being a boycotter.**

- VOTE:  $b_2 = 0.301$  suggests that consumer who voted last national elections has more probability of being a boycotter. The p-value ( $p = 0.009$ ) evidences that this relationship is significant, and involves that the null hypothesis  $\beta_2 = 0$  must not be accepted. According to these findings we conclude that  $\beta_2 > 0$ , that is, **there is a significant positive relationship between having voted last national elections and being a boycotter.**
- SGNPTIT:  $b_3 = 1.736$  suggests that consumer who signed a petition during last 12 months has more probability of being a boycotter. The p-value ( $p < 0.000$ ) evidences that this relationship is strongly significant, and involves that the null hypothesis  $\beta_3 = 0$  must not be accepted. According to these findings we conclude that  $\beta_3 > 0$ , that is, **there is a strongly significant positive relationship between signing petitions and being a boycotter.**
- CONTPLT:  $b_4 = 1.767$  suggests that consumer who contacted politician or government official during last 12 months has more probability of being a boycotter. The p-value ( $p < 0.000$ ) evidences that this relationship is strongly significant, and involves that the null hypothesis  $\beta_4 = 0$  must not be accepted. According to these findings we conclude that  $\beta_4 > 0$ , that is, **there is a strongly significant positive relationship between contacting politician or government official and being a boycotter.**
- PBLDMN:  $b_5 = 0.724$  suggests that consumer who took part in lawful public demonstration during last 12 months has more probability of being a boycotter. The p-value ( $p < 0.000$ ) evidences that this relationship is strongly significant, and involves that the null hypothesis  $\beta_5 = 0$  must not be accepted. According to these findings we conclude that  $\beta_5 > 0$ , that is, **there is a strongly significant positive relationship between participating in lawful public demonstration and being a boycotter.**

- 
- STFCNTRY:  $b_6 = -0.090$  suggests that consumer who is more satisfied with the way government and democracy work in country has less probability of being a boycotter. The p-value ( $p < 0.000$ ) evidences that this relationship is strongly significant, and involves that the null hypothesis  $\beta_6 = 0$  must not be accepted. According to these findings we conclude that  $\beta_6 < 0$ , that is, **there is a strongly significant negative relationship between satisfaction with government and democracy in country and being a boycotter.**
  - HAPSAT:  $b_7 = -0.055$  suggests that consumer who is satisfied with life has less probability of being a boycotter. The p-value ( $p = 0.016$ ) evidences that this relationship is significant, and involves that the null hypothesis  $\beta_7 = 0$  must not be accepted. According to these findings we conclude that  $\beta_7 < 0$ , that is, **there is a significant negative relationship between being satisfied with life and being a boycotter.**
  - GNDR:  $b_8 = -0.454$  suggests that female consumer has less probability of being a boycotter. The p-value ( $p < 0.000$ ) evidences that this relationship is strongly significant, and involves that the null hypothesis  $\beta_8 = 0$  must not be accepted. According to these findings we conclude that  $\beta_8 < 0$ , that is, **there is a strongly significant negative relationship between being a woman and being a boycotter.**
  - AGEA:  $b_9 = -0.019$  suggests that older consumer has less probability of being a boycotter. The p-value ( $p < 0.000$ ) evidences that this relationship is strongly significant, and involves that the null hypothesis  $\beta_9 = 0$  must not be accepted. According to these findings we conclude that  $\beta_9 < 0$ , that is **there is a strongly significant negative relationship between age and being a boycotter.**
  - EDUYRS:  $b_{10} = 0.005$  suggests that more educated consumer has more probability of being a boycotter. However, the p-value ( $p = 0.789$ ) evi-

dences that this relationship is not significant, and involves that the null hypothesis  $\beta_{10}=0$  must not be rejected. According to these findings we conclude that **there is no significant relationship between consumer's level of education and being a boycotter.**

- INCOME: this variable displays if the overall variable *INCOME* is statistically significant. There is no coefficient indicated, because in fact *INCOME* is not a variable in the model; rather, dummy variables with code for *INCOME* have coefficients. However, the coefficient of the first dummy is statistically significant, while the coefficient for the second dummy is statistically insignificant. The statistic given on this row tells if the dummies that represent *INCOME*, taken together, are statistically significant. This test has two degrees of freedom because there are two dummies:

- INCOME (1): the reference group is low level of income (see Table 17). Coefficient  $b_{11} = -0.342$  suggests that high resourceful consumer has less probability of being a boycotter than low resourceful consumer. The p-value ( $p=0.008$ ) evidences that this difference is significant, and involves that the null hypothesis  $\beta_{11}=0$  must not be accepted. According to these findings we conclude that  $\beta_{11}<0$ , that is **there is significant negative difference between high and low resourceful consumers in the probability of being a boycotter.**
- INCOME (2): the reference group is low level of income (see Table 17). Coefficient  $b_{12} = -0.013$  suggests that consumer with middle income has less probability of being a boycotter than low resourceful consumer. However, the p-value ( $p=0.909$ ) evidences that this difference is not significant, and involves that the null hypothesis  $\beta_{12}=0$  must not be rejected. According to these findings

we conclude that **there is no significant difference between consumer with middle income and low resourceful consumers in the probability of being a boycotter.**

- Constant: the expected value of the log-odds of boycotting products last 12 months when all of the predictor variables equal zero is -2.865. As in the most cases zero is not a realistic value for variable to take, this variable is not of a great significance for our research.

### 7.5. Discussion of individual analyses of three clusters

The next step is to discuss the obtained results of binary logistic regressions for the northern, southern and eastern European clusters. In order to make any conclusions regarding proposed earlier hypotheses (see Table 7) we put the main findings together in a joint table (see Table 27). Parameters that are statistically significant are marked with red background.

Table 27. Results of individual binary logistic regression for the northern, southern and eastern European clusters.

Variable	Parameter	Cluster		
		Northern	Southern	Eastern
POLINTR	B	.579	.463	.581
	Sig.	.000	.000	.000
VOTE	B	.030	-.018	.301
	Sig.	.863	.842	.009
SGNPTIT	B	.853	.890	1.736
	Sig.	.000	.000	.000
CONTPLT	B	.422	.491	1.767
	Sig.	.001	.000	.000
PBLDMN	B	.575	.347	.724
	Sig.	.018	.000	.000
STFCNTRY	B	-.107	-.120	-.090
	Sig.	.000	.000	.000
HAPSAT	B	-.031	-.034	-.055
	Sig.	.403	.049	.016
GNDR	B	.318	.200	-.454
	Sig.	.001	.002	.000
AGEA	B	-.006	.007	-.019
	Sig.	.058	.000	.000
EDUYRS	B	.074	.055	.005
	Sig.	.000	.000	.789
INCOME	B	.199	.080	-.342
	Sig.	.154	.374	.008

Source: Own research based on the ESS.

In Table 27 the level of significance (*Sig.*) is reflected with Alpha = 0.05, where coefficients with p-values less than Alpha are considered statistically significant

and are marked with red. For example, all the coefficients of independent variable *POLINTR* have a p-value 0.00, what is absolutely less than 0.05, so we consider this parameter statistically significant. On the contrary, the coefficients of the independent variable *VOTE* for the northern and southern European clusters have p-values equal 0.863 and 0.842 respectively, what is considered statistically insignificant.

The line *B* shows the relation between the independent variables and the dependent variable. These estimates tell the amount of increase (or decrease, if the sign of the coefficient is negative) of this dependence. In the case of *POLINTR* it is observed that the relationship is direct for all the clusters under investigation, and the interpretation of this finding means that if a person interested in politics, the probability for him/her of being a boycotter increases. Oppositely, the coefficients of the independent variable *STFCNTRY* are negative for all the countries under analysis, what indicates that the more satisfied with the way democracy and government work in country person has less probability of being a boycotter.

The interpretation of the correlations and directions of relation between independent variables and the dependent variable *BCTPRD* is shown in the Table 28.

Table 28. Correlation and direction of relation between independent variables and boycotting.

Variable	Cluster	Direction of the relation with <i>BCTPRD</i>	Strength of the relation with <i>BCTPRD</i>
<b>POLINTR</b>	Northern	Direct	Significant
	Southern	Direct	Significant
	Eastern	Direct	Significant
<b>VOTE</b>	Northern	Not significant	
	Southern	Not significant	
	Eastern	Direct	Significant

<b>SGNPTIT</b>	Northern	Direct	Significant
	Southern	Direct	Significant
	Eastern	Direct	Significant
<b>CONTPLT</b>	Northern	Direct	Significant
	Southern	Direct	Significant
	Eastern	Direct	Significant
<b>PBLDMN</b>	Northern	Direct	Significant
	Southern	Direct	Significant
	Eastern	Direct	Significant
<b>STFCNTRY</b>	Northern	Inverse	Significant
	Southern	Inverse	Significant
	Eastern	Inverse	Significant
<b>HAPSAT</b>	Northern	Not significant	
	Southern	Inverse	Moderate
	Eastern	Inverse	Significant
<b>GNDR</b>	Northern	Direct	Significant
	Southern	Direct	Significant
	Eastern	Inverse	Significant
<b>AGEA</b>	Northern	Not significant	
	Southern	Direct	Significant
	Eastern	Inverse	Significant
<b>EDUYRS</b>	Northern	Direct	Significant
	Southern	Direct	Significant
	Eastern	Not significant	
<b>INCOME</b>	Northern	Not significant	
	Southern	Not significant	
	Eastern	Inverse	Significant

Source: Own research based on the ESS.

Thus, we have performed individual analysis for each cluster to reveal the relation between being a boycotter and analysed independent variables, what is presented in the Table 28.

The characteristic of *interest in politics* displays a very high level of importance across all studied European clusters. This means that most of European boycotters pay attention to the political processes in their countries. Interest in politics may serve an impetus to active political participation, what is confirmed by our next finding regarding boycotters' *political activity*. We examined boycotters' political participation through four activities: voting last national elections, signing petitions, contacting politician or government official and taking part in

lawful public demonstrations. In eastern European cluster all mentioned activities show significant positive relation with boycotting products. In northern and southern European clusters we discovered that signing petitions, contacting politicians and participation in public lawful demonstrations are political activities positively affecting consumers' decision to boycott products. Surprisingly, no significant relation between voting last national elections and boycotting certain products was found in northern and southern European clusters. This is an unanticipated finding since researchers closely relate these two activities (Shaw et al, 2006), arguing that both of them represent deliberate choice. As consumers, people select products in the market boycotting those companies who do not comply with ethical requirements. As citizens, people select politicians in the government, voting for those who comply with their expectations. Thus, boycotting products is so-called voting in the market. However, voting activity does not show relation to boycotting in northern and southern European countries. Nevertheless, since the majority of variables are statistically significant in the relation with boycotting, we conclude that more politically active European consumers more often become engaged into boycott actions. Thus, hypotheses H1 and H2 must not be rejected.

Hypothesis H3 concerning *satisfaction with the way democracy and government work in country*, show quite interesting results. As it was expected, strong significance is found in all three European clusters under analysis. However, our results show inverse direction in all European clusters. This outcome implies that less contented with governmental and democratic structures citizens have more probability of being engaged into boycott actions. This finding may confirm that people want to bring some changes into governable and democratic structure, and they use boycotting in the market to be heard through this alternative channel of participation.

Next examined characteristic of boycotters is a newly introduced variable concerning *satisfaction with life*, which refers to hypothesis H4. No significance of being happy with life and being a boycotter was discovered in the northern European cluster. However, this parameter is significant for southern and eastern European boycotters, showing inverse direction of this relation. Thus, we conclude that in the countries of Southern and Eastern Europe unsatisfied with their lives people turn to the market to express their discontent in a form of boycotting products more frequently. Though this variable is insignificant for Scandinavian consumers, the direction of the relation with boycotting also has an inverse tendency.

*Gender* is probably the most discussed in the relevant literature characteristic of boycotter. Our research also examined this variable corresponding to hypothesis H5. We found that in all European clusters gender is a significant predictor of boycotting behaviour. However, there is a difference between boycotters from eastern part of Europe and northern and southern. Scandinavian and southern European boycotting is a woman-friendly activity, whereas boycotters from Russian Federation and Ukraine are presented mostly by males.

Contradictory discovery is found regarding *age* of boycotters. No significant relation with boycotting appears in Scandinavian countries. However, in southern and eastern European clusters age is an important predictor of boycotting behaviour. Moreover, the results in these clusters are different: southern European boycotters tend to be older and eastern European – younger population. Thus, hypothesis H6 must not be accepted with respect to Scandinavian countries, while it must not be rejected with a reference to southern and eastern European countries.

The supposition that political consumers are *highly-educated* people is strongly supported by our findings among northern and southern European clusters,

emphasizing direct relationship with boycotting, what confirms that more years of education positively affect probability of being a boycotter. Nevertheless, no significant relation between boycotting and level of education is found in eastern European countries. Thus, hypothesis H7 must not be rejected regarding northern and southern European cluster and must not be accepted in reference to eastern European cluster.

Our findings concerning relation between *level of income* and involvement into boycott actions show interesting results. Most of researchers argue that boycotting requires additional costs, and is practiced by more resourceful citizens (Wilk, 2004; Ferrer & Fraile, 2006; Strømsnes, 2008). Unexpectedly, our findings do not thoroughly confirm this assumption. No significant interdependence between northern and southern European consumers' level of income and their engagement into boycott actions is found. However, in eastern European countries we found significant relation of boycotting and level of income. Moreover, the direction of this relation is inverse, which confirms that boycott is practiced by more indigent citizens in this cluster. Thus, hypothesis H8 must not be accepted in reference to all clusters.

Thus, we discovered that the same set of variables affect boycotting development in northern, southern and eastern countries of Europe in a different way. Nevertheless, we found that *political interest, signing petitions, contacting politician or government official, participation in lawful public demonstration and satisfaction with government and democracy in country* are significant characteristics of boycotters which produce the same effect in each cluster under analysis. Such variables as *voting, satisfaction with life, gender, age, level of education and income* do not act as equal determinants of boycotting behaviour in all clusters. However, precise answer regarding the differences of boycotters' profile between clusters is discussed in the next section.

## 7.6. Boycotters' profile comparison

In previous sections we examined the profile of boycotters from the northern, southern and eastern European countries separately. However, our task is to reveal the differences between boycotters' profile in different geographical clusters of Europe. In other words, we have to define which characteristics of boycotters significantly differ among selected European countries.

For this purpose we transform our initial model of binary logistic regression (3), introducing new independent variable *CLUSTER*, which has qualitative character. Decoding this variable in appropriate way we get a reference cluster which is compared with others. Thus, multiplying each independent variable with *CLUSTER* we introduce interactions to our regression model (3). This way we get two predictor variables, and our model attempts to describe how the effect of a predictor variable depends on the value of variable *CLUSTER*. A positive interaction between variables means that when independent variable increases the effect of *CLUSTER* also increases, and vice versa. Significance of interactions shows the differences between northern, southern and Eastern European clusters, revealing independent variables which act as distinctive characteristics.

Thus, our new model looks like:

$$\begin{aligned}
 y_2 = & \alpha + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + \beta_3 x_3 + \beta_4 x_4 + \beta_5 x_5 + \beta_6 x_6 + \beta_7 x_7 + \beta_8 x_8 + \\
 & + \beta_9 x_9 + \beta_{10} x_{10} + \beta_{11} x_{11} + \beta_{12} x_{12} + \beta_{13} x_{13} + \beta_{14} x_{14} + \beta_{15} x_{15} + \\
 & + \beta_{16} x_{16} + \beta_{17} x_{17} + \beta_{18} x_{18} + \beta_{19} x_{19} + \beta_{20} x_{20} + \beta_{21} x_{21} + \beta_{22} x_{22} + \\
 & + \beta_{23} x_{23} + \beta_{24} x_{24} + \varepsilon
 \end{aligned}$$

(5)

where:

$y$  – dependent variable, *BCTPRD*;

$x_i$  – independent variables;

$\alpha$  – the intercept coefficient;

$\beta_i$  – coefficient of independent variable;

$\varepsilon$  – random error.

The explanations of variables  $x_1...x_{13}$  are presented in the Table 9. Variables  $x_{14}...x_{24}$  present interactions between independent variable CLUSTER and independent variables, included in the individual cluster analyses (see chapters 7.2 – 7.5). To be more specific, we present the complex model of binary logistic regression below:

$$\begin{aligned}
 y_2 = & \alpha + \beta_1 * \text{POLINTR} + \beta_2 * \text{VOTE} + \beta_3 * \text{SGNPTIT} + \beta_4 * \text{CONTPLT} + \beta_5 * \text{PBLDMN} + \\
 & + \beta_6 * \text{STFCNTRY} + \beta_7 * \text{HAPSAT} + \beta_8 * \text{GNDR} + \beta_9 * \text{AGEA} + \beta_{10} * \text{EDUYRS} + \\
 & + \beta_{11} * \text{INCOME(1)} + \beta_{12} * \text{INCOME(2)} + \beta_{13} * (\text{CLUSTER} * \text{POLINTR}) + \\
 & + \beta_{14} * (\text{CLUSTER} * \text{VOTE}) + \beta_{15} * (\text{CLUSTER} * \text{SGNPTIT}) + \beta_{16} * (\text{CLUSTER} * \text{CONTPLT}) + \\
 & + \beta_{17} * (\text{CLUSTER} * \text{PBLDMN}) + \beta_{18} * (\text{CLUSTER} * \text{STFCNTRY}) + \beta_{19} * (\text{CLUSTER} * \text{HAPSAT}) \\
 & + \beta_{20} * (\text{CLUSTER} * \text{GNDR}) + \beta_{21} * (\text{CLUSTER} * \text{AGEA}) + \beta_{22} * (\text{CLUSTER} * \text{EDUYRS}) + \\
 & + \beta_{23} * (\text{CLUSTER} * \text{INCOME(1)}) + \beta_{24} * (\text{CLUSTER} * \text{INCOME(2)}) + \varepsilon
 \end{aligned}$$

As far as our intention is to compare profiles of boycotters we code our independent variable CLUSTER as following (see Table 29).

Table 29. Decoding of variable CLUSTER.

Categorical Variable Codings				
		Frequency	Parameter coding	
			(1)	(2)
Cluster	Southern	4837	1.000	.000
	Eastern	6028	.000	1.000
	Northern	6228	.000	.000

Source: Own research based on the ESS.

Taking into account that almost all past researches were focused on northern countries, we take this cluster as a reference of comparison for analysis of southern cluster’s data. Thus, interactions with number 1 will be referred to the southern European countries and with number 2 – to the eastern European.

Accumulating all independent variables with dependent BCTPRD we perform binary logistic regression for our model (5).

First we check if our model is generally statistically significant (see Table 30).

Table 30. General significance for regression model.

Omnibus Tests of Model Coefficients				
		Chi-square	df	Sig.
Step 1	Step	4928.266	38	.000
	Block	4928.266	38	.000
	Model	4928.266	38	.000

Source: Own research based on the ESS.

Table 30 shows that our overall model is statistically significant ( $p < 0.000$ ).

Next step is to assess the goodness of measures for our model (see Table 31).

Table 31. Classification table for the cases under analysis.

Classification Table <sup>a</sup>					
Observed		Predicted			Percentage Correct
		Boycotted certain products last 12 months			
		No	Yes		
Boycotted certain products last 12 months	No	28191	316	98.9	
	Yes	2306	451	16.4	
Overall Percentage				91.6	

Source: Own research based on the ESS.

The overall percentage of goodness of fit is 91.6%, what indicates that our data fit the model very well. However, there can be seen some badly predicted cases: 2306 were predicted to be “Yes”, but are observed as “No”; and 316 were predicted to be “No” and in fact they are observed to be “Yes”. Nevertheless, the percentage 91.6 is tending to the percentage of perfect model (100%), what draws a conclusion for our model being well-predicted.

#### *7.6.1. Differences between northern and southern European boycotters.*

To reveal the differences between northern and southern European boycotters we derive and analyse the results of binary logistic regression. Level of significance and coefficients of interactions are the subject of special interest of our research (see Table 32).

Table 32. Results of binary logistic regression to compare northern and southern European clusters<sup>1</sup>.

Variables in the Equation						
	B	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)
polintr(1)	.579	.107	29.431	1	.000	1.784
vote(1)	.030	.172	.030	1	.863	1.030
sgnptit(1)	.853	.101	70.717	1	.000	2.347
contplt(1)	.422	.125	11.487	1	.001	1.526
pbldmn(1)	.575	.243	5.599	1	.018	1.778
stfcntry	-.107	.029	13.386	1	.000	.898
hapsat	-.031	.037	.700	1	.403	.970
gndr(1)	.318	.099	10.202	1	.001	1.374
agea	-.006	.003	3.595	1	.058	.994
edyurs	.074	.015	25.189	1	.000	1.076
income			2.646	2	.266	
income(1)	.199	.140	2.027	1	.154	1.220
income(2)	.044	.132	.110	1	.740	1.045
cluster56			16.055	2	.000	
cluster56(1)	-1.752	.442	15.733	1	.000	.173
cluster56 * polintr			1.424	2	.491	
cluster56(1) by polintr(1)	-.116	.126	.843	1	.358	.890
cluster56 * vote			4.971	2	.083	
cluster56(1) by vote(1)	-.048	.193	.060	1	.806	.954
cluster56 * sgnptit			53.957	2	.000	
cluster56(1) by sgnptit(1)	.036	.123	.087	1	.768	1.037
cluster56 * contplt			24.901	2	.000	
cluster56(1) by contplt(1)	.068	.146	.220	1	.639	1.071
cluster56 * pbldmn			6.560	2	.038	
cluster56(1) by pbldmn(1)	-.228	.254	.808	1	.369	.796
cluster56 * stfcntry			1.234	2	.540	
cluster56(1) by stfcntry	-.012	.033	.138	1	.711	.988
cluster56 * hapsat			.612	2	.736	
cluster56(1) by hapsat	-.003	.041	.006	1	.939	.997
cluster56 * gndr			44.062	2	.000	
cluster56(1) by gndr(1)	-.117	.118	.988	1	.320	.889
agea * cluster56			52.533	2	.000	
agea by cluster56(1)	.013	.004	12.655	1	.000	1.013
cluster56 * edyurs			10.173	2	.006	
cluster56(1) by edyurs	-.019	.016	1.413	1	.235	.981
cluster56 * income			13.893	4	.008	
cluster56(1) by income(1)	-.119	.166	.511	1	.475	.888
cluster56(1) by income(2)	-.017	.152	.012	1	.913	.984

<sup>1</sup> With reference to the northern European cluster.

Constant	-1.294	.390	10.987	1	.001	.274
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Source: Own research based on the ESS.

With the help of this table we produce conclusions which variables differ among northern and southern European clusters, defining the character of boycotters. However, for more clear and obvious results we transform derived results to less complex interpretation (see Table 33). Significant parameters are marked with red background.

Table 33. Comparison of the northern and southern European clusters<sup>2</sup>.

Variables	Southern cluster	
	B	Sig.
POLINTR	-.116	.358
VOTE	-.048	.806
SGNPTIT	.036	.768
CONTPLT	.068	.639
PBLDMN	-.228	.369
STFCNTRY	-.012	.711
HAPSAT	-.003	.939
GNDR	-.117	.320
AGEA	.013	.000
EDUYRS	-.019	.235
INCOME (1)	-.119	.475
INCOME (2)	-.017	.913

Source: Own research based on the ESS.

With the reference to results of individual-level analyses of northern and southern European clusters (see Table 27, Table 28) new findings are not surprising. Significance and direction of correlations do not essentially differ between the variables of northern and southern European cluster. In other words, independent variables defining characteristics of consumers produce the same effect on probability of being a boycotter equally in both northern and southern Europe-

<sup>2</sup>With the reference to northern European cluster.

an clusters. However, the interpretation of values for each variable is the following:

- POLINTR:  $b_{13} = -0.116$  suggests that South European boycotter is less politically interested than boycotter from Northern Europe. However, the p-value ( $p=0.358$ ) evidences that this interaction is not significant, and involves that the null hypothesis  $\beta_{13}=0$  must not be rejected. According to these findings we conclude that **there is no significant difference in political interest between boycotters from northern and southern European clusters.**
- VOTE:  $b_{14} = -0.048$  suggests that South European boycotter is less engaged into voting activity than boycotter from Northern Europe. However, the p-value ( $p=0.806$ ) evidences that this interaction is not significant, and involves that the null hypothesis  $\beta_{14}=0$  must not be rejected. According to these findings we conclude that **there is no significant difference in signing petitions between boycotters from northern and southern European clusters.**
- SGNPTIT:  $b_{15} = 0.036$  suggests that South European boycotter signs petitions more actively than boycotter from Northern Europe. However, the p-value ( $p=0.768$ ) evidences that this interaction is not significant, and involves that the null hypothesis  $\beta_{15}=0$  must not be rejected. According to these findings we conclude that **there is no significant difference in voting activity between boycotters from northern and southern European clusters.**
- CONTPLT:  $b_{16} = 0.068$  suggests that South European boycotter contacts politician or government official more actively than boycotter from Northern Europe. However, the p-value ( $p=0.639$ ) evidences that this interaction is not significant, and involves that the null hypothesis  $\beta_{16}=0$  must not be rejected. According to these findings we conclude that **there**

**is no significant difference in contacting politicians or government officials between boycotters from northern and southern European clusters.**

- PBLDMN:  $b_{17} = -0.228$  suggests that South European boycotter takes less part in lawful public demonstrations than boycotter from Northern Europe. However, the p-value ( $p=0.369$ ) evidences that this interaction is not significant, and involves that the null hypothesis  $\beta_{17}=0$  must not be rejected. According to these findings we conclude that **there is no significant difference in participating in lawful public demonstrations between boycotters from northern and southern European clusters.**
- STFCNTRY:  $b_{18} = -0.012$  suggests that South European boycotter is less satisfied with national government and democracy than boycotter from Northern Europe. However, the p-value ( $p=0.711$ ) evidences that this interaction is not significant, and involves that the null hypothesis  $\beta_{18}=0$  must not be rejected. According to these findings we conclude that **there is no significant difference in satisfaction with national government and democracy between boycotters from northern and southern European clusters.**
- HAPSAT:  $b_{19} = -0.003$  suggests that South European boycotter is less satisfied with life than boycotter from Northern Europe. However, the p-value ( $p=0.939$ ) evidences that this interaction is not significant, and involves that the null hypothesis  $\beta_{19}=0$  must not be rejected. According to these findings we conclude that **there is no significant difference in satisfaction with life between boycotters from northern and southern European clusters.**
- GNDR:  $b_{20} = -0.117$  suggests that South European boycotter has less probability of being a female than boycotter from Northern Europe. However, the p-value ( $p=0.320$ ) evidences that this interaction is not sig-

nificant, and involves that the null hypothesis  $\beta_{20}=0$  must not be rejected. According to these findings we conclude that **there is no significant gender difference between boycotters from northern and southern European clusters.**

- AGEA:  $b_{21}= 0.013$  suggests that South European boycotter is older than boycotter from Northern Europe. The p-value ( $p<0.000$ ) evidences that this interaction is strongly significant, and involves that the null hypothesis  $\beta_{21}=0$  must not be accepted. According to these findings we conclude that  $\beta_{21}>0$ , that is, **boycotters from Southern Europe are significantly older than boycotters from Northern Europe.**
- EDUYRS:  $b_{22}= -0.019$  suggests that South European boycotter has less years of education completed than boycotter from Northern Europe. However, the p-value ( $p=0.235$ ) evidences that this interaction is not significant, and involves that the null hypothesis  $\beta_{22}=0$  must not be rejected. According to these findings we conclude that **there is no significant difference of level of education between boycotters from northern and southern European clusters.**
- INCOME: this variable displays if the overall variable *INCOME* is statistically significant. There is no coefficient indicated, because in fact *INCOME* is not a variable in the model; rather, dummy variables with code for *INCOME* have coefficients. However, the coefficient of the first dummy is statistically significant, while the coefficient for the second dummy is statistically insignificant. The statistic given on this row tells if the dummies that represent *INCOME*, taken together, are statistically significant. This test has two degrees of freedom because there are two dummies:
  - INCOME (1): the reference group is low level of income (see Table 17). Coefficient  $b_{23}= -0.119$  suggests that among boycotters there is smaller percentage of people with high income in Southern Eu-

rope than in Northern Europe. However, the p-value ( $p=0.475$ ) evidences that this interaction is not significant, and involves that the null hypothesis  $\beta_{23}=0$  must not be rejected. According to these findings we conclude that **there is no significant difference of possessing high level of income between boycotters from northern and southern European clusters.**

- INCOME (2): the reference group is low level of income (see Table 17). Coefficient  $b_{24} = -0.017$  suggests that among boycotters there is smaller percentage of people with medium income in Southern Europe than in Northern Europe. However, the p-value ( $p=0.913$ ) evidences that this difference is not significant, and involves that the null hypothesis  $\beta_{24}=0$  must not be rejected. According to these findings we conclude that **there is no significant difference of possessing medium level of income between boycotters from northern and southern European clusters.**
- Constant: the expected value of the log-odds of boycotting products last 12 months when all of the predictor variables equal zero is  $-1.294$ . As in the most cases zero is not a realistic value for variable to take, this variable is not of a great significance for our research.

Taking all findings together the main conclusion of this subsection is that **South European boycotters are younger than North European boycotters, and this is the only characteristic which differs between boycotters of these geographical clusters.**

7.6.2. Differences between northern and eastern European boycotters.

To reveal the differences between northern and eastern European boycotters we derive and analyse the results of binary logistic regression. Level of significance and coefficients of interactions are the subject of special interest of our research (see Table 34).

Table 34. Results of binary logistic regression to compare northern and eastern European clusters<sup>3</sup>.

Variables in the Equation						
	B	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)
polintr(1)	.579	.107	29.431	1	.000	1.784
vote(1)	.030	.172	.030	1	.863	1.030
sgnptit(1)	.853	.101	70.717	1	.000	2.347
contplt(1)	.422	.125	11.487	1	.001	1.526
pbldmn(1)	.575	.243	5.599	1	.018	1.778
Stfcntry	-.107	.029	13.386	1	.000	.898
Hapsat	-.031	.037	.700	1	.403	.970
gndr(1)	.318	.099	10.202	1	.001	1.374
Agea	-.006	.003	3.595	1	.058	.994
Eduyrs	.074	.015	25.189	1	.000	1.076
Income			2.646	2	.266	
income(1)	.199	.140	2.027	1	.154	1.220
income(2)	.044	.132	.110	1	.740	1.045
cluster56			16.055	2	.000	
cluster56(2)	-1.572	.498	9.965	1	.002	.208
cluster56 * polintr			1.424	2	.491	
cluster56(2) by polintr(1)	.002	.143	.000	1	.990	1.002
cluster56 * vote			4.971	2	.083	
cluster56(2) by vote(1)	.271	.206	1.730	1	.188	1.312
cluster56 * sgnptit			53.957	2	.000	
cluster56(2) by sgnptit(1)	.914	.147	38.516	1	.000	2.493
cluster56 * contplt			24.901	2	.000	
cluster56(2) by contplt(1)	.665	.163	16.555	1	.000	1.944
cluster56 * pbldmn			6.560	2	.038	
cluster56(2) by pbldmn(1)	.149	.277	.290	1	.590	1.161
cluster56 * stfcntry			1.234	2	.540	
cluster56(2) by stfcntry	.018	.037	.230	1	.631	1.018
cluster56 * hapsat			.612	2	.736	

<sup>3</sup> With reference to northern European cluster.

cluster56(2) by hapsat	-.024	.043	.314	1	.575	.976
cluster56 * gndr			44.062	2	.000	
cluster56(2) by gndr(1)	-.772	.134	33.052	1	.000	.462
agea * cluster56			52.533	2	.000	
agea by cluster56(2)	-.013	.004	8.878	1	.003	.987
cluster56 * eduyrs			10.173	2	.006	
cluster56(2) by eduyrs	-.069	.022	9.493	1	.002	.933
cluster56 * income			13.893	4	.008	
cluster56(2) by income(1)	-.541	.191	8.065	1	.005	.582
cluster56(2) by income(2)	-.057	.174	.106	1	.745	.945
Constant	-1.294	.390	10.987	1	.001	.274

Source: Own research based on the ESS.

With the help of this table we produce conclusions which variables differ among northern and eastern European clusters, defining the character of boycotters. However, for more clear and obvious results we transform derived results to less complex interpretation (see Table 35). Significant parameters are marked with red background.

Table 35. Comparison of the northern and eastern European clusters<sup>4</sup>.

Variables	Eastern	
	B	Sig.
POLINTR	.002	.990
VOTE	.271	.188
SGNPTIT	.914	.000
CONTPLT	.665	.000
PBLDMN	.149	.590
STFCNTRY	.018	.631
HAPSAT	-.024	.575
GNDR	-.772	.000
AGEA	-.013	.003
EDUYRS	-.069	.002
INCOME (1)	-.541	.005
INCOME (2)	-.057	.745

Source: Own research based on the ESS.

<sup>4</sup>With the reference to northern European cluster.

With the reference to results of individual-level analyses of northern and eastern European clusters (see Table 27, Table 28) new findings are not surprising. Significance and direction of correlations differences are quite expected between the variables of northern and southern European cluster. However, the interpretation of values for each variable is the following:

- POLINTR:  $b_{13} = 0.002$  suggests that East European boycotter is more politically interested than boycotter from Northern Europe. However, the p-value ( $p = 0.990$ ) evidences that this interaction is not significant, and involves that the null hypothesis  $\beta_{13} = 0$  must not be rejected. According to these findings we conclude that **there is no significant difference in political interest between boycotters from northern and eastern European clusters.**
- VOTE:  $b_{14} = 0.271$  suggests that East European boycotter is more engaged into voting activity than boycotter from Northern Europe. However, the p-value ( $p = 0.188$ ) evidences that this interaction is not significant, and involves that the null hypothesis  $\beta_{14} = 0$  must not be rejected. According to these findings we conclude that **there is no significant difference in signing petitions between boycotters from northern and eastern European clusters.**
- SGNPTIT:  $b_{15} = 0.914$  suggests that East European boycotter signs petitions more actively than boycotter from Northern Europe. The p-value ( $p < 0.000$ ) evidences that this interaction is strongly significant, and involves that the null hypothesis  $\beta_{15} = 0$  must not be accepted. According to these findings we conclude that  $\beta_{15} > 0$ , that is, **boycotters from Eastern Europe sign petitions significantly more frequently than boycotters from Northern Europe.**
- CONTPLT:  $b_{16} = 0.665$  suggests that East European boycotter contacts politician or government official more actively than boycotter from Northern

Europe. The p-value ( $p < 0.000$ ) evidences that this interaction is strongly significant, and involves that the null hypothesis  $\beta_{16} = 0$  must not be accepted. According to these findings we conclude that  $\beta_{16} > 0$ , that is, **boycotters from Eastern Europe contact politicians significantly more frequently than boycotters from Northern Europe.**

- PBLDMN:  $b_{17} = 0.149$  suggests that East European boycotter takes more part in lawful public demonstrations than boycotter from Northern Europe. However, the p-value ( $p = 0.590$ ) evidences that this interaction is not significant, and involves that the null hypothesis  $\beta_{17} = 0$  must not be rejected. According to these findings we conclude that **there is no significant difference in participating in lawful public demonstrations between boycotters from northern and eastern European clusters.**
- STFCNTRY:  $b_{18} = 0.018$  suggests that East European boycotter is more satisfied with national government and democracy than boycotter from Northern Europe. However, the p-value ( $p = 0.631$ ) evidences that this interaction is not significant, and involves that the null hypothesis  $\beta_{18} = 0$  must not be rejected. According to these findings we conclude that **there is no significant difference in satisfaction with national government and democracy between boycotters from northern and eastern European clusters.**
- HAPSAT:  $b_{19} = -0.024$  suggests that East European boycotter is less satisfied with life than boycotter from Northern Europe. However, the p-value ( $p = 0.575$ ) evidences that this interaction is not significant, and involves that the null hypothesis  $\beta_{19} = 0$  must not be rejected. According to these findings we conclude that **there is no significant difference in satisfaction with life between boycotters from northern and eastern European clusters.**

- GNDR:  $b_{20} = -0.772$  suggests that East European boycotter has less probability of being a female than boycotter from Northern Europe. The p-value ( $p < 0.000$ ) evidences that this interaction is strongly significant, and involves that the null hypothesis  $\beta_{20} = 0$  must not be accepted. According to these findings we conclude that  $\beta_{20} < 0$ , that is, **boycotters from Eastern Europe include significantly more males than boycotters from Northern Europe.**
- AGEA:  $b_{21} = -0.013$  suggests that East European boycotter is younger than boycotter from Northern Europe. The p-value ( $p = 0.003$ ) evidences that this interaction is significant, and involves that the null hypothesis  $\beta_{21} = 0$  must not be accepted. According to these findings we conclude that  $\beta_{21} < 0$ , that is, **boycotters from Eastern Europe are younger than boycotters from Northern Europe.**
- EDUYRS:  $b_{22} = -0.069$  suggests that East European boycotter has less years of education completed than boycotter from Northern Europe. The p-value ( $p = 0.002$ ) evidences that this interaction is significant, and involves that the null hypothesis  $\beta_{22} = 0$  must not be accepted. According to these findings we conclude that  $\beta_{22} < 0$ , that is, **boycotters from Eastern Europe have significantly less years of education completed than boycotters from Northern Europe.**
- INCOME: this variable displays if the overall variable *INCOME* is statistically significant. There is no coefficient indicated, because in fact *INCOME* is not a variable in the model; rather, dummy variables with code for *INCOME* have coefficients. However, the coefficient of the first dummy is statistically significant, while the coefficient for the second dummy is statistically insignificant. The statistic given on this row tells if the dummies that represent *INCOME*, taken together, are statistically significant. This test has two degrees of freedom because there are two dummies:

- INCOME (1): the reference group is low level of income (see Table 17). Coefficient  $b_{23} = -0.541$  suggests that among boycotters there is smaller percentage of people with high income in Eastern Europe than in Northern Europe. The p-value ( $p=0.005$ ) evidences that this interaction is significant, and involves that the null hypothesis  $\beta_{23}=0$  must not be accepted. According to these findings we conclude that  $\beta_{23}<0$ , that is, **among boycotters there is significantly smaller percentage of people with high income in Eastern Europe than in Northern Europe.**
- INCOME (2): the reference group is low level of income (see Table 17). Coefficient  $b_{24} = -0.057$  suggests that among boycotters there is smaller percentage of people with medium income in Eastern Europe than in Northern Europe. However, the p-value ( $p=0.745$ ) evidences that this difference is not significant, and involves that the null hypothesis  $\beta_{24}=0$  must not be rejected. According to these findings we conclude that **there is no significant difference of possessing medium level of income between boycotters from northern and eastern European clusters.**
- Constant: the expected value of the log-odds of boycotting products last 12 months when all of the predictor variables equal zero is -1.294. As in the most cases zero is not a realistic value for variable to take, this variable is not of a great significance for our research.

Taking all findings together the main conclusion of this subsection is that **East and North European boycotters' profile are different from each other. This disparity appears in such activities as signing petitions and contacting politicians. Moreover, East and North European boycotters differ in gender, age, level of education and income.**

7.6.3. Differences between boycotters from the southern and eastern European clusters.

After revealing the differences between boycotters' profiles with a reference to the leading northern cluster, our next task is to find out if there are any similarities or distinctions between the boycotters from southern and Eastern Europe. Taking the southern cluster as a benchmark (see Table 36), we perform the same binary logistic regression with interactions (5).

Table 36. Decoding of variable CLUSTER.

Categorical Variable Codings				
		Frequency	Parameter coding	
			(1)	(2)
Cluster	Northern	6228	1.000	.000
	Eastern	6028	.000	1.000
	Southern	4837	.000	.000

Source: Own research based on the ESS.

Thus, we take into account only interactions with number 2, as far as the profiles of boycotters from the southern and northern clusters have already been compared earlier (see Chapter 7.6.1, Table 32, Table 33).

Accumulating all independent variables with dependent BCTPRD we perform binary logistic regression for our model (5).

As far as our model has not been changed, it remains statistically significant (Sig. = 0.000) compared to the critical value of 0.05 (see Table 30). The same conformity is observed with the goodness of measures for the concerned model (see Table 31) with the overall percentage of goodness equal to 91.6%, confirming that the model is well-predicted.

Finally we derive and analyse the results of binary logistic regression, where the level of significance and coefficients of interactions are of special interest for our research (see Table 37).

Table 37. Results of binary logistic regression to compare southern and eastern European clusters<sup>5</sup>.

Variables in the Equation						
	B	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)
polintr(1)	.463	.068	46.521	1	.000	1.588
vote(1)	-.018	.089	.040	1	.842	.982
sgnptit(1)	.890	.070	163.353	1	.000	2.434
contplt(1)	.491	.075	42.444	1	.000	1.634
pbldmn(1)	.347	.073	22.419	1	.000	1.415
Stfcntry	-.120	.016	56.437	1	.000	.887
Hapsat	-.034	.018	3.578	1	.059	.967
gndr(1)	.200	.064	9.870	1	.002	1.222
Agea	.007	.002	12.464	1	.000	1.008
Eduyrs	.055	.006	73.195	1	.000	1.056
Income			.811	2	.667	
income(1)	.080	.090	.790	1	.374	1.084
income(2)	.027	.076	.128	1	.720	1.027
cluster56			16.055	2	.000	
cluster56(1)	1.752	.442	15.733	1	.000	5.765
cluster56(2)	.180	.372	.235	1	.628	1.197
cluster56 * polintr			1.424	2	.491	
cluster56(2) by polintr(1)	.118	.117	1.020	1	.313	1.125
cluster56 * vote			4.971	2	.083	
cluster56(2) by vote(1)	.319	.145	4.814	1	.028	1.375
cluster56 * sgnptit			53.957	2	.000	
cluster56(2) by sgnptit(1)	.877	.127	47.459	1	.000	2.405
cluster56 * contplt			24.901	2	.000	
cluster56(2) by contplt(1)	.596	.130	21.135	1	.000	1.815
cluster56 * pbldmn			6.560	2	.038	
cluster56(2) by pbldmn(1)	.377	.151	6.254	1	.012	1.458
cluster56 * stfcntry			1.234	2	.540	

<sup>5</sup> With reference to the southern European cluster.

cluster56(2) by stfcntry	.030	.027	1.230	1	.267	1.030
cluster56 * hapsat			.612	2	.736	
cluster56(2) by hapsat	-.021	.029	.531	1	.466	.979
cluster56 * gndr			44.062	2	.000	
cluster56(2) by gndr(1)	-.654	.110	35.124	1	.000	.520
agea * cluster56			52.533	2	.000	
agea by cluster56(2)	-.026	.004	50.810	1	.000	.974
cluster56 * eduyrs			10.173	2	.006	
cluster56(2) by eduyrs	-.050	.018	7.636	1	.006	.951
cluster56 * income			13.893	4	.008	
cluster56(2) by income(1)	-.422	.158	7.163	1	.007	.656
cluster56(2) by income(2)	-.040	.136	.086	1	.769	.961
Constant	-3.046	.207	217.107	1	.000	.048

Source: Own research based on the ESS.

With the help of this table we produce conclusions which variables differ among clusters, defining the character of boycotters. However, for more clear and obvious results we transform derived results to the less complex interpretation (see Table 38). Significant parameters are marked with red background.

Table 38. Comparison of the southern and eastern European clusters<sup>6</sup>.

Variables	Eastern	
	B	Sig.
POLINTR	.118	.313
VOTE	.319	.028
SGNPTIT	.877	.000
CONTPLT	.596	.000
PBLDMN	.377	.012
STFCNTRY	.030	.267
HAPSAT	-.021	.466
GNDR	-.654	.000
AGEA	-.026	.000
EDUYRS	-.050	.006
INCOME (1)	-.422	.007
INCOME (2)	-.040	.769

Source: Own research based on the ESS.

<sup>6</sup>With the reference to southern European cluster.

With the reference to results of individual-level analyses of southern and eastern European clusters (see Table 27, Table 28) we discover new aspects. The same significant variables which determine boycotting behaviour in South and East European countries produce different effect when compared between clusters. However, the interpretation of values for each variable is the following:

- POLINTR:  $b_{13} = 0.118$  suggests that East European boycotter is more politically interested than boycotter from Southern Europe. However, the p-value ( $p = 0.313$ ) evidences that this interaction is not significant, and involves that the null hypothesis  $\beta_{13} = 0$  must not be rejected. According to these findings we conclude that **there is no significant difference in political interest between boycotters from southern and eastern European clusters.**
- VOTE:  $b_{14} = 0.319$  suggests that East European boycotter is more engaged into voting activity than boycotter from Southern Europe. The p-value ( $p = 0.028$ ) evidences that this interaction is significant, and involves that the null hypothesis  $\beta_{14} = 0$  must not be accepted. According to these findings we conclude that  $\beta_{14} > 0$ , that is, **boycotters from Eastern Europe vote in elections significantly more frequently than boycotters from Southern Europe.**
- SGNPTIT:  $b_{15} = 0.877$  suggests that East European boycotter signs petitions more actively than boycotter from Southern Europe. The p-value ( $p < 0.000$ ) evidences that this interaction is strongly significant, and involves that the null hypothesis  $\beta_{15} = 0$  must not be accepted. According to these findings we conclude that  $\beta_{15} > 0$ , that is, **boycotters from Eastern Europe sign petitions significantly more frequently than boycotters from Southern Europe.**
- CONTPLT:  $b_{16} = 0.596$  suggests that East European boycotter contacts politician or government official more actively than boycotter from Southern

Europe. The p-value ( $p < 0.000$ ) evidences that this interaction is strongly significant, and involves that the null hypothesis  $\beta_{16} = 0$  must not be accepted. According to these findings we conclude that  $\beta_{16} > 0$ , that is, **boycotters from Eastern Europe contact politicians significantly more frequently than boycotters from Southern Europe.**

- PBLDMN:  $b_{17} = 0.377$  suggests that East European boycotter takes more part in lawful public demonstrations than boycotter from Southern Europe. The p-value ( $p = 0.012$ ) evidences that this interaction is significant, and involves that the null hypothesis  $\beta_{17} = 0$  must not be accepted. According to these findings we conclude that  $\beta_{17} > 0$ , that is, **boycotters from Eastern Europe take part in lawful public demonstrations significantly more frequently than boycotters from Southern Europe.**
- STFCNTRY:  $b_{18} = 0.030$  suggests that East European boycotter is more satisfied with national government and democracy than boycotter from Southern Europe. However, the p-value ( $p = 0.267$ ) evidences that this interaction is not significant, and involves that the null hypothesis  $\beta_{18} = 0$  must not be rejected. According to these findings we conclude that **there is no significant difference in satisfaction with national government and democracy between boycotters from southern and eastern European clusters.**
- HAPSAT:  $b_{19} = -0.021$  suggests that East European boycotter is less satisfied with life than boycotter from Southern Europe. However, the p-value ( $p = 0.466$ ) evidences that this interaction is not significant, and involves that the null hypothesis  $\beta_{19} = 0$  must not be rejected. According to these findings we conclude that **there is no significant difference in satisfaction with life between boycotters from southern and eastern European clusters.**

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- GNDR:  $b_{20} = -0.654$  suggests that East European boycotter has less probability of being a female than boycotter from Southern Europe. The p-value ( $p < 0.000$ ) evidences that this interaction is strongly significant, and involves that the null hypothesis  $\beta_{20} = 0$  must not be accepted. According to these findings we conclude that  $\beta_{20} < 0$ , that is, **boycotters from Eastern Europe include significantly more males than boycotters from Southern Europe.**
  - AGEA:  $b_{21} = -0.026$  suggests that East European boycotter is younger than boycotter from Southern Europe. The p-value ( $p < 0.000$ ) evidences that this interaction is strongly significant, and involves that the null hypothesis  $\beta_{21} = 0$  must not be accepted. According to these findings we conclude that  $\beta_{21} < 0$ , that is, **boycotters from Eastern Europe are significantly younger than boycotters from Southern Europe.**
  - EDUYRS:  $b_{22} = -0.050$  suggests that East European boycotter has less years of education completed than boycotter from Southern Europe. The p-value ( $p = 0.006$ ) evidences that this interaction is significant, and involves that the null hypothesis  $\beta_{22} = 0$  must not be accepted. According to these findings we conclude that  $\beta_{22} < 0$ , that is, **boycotters from Eastern Europe have less years of education completed than boycotters from Southern Europe.**
  - INCOME: this variable displays if the overall variable *INCOME* is statistically significant. There is no coefficient indicated, because in fact *INCOME* is not a variable in the model; rather, dummy variables with code for *INCOME* have coefficients. However, the coefficient of the first dummy is statistically significant, while the coefficient for the second dummy is statistically insignificant. The statistic given on this row tells if the dummies that represent *INCOME*, taken together, are statistically significant. This test has two degrees of freedom because there are two dummies:

- INCOME (1): the reference group is low level of income (see Table 17). Coefficient  $b_{23} = -0.422$  suggests that among boycotters there is smaller percentage of people with high income in Eastern Europe than in Southern Europe. The p-value ( $p=0.007$ ) evidences that this interaction is significant, and involves that the null hypothesis  $\beta_{23}=0$  must not be accepted. According to these findings we conclude that  $\beta_{23}<0$ , that is, **among boycotters there is significantly smaller percentage of people with high income in Eastern Europe than in Southern Europe.**
- INCOME (2): the reference group is low level of income (see Table 17). Coefficient  $b_{24} = -0.040$  suggests that among boycotters there is smaller percentage of people with medium income in Eastern Europe than in Northern Europe. However, the p-value ( $p=0.769$ ) evidences that this difference is not significant, and involves that the null hypothesis  $\beta_{24}=0$  must not be rejected. According to these findings we conclude that **there is no significant difference of possessing medium level of income between boycotters from southern and eastern European clusters.**
  - Constant: the expected value of the log-odds of boycotting products last 12 months when all of the predictor variables equal zero is -3.046. As in the most cases zero is not a realistic value for variable to take, this variable is not of a great significance for our research.

Taking all findings together the main conclusion of this subsection is that **East and South European boycotters' profile differ among each other. However, there is no significant difference in political activity, satisfaction with government and democracy and satisfaction with life between southern and eastern European boycotters.**

### 7.7. Discussion of boycotters' profile comparison and study results

To summarize, our findings show that there is no general profile of consumer who deliberately refrain from purchase of certain products. As we expected, characteristics of a typical boycotter differ between geographical clusters.

However, the profile of North European boycotters is quite similar to the profile of South European boycotter. Given to significant prevalence of boycotting activity among European clusters we expected boycotters from this cluster to be radically different from other geographical parts of Europe.

Thus, we revealed that boycotters from northern and southern European clusters do not significantly differ between each other in *political interest and participation* or *satisfaction with national government and democracy*. Boycotters from both clusters are politically interested and politically active in such activities as signing petitions, contacting politicians or government officials, participation in lawful public demonstrations. Moreover, they are citizens, not satisfied with the way government and democracy work in their countries. These variables are common between North and South European clusters and do not indicate difference of boycotters.

Variable "*Satisfaction with life*" neither appears as a distinction between these two clusters. Though, boycotters from southern European cluster tend to be less happy with their lives people, and satisfaction with life does not produce any effect on boycotting behaviour in northern European countries. According to this we cannot say if boycotters from one of mentioned clusters are happier than the other ones.

According to individual-level cluster analysis (see Table 27, Table 28) we revealed that common characteristic of North and South European typical boycotter is a *female sex* and reach *academic background*. However, difference of

these parameters between mentioned geographical clusters is not pronounced. *Level of income* neither distinguishes boycotters from northern and southern European clusters, this parameter is not significant predictor of boycotting behaviour.

The only revealed disparity between North and South European boycotters is *age*. Though consumers' decision to boycott certain products does not depend on their age in northern cluster, it is revealed that boycotters from southern European cluster tend to be older population. Moreover, South European boycotters are found as being older than North European boycotters.

The profile of East European boycotter has more distinctions from the profiles of both North and South European boycotters. However, it seems that eastern European boycotter is *interested in politics* and *not satisfied with government and democracy* to the same extent as boycotters from other clusters. Generally, East European boycotter actively *participate in political activities*, such as *voting, signing petitions, contacting politicians* and *taking part in lawful public demonstrations*. Moreover, eastern European boycotter sign petitions and contact politicians more frequently than boycotters from other clusters. Besides, comparing to North European boycotter, he/she also vote in elections and take part in lawful public demonstrations more often.

We found that citizens who boycott products are not *satisfied with their lives*. However, this characteristic is not a disparity from other boycotters as we did not reveal any significant relation of variable "Satisfaction with life" and inheritance to any geographical cluster.

Two characteristics which appear as a contrast of boycotters from East Europe are their *gender* and *age*. Surprisingly and contrary to most of theories on political consumerism boycotters from East European countries are mostly males.

Moreover, they are represented by youth, and they are significantly younger than boycotters from North and South European clusters.

Oppositely to North and South European cluster, *level of education* does not show significance in shaping East European boycotter's behaviour. However, this variable is another source of geographical disparity between boycotters. We found that East European boycotters possess more limited academic background than boycotters of other clusters.

On the contrary, *level of income* seems to be a significant boycotting predictor only in countries of eastern Europe, which shows that boycotters of this cluster do not belong to resourceful citizens. Moreover, in comparison to other clusters this effect is enhanced indicating that eastern boycotters are the poorest among European citizens who refrain from purchasing certain products.

To resume we conclude that **profiles of North and South European boycotter are similar to each other, while the profile of East European boycotter is much more different.** Perhaps, this is an explanation of the boycott development across European countries (see Table 8, Graph 5). Northern and southern European countries take the leading position, whereas eastern European countries do not show high involvement into boycott actions.

The short summary of obtained results regarding acceptance and rejection of presented in this research hypotheses (see Chapter 5, Section 5.5) is shown in Table 39.

Table 39. Accepted and rejected hypotheses.

Hypothesis		Corresponding variable	Acceptance/ Rejection of hypothesis
<b>RQ: What is the difference between political consumerism presented in northern, southern and eastern European countries?</b>			
H1	<b>There is a positive correlation between participation in boycotts and interest in politics.</b>	POLINTR	Not rejected.
H1A	Boycotters from southern European countries are less interested in politics than boycotters from Northern Europe.		Not accepted. No significant difference of boycotters' interest in politics is found between different geographical clusters.
H1B	Boycotters from eastern European countries are less interested in politics than boycotters from Northern Europe.		
H1C	Boycotters from eastern European countries are less interested in politics than boycotters from Southern Europe.		
H2	<b>There is a positive correlation between participation in boycotts and political activity.</b>	VOTE SGNPTIT CONTPLT PBLDMN	Not rejected. Only voting does not show significant influence on boycotting in northern and southern Europe, unlike other analysed political activities. However, in eastern European cluster all investigated constituents of political activity produce significant effect on boycotting goods, including voting.
H2A	Boycotters from southern European countries show less engagement into political activity than boycotters from Northern Europe.		Not accepted. No significant difference of boycotters' political participation is found between northern and southern European countries.
H2B	Boycotters from eastern European countries show less engagement into political activity than boycotters from Northern Europe.		Partially accepted. Eastern boycotters are more politically active than northern European in signing petitions and contacting politicians. However, no significant difference of voting or

			taking part in lawful public demonstration is found between boycotters from eastern and northern European countries.
H2C	Boycotters from eastern European countries show less engagement into political activity than boycotters from Southern Europe.		Not accepted. Eastern European boycotters are more politically active than southern.
H3	<b>There is a positive correlation between participation in boycotts and satisfaction with the way democracy and government work in the country.</b>	STFCNTRY	Not rejected.
H3A	Boycotters from southern European countries are less satisfied with the government and democracy of their countries than boycotters from Northern Europe.		Not accepted. No significant difference of boycotters' satisfaction with the way government and democracy work in country is found between geographical clusters.
H3B	Boycotters from eastern European countries are less satisfied with the government and democracy of their countries than boycotters from Northern Europe.		
H3C	Boycotters from eastern European countries are less satisfied with the government and democracy of their countries than boycotters from Southern Europe.		
H4	<b>There is a positive correlation between participation in boycotts and satisfaction with life.</b>		
H4A	Boycotters from Southern Europe are less satisfied with their lives than boycotters from Northern Europe.	Not accepted. No significant difference of boycotters' satisfaction with life is found between different geographical clusters.	
H4B	Boycotters from Eastern Europe are less satisfied with their lives than boycotters from Northern Europe.		
H4C	Boycotters from Eastern Europe are less satisfied with their lives than boycotters from Southern Europe.		

H5	<b>Women present larger percentage of boycotters than men in European countries.</b>	GNDR	Partially accepted. Women present larger percentage of boycotters in northern and southern European cluster. However, eastern European boycotters are presented mostly by males.
H5A	Boycotters from Northern Europe are represented by women more than boycotters from Southern Europe.		Not accepted. No significant difference of gender is found between northern and southern European boycotters'.
H5B	Boycotters from Northern Europe are represented by women more than boycotters from Eastern Europe.		
H5C	Boycotters from Southern Europe are represented by women more than boycotters from Eastern Europe.		
H6	<b>Young people present larger percentage of boycotters than older age categories in European countries.</b>	AGEA	Partially accepted. Boycotters from eastern European cluster are represented mostly by young people. Contrarily, southern European boycotters are represented mostly by older people. However, no significant relation between boycotting and age is found in northern European cluster.
H6A	Boycotters from Northern Europe are younger than boycotters from Southern Europe.		Not rejected.
H6B	Boycotters from Northern Europe are younger than boycotters from Eastern Europe.		Not accepted. Boycotters from eastern European countries are younger than boycotters from Northern Europe.
H6C	Boycotters from Southern Europe are younger than boycotters from Eastern Europe.		Not accepted. Boycotters from eastern European countries are younger than boycotters from Southern Europe.
H7	<b>There is a positive correlation between participation in boycotts and level of education.</b>	EDUYRS	Partially accepted. Northern and southern European boycotters are well-educated people. However,

			no significant relation between boycotting and level of education is found in eastern European cluster.
H7A	Boycotters from southern European countries have lower level of education than boycotters from Northern Europe.		Not accepted. No significant relation of level of education is found between boycotters from southern and northern European countries.
H7B	Boycotters from eastern European countries have lower level of education than boycotters from Northern Europe.		Not rejected.
H7C	Boycotters from eastern European countries have lower level of education than boycotters from Southern Europe.		
<b>H8</b>	<b>There is a positive correlation between participation in boycotts and level of income.</b>		Partially rejected. Significant relation between boycotting and level of income is found only in eastern European cluster.
H8A	Among boycotters there are more people with high level of income in northern European countries than in southern Europe.	INCOME	Not accepted. No significant difference of possessing high level of income is found between boycotters from southern and northern European countries.
H8B	Among boycotters there are more people with high level of income in northern European countries than in eastern Europe.		Not rejected.
H8C	Among boycotters there are more people with high level of income in southern European countries than in eastern Europe.		

Source: Own research based on the ESS.

Thus, we have analysed the profile of boycotters from different European countries and discovered existing differences and similarities between them. We have revealed some interesting findings through this analysis. First, several of the previously stated affirmations regarding the profile of Scandinavian boy-

cotters, such as the level of income, age and voting, raise some doubts. No relation between these characteristics and boycotting certain products has been found in our study.

Second interesting result is observed regarding boycotters' satisfaction with the way democracy and government work in the country. Political consumers from all three clusters under analysis show the same evidence: less satisfied citizens engage to boycott actions more often, and the coefficient of this relation is almost the same for all three clusters (-0.107, -0.120, -0.090 for northern, southern and eastern European countries respectively).

Third, such political activity as voting which is frequently compared to political consumerism shows no significance with the reference to boycott actions regarding countries-leaders in boycotting products – the northern and southern clusters. However, it is quite significant for eastern boycotters with positive direction of this relation.

Fourth, the newly introduced variable describing boycotters' happiness with life finds its empirical support for the countries of southern and eastern Europe, confirming theory that people more often go to boycott in the marketplace if they are not satisfied with their lives in general, while Scandinavian boycotters do not consider this aspect as being important.

Fifth, despite anticipated similarities of boycotters' profile between southern and northern European countries and their distinction from the eastern political consumers, we have found contrary evidence: the profile of southern boycotters is more similar to the eastern ones than to Scandinavian. Except the age of boycotters, there is no other variable producing significant effect on the congruence of boycotters' profile from southern and Northern Europe. Comparing

eastern European countries where boycotting occupies the lowest rates of development with the advanced in this activity northern European countries, we conclude that boycotters from Russian Federation and Ukraine are younger males with fewer years of education and lower income, who however, more often participate in political activities such as signing petitions and contacting politicians. Almost the same differences are observed while comparing eastern European boycotters with southern ones, with the amendment that eastern European boycotters are more politically active in general. We suggest that these characteristics may explain the difference of consumer boycott development of these geographical clusters. Regarding the southern European cluster standing in the middle of the scale of boycott activities development it remains impossible to substantiate this gap with the northern countries grounding on the difference of boycotters' profile, as it seems to be quite alike. Instead of this, we may suggest that there exist more factors stipulating this gap, be it other social, economic or political aspects.

## **7.8. Summary of the chapter**

The seventh chapter is devoted to sequential analysis of the data we employed in our research, which was performed with the help of IBM SPSS Statistics 20. We divided our investigation in 5 steps, which include individual analyses of each cluster, discussion of derived results, and the following comparison of boycotters' profiles from different European clusters. We provided detailed description of each variable, what helps to understand the profile of boycotters from northern, southern, and eastern Europe in the scope of our research. Moreover, we provided discussion of the obtained results according to the hypotheses framed in the fifth chapter. Some of the findings endorse our suppositions, while the other results are quite unexpected. However, the results of our study gave us the reasons to make final conclusions about acceptance or rejection of the hypotheses. These conclusions are presented in a structured table at the end of this chapter.

## **8 CONCLUSIONS**

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8.1. Introduction

8.2. Main findings

8.3. Personal opinion on the research

8.4. Implications

8.5. Limitations and suggestions for future research

## 8.1. Introduction

This PhD research extended a very important phenomenon in academic world – political consumerism. This concept is understood here as a non-traditional form of consumers' activity, use of market as another arena for political participation. One of the main relevant aspects of political consumerism that should be under consideration is boycott of certain products due to political, ethical or any other reasons. Researchers assert that this activity is important to study because it has developed a non-individualised, political sense of responsibility that springs from a completely individualistic understanding of causality, agency and blame.

At the outset, we defined political consumers as those who choose producers and products guided by ethical or moral considerations, or the combination of both factors (Stolle, Hooghe & Micheletti, 2005). The most developed activity of political consumerism is boycott (Young, 2003) which is defined as an endeavour of achieving certain benefits through stimulating individual consumers to restrain from consumption of specific products in a marketplace (Friedman, 1985). Thus, those citizens who fall under such influence are becoming boycotters. Recently more and more people report about engagement into such activity, and the growing tendency (Cone Communications/Echo, 2013) of boycott development predicts the evolution of socially conscious consumption.

Observing relevant literature, surveys and discussions, we concluded that the majority of boycotters are found in Scandinavian countries, southern countries are found in the middle of the scale, and there is quite small percentage of boycotters in the eastern part of Europe. Our findings conform to the results of past investigations on the boycott's geographical development across Europe (Ferrer, 2004; Stolle et al., 2005; García-Arrizabalaga, Gibaja-Martíns & Mujika-Alberdi, 2010). As follows, there is almost no any investigation on this concept

in the countries of southern and Eastern Europe. Accordingly, the question about profile of boycotters of these countries is quite significant for further studies and discussions, as well as disclosure of distinctions and similarities between the consumers of different geographical parts of Europe.

The main objective of this research was to identify those who act as boycotters in different geographical clusters of Europe and compare them among each other. For this purpose our task is to reveal which characteristics, if there are any, significantly predicted the likelihood of certain person to participate in boycott action in comparison to others. Thus, we separated consumers to “boycotters” and “non-boycotters” according to their ethical practices in the market.

To introduce hypotheses concerning characteristics which were expected to predict consumer boycotting behaviour, we considered various investigations on this concept mostly from European countries (Inglehart, 1988; Klein, Smith & John, 2002; Diamantopoulos, Schlegelmilch & Sinkovics, 2003; Micheletti, Føllesdal & Stolle, 2003; Ferrer, 2004; Stolle, Hooghe & Micheletti, 2005; Ferrer & Fraile, 2006; Gallego, 2007; Strømsnes, 2008; Shaw & Black, 2010; Gotlieb & Wells, 2012), supplemented with the studies from the USA (Sen & Bhattacharya, 2001; Shah, McLeod & Kim, 2007; Paek & Nelson, 2008; Baek, 2010) and limited research in the outer countries (Flavin & Keane 2007; Gill, 2012; Cone Communications/Echo, 2013).

To detect the profile of consumers who deliberately refrain from buying certain products and services, what corresponds to the aims of our research, we used secondary data from the fifth and sixth waves of the European Social Survey, which were collected between 2010 and 2013. On the basis of relatively similar results of individual-level country analysis and according to UNO geographical classification we separated three geographical clusters of Europe: northern (with Finland and Sweden as representative samples), southern (with Greece,

Italy and Spain as representative samples), and eastern (with Russian Federation and Ukraine as representative samples). Further, with the help of IBM SPSS Statistics 20 we performed analysis of binary logistic regression with selected variables from the ESS.

On the first step of statistical analysis we detected typical profile of boycotter from each cluster. Then, introducing interactions to our regression model we obtained results for comparative analysis of boycotter's profile between three clusters. According to relevant literature and findings from previous researches we anticipatorily designed an image of typical European boycotter as a young female, well-educated and with a high level of income, politically interested and active, who is quite happy with her life, and satisfied with the performance of government and democracy in the country. Moreover, we predicted that these socio-demographic characteristics differ between boycotters from various geographical clusters of Europe, more pronounced in the countries of North Europe in comparison to South and East.

## 8.2. Main findings

Observing relevant literature we detected mostly arguable characteristics predicting boycotters' behaviour. However, even though previous studies emphasized that from the global perspective gender, age, level of education and income tend to be the most powerful determinants of political participation, unexpectedly, our results do not thoroughly confirm this statement. This research has found references of dissimilitude between boycotters, revealing undiscovered characteristics and differences.

Previous investigations report that rather than being an alternative kind of political participation that suits those who fall outside the conventional participation forms, political consumerism appeals to those who are interested in political affairs and politically active (Strømsnes, 2008; Micheletti, Stolle & Berlin, 2009; Copeland, 2013). Generally, our findings are similar to those of other studies. Our study confirms that boycotters from all European clusters are *interested in politics* to the similar extent. The concept of political participation we analysed through breaking it down on four main components: *voting in elections, signing petitions, contacted politicians or government officials* and *taking part in lawful public demonstrations*. As we anticipated, all of these constituents shape boycotting behaviour of Europeans, though unexpected result is found concerning *voting* activity. In spite of frequently designated consumption as a metaphor of voting (Fetter, 1911; Newman & Bartels, 2011), applying this meaning to boycotting as choosing certain brand or company, our results do not confirm this congruence. Though it is significant parameter across eastern European cluster, no relation between voting in political elections and "voting in the market" is found in the countries of northern and Southern Europe. Moreover, voting activity shows the difference only between southern and eastern European boycotters, indicating that East European boycotters vote more frequently. Apart

from voting, East European boycotters show more engagement into such activities as signing petitions and contacting politicians or government officials than other two clusters. Moreover, compared to southern European cluster eastern boycotters also take part in lawful public demonstrations more often. However, we can say that North European boycotters do not differ from South European boycotters in political activity.

Furthermore, consistently to the previous debates if political consumerism is affiliated to conventional or alternative political participation (Beck, 1997; Micheletti et al., 2004; Gotlieb & Wells, 2012), our study corroborates the use of operational definition “political consumer” along with “ethical consumer”, since it proved that boycotters also participate in conventional forms of politics. Moreover, this finding indicates that political consumerism refers to *supplement theory* (Togebly, 1993) more than to mobilization theory.

Closely related to politics, the parameter of being *satisfied with the performance of democracy and government in the country* revealed curious result. Boycotters tend to be disappointed with governmental and democratic systems in all three clusters under analysis. This finding conforms to the assumption that individuals use boycott action as a tool for being heard by governments, when they perceive that political authorities do not understand their citizens (Shapiro & Hacker-Cordón, 1999; Shaw & Black, 2010). This feature is equal among all European boycotters, who perceive that democracy and governments could work better in their countries. Thus, satisfaction with government and democracy is not an indicator of difference between boycotters. We assume that people have a desire to inform governments about their needs and desires, and they use restraining from consumption of certain goods as a “beacon”, a signal which they expect to draw attention of the representative of political institutions. Our findings also correspond to the recent research of Berlin (2011) who

inferred that discontent with governmental activity force people to join into boycotting groups.

Reviewing relevant discussions on the subject of boycotting products we got the idea of introducing one new variable to our model of European boycotters' profile. Thus we decided to find out if individual's general *satisfaction with life* exerts any influence on the decision to restrain from consumption of certain brands or products. This variable remained unexplored yet, though some embryos of the relation between happiness, political participation and consumer conscious purchasing decisions, where boycotting takes a considerable niche, are visible in academic discussions (Veenhoven, 1988; Flavin & Keane, 2007; Owen et al., 2008; Healy, Malhorta & Mo, 2009; Leonidou, Leonidou & Kvasova, 2010). Set in the context of those researches we anticipated that more satisfied with life people have greater tendency of being boycotters than their less happy counterparts. Nevertheless, the results of our analysis show inverse picture: less satisfied with their lives people turn to the marketplace to express their emotions in the shape of refusal to buy certain products more frequently. Perhaps, this is an echo from the theories of complaining behaviour (Singh & Wilkes, 1991; Boote, 1998), when dissatisfied people transmit their negative emotions to outwards things. Moreover, this finding is supported only in the countries of southern and eastern Europe, and no relation between happiness and being a boycotter is found in the countries of northern European cluster. Therefore satisfaction with life does not produce significant effect on defining the distinction between boycotters located in different geographical parts of Europe.

Going further to the most discussed demographic characteristics of a boycotter such as *gender* and *age* we expected to discover young females as typical representatives of European boycotters. The guru of studies on the concepts of political consumerism Michele Micheletti (2004) insists that gender gap exists in the

favour of women. At the same time some researchers present arguments that sex is not a source of inequality anymore (Gallego, 2007). Our findings confirm Micheletti's findings concerning the countries of northern and southern Europe, but in Russian Federation and Ukraine, where boycotting activities are not developed yet, males act as a dominant gender among boycotters. Compared between each other, gender difference is a strongly significant indicator, showing that there are more men among boycotters in eastern part of Europe than in southern or northern European countries.

*Age* of boycotters is discovered as variable producing different effect on consumers' engagement to boycott actions in all three clusters. Youth is found as a dominant age group in eastern European countries, older people – in southern, and age as insignificant parameter of boycotting is discovered in Scandinavian countries. However, we conclude that age of boycotters is a reference of disparity between European boycotters. Thus, boycotters from southern European cluster are older than from the northern, and boycotters from Russian Federation and Ukraine are younger than other European boycotters. This disclosure suggests that age is not a unique characteristic describing European boycotters, being rather a source of disparateness between different geographical clusters.

Our study shows that political consumerism is not a kind of political participation that engages more resourceful citizens. On the contrary, being insignificant predictor of boycotting in northern and southern Europe, *level of income* is important in eastern Europe, though this type of activity is mostly spread among those who do not possess high level of household's income. Curiously enough, *level of education* that has always been in direct association with level of income, indicates the opposite situation. It is strongly related to boycotting products in northern and southern Europe, indicating high level of erudition among participants. However, in the countries of eastern European cluster the years of

academic education completed have no significant effect on probability of being a boycotter. We also noted, that these parameters have no significant difference among southern and Northern Europe. Nevertheless, eastern European boycotters seem to be less educated and less resourceful than boycotters from other parts of Europe.

To sum up what has been discussed above we arrive to conclusion that boycotting behaviour of consumers located in different geographical countries of Europe is framed by different set of predictors. Unexpectedly, characteristics of North European boycotters are very similar to characteristics of South European boycotters. The only source of disparity among these boycotters is their age: South European boycotters are found as older population in comparison to North European. Eastern European boycotters have more distinctive features from other boycotters.

Finally, we conclude that the results of our findings do not completely replicate discoveries of the previous studies. We suggest that these controversial detections indicate ever-changing character of political consumerism, boycotting in particular. This activity is developing sweepingly, engaging more and more people. Thus, for the variables predicting individual's boycotting behaviour it seems impossible to remain as the same set in the course of its evolution.

For the present moment, we introduced the latest and the most up-to-date profile of political consumers from different countries of Europe. It is not the same according to different geographical location, and this investigation reveals some differences between the clusters under analysis which could help to understand participation inequality. And what our research confirms is that the same kind of activity as consumer boycott – at least that is what relevant literature analyses show – is perceived by different individuals divergently. Still an accurate

profile of political consumer cannot be constructed without attention to all aspects of the behavioural and conscious constructs.

Furthermore, political consumerism should not be seen as a reaction against the representative political system. Even though political consumers do consider boycotting as an effective means to gain political influence, this does not imply that they evaluate other, more representative, participation forms as less efficient. Rather than a “new,” or post-conventional, kind of political participation, political consumerism represents a broadening of the conventional, or “old,” participation repertoire. According to the general predictions of *supplement theory* those people who are already politically active also become engaged in the form of participation as political consumerism.

To recapitulate, the results of this study raise some doubts about the statements of the profile of political consumers and also about too often assumed hypotheses on the end of class politics in the post-modern theories of political behaviour. This implies that the emergence of new channels of political participation does not automatically mean the end of class politics, since political consumers seem to reproduce the inequality intrinsic to other ways of political participation. It is seen that political consumers themselves evaluated participation in boycotts as an effective means of influencing politics. Whether the respondents are right or not in their evaluation is a different, though not less important, question, which also needs further research to be answered properly.

### **8.3. Personal opinion on the research**

This research revealed both expected and unexpected findings.

We anticipated our findings to confirm the results of previous studies of boycotter's profile (Stolle & Micheletti, 2005; Ferrer & Fraile, 2006; Gallego, 2007; Strømsnes, 2008; Paek & Nelson, 2009; García-Arrizabalaga, Gibaja-Martíns & Mujika-Alberdi, 2010; Newman & Bartels, 2011; Copeland, 2013), especially concerning North European boycotters. Moreover, we expected the profile of North European boycotter to differ from the profiles of South and East European boycotter to a great extent. These findings could explain the prevalence of boycott development in northern countries of Europe (see Table 8, Graph 5).

We are not surprised by the findings that consumers who deliberately restrain from purchase of certain brands and products are politically interested and active citizens. However, according to our results voting is not related to boycotting in North and South Europe. This finding is very interesting since we considered boycotting actions as a counterpart of voting, but in the marketplace.

The relation of level of education and income is also a very interesting disclosure. Thus, we found strongly significant positive correlation between boycotting and level of education in northern and southern European countries, what corresponds to the majority of scholars' discussions (Nevitte & Kanji, 2002; Diamantopoulos et al. 2003; Ferrer & Fraile, 2006; Aina Gallego, 2007; Strømsnes, 2008). According to these findings we expected to reveal significant positive correlation of boycotting with level of income, as usually level of income directly depends on level of education. Unexpectedly, our research did not confirm the existence of relation between boycotting products and level of income in northern and Southern Europe. However, contrary situation we found in eastern European cluster, where boycotting is not correlated with academic background,

but produces significant relation with level of income. Moreover, contrary to our expectations this relation is negative.

We found age and gender as the most discussed characteristics of political consumers in the literature, and concluded that different authors have different opinion about these variables. We were not surprised to find the prevalence of women among boycotters in northern and southern European clusters. However, in eastern European countries males is the most frequent boycotting gender. We did not expect to discover this result since we are staunch supporters of the theory that political consumerism is a women-friendly type of activism. Moreover, we were convinced that there is a strong significant relation of boycotting with consumers' age. We anticipated that boycotting is practiced by older generation since restraining from buying certain products due to ethical or political considerations is supposed to imply additional costs and mature beliefs. However, we found age as a source of disparity between boycotters from different clusters. Thus, agreeably to our expectations older consumers practice boycotting only in the countries of South Europe, while East European boycotting is practiced by youth, and no relation with age is found among North European boycotters.

We introduced new variable to this investigation, which describes boycotters' satisfaction with life. To be honest, contrary to the most evidences that boycotting is practiced by happier people (e.g. Kozinets & Handelman, 1998; Putnam, 2000; Diamantopoulos et al., 2003; Flavin & Keane, 2007; Howard & Gilbert, 2008; Estevez Cores, 2013), we anticipated to discover echoes of the theory of complaining behaviour (e.g. Boote, 1998) in consumers' decision to boycott. Our expectations were partly justified by derived results. Boycotters are not satisfied with their lives in South and East European countries, while no relation between these variables is found in North Europe.

Finally, we expected to find the profiles of South and East European boycotter similar to each other, but very different from the North European boycotter's profile. Surprisingly, our findings pointed out, that characteristics of southern and northern European boycotters are very much similar. East European boycotter differs from northern and southern, and these differences are more pronounced in comparison with North European boycotter.

To summarize, we are satisfied with our investigation since its results adds knowledge to academic literature. We have discovered several aspects of consumer boycotts, which have lack of investigation in the relevant discussions. We expect our findings to be useful for managers and policy-makers in development of strategies for their companies.

#### **8.4. Implications**

Social responsibility is increasingly applied to more companies now, creating a wide variety of ethical goods for shoppers. It is not as simply as just choosing a product with CSR utility, it is a complex thorough process of searching for special item which meets the highest expectation of any particular consumer. However, most of consumers report that they do not see crucial corporate impact on pressing social and environmental issues, and they have also a feeling of being misled by the companies. According to the Global CSR Study Report 2013 (Cone Communications/Echo, 2013), 88% of surveyed consumers think companies share only positive information about their ethical activities, while hiding unfavourable, and 70% are simply confused by the messages firms send to them about their socially responsible enterprises. Meanwhile, 85% of respondents say their attitude to “the non-perfect company” is benevolent if this company is honest with them about its efforts. However, according to this information, managers should not enfeeble their efforts and take a break, because this parameter has decreased by 3% since 2011. In concordance with these findings it seems very important to narrow the gap between consumer perceptions and company’s actions. Thus, managers have to inform citizens about their ethical policy and actions in a clear, comprehensible and intelligible way, regularly and progressively.

To accomplish the main business objective of making a profit, companies have to be competitive on the marketplace, attracting more people to purchase their products. One of the good opportunities to establish strong relationships with consumers is to analyse boycott actions in the market. Managers should effectively use consumer boycotts as a tool for understanding consumers’ demands. Knowledge of the profile and characteristics of those who boycott gives an ad-

vantage in developing a successful marketing policy, which is almost impossible to achieve with any marketing strategy.

We suggest some fundamental implications, which managers and executives should consider as a guide for future efforts to satisfy consumers' inclinations while operating their business:

- *Realize the significant role of boycotting.* In the era of mass media and advanced technology, information is spreading at a lightning speed, and people do not hesitate to share and transmit their knowledge with each other. In these conditions, the risk for any company of receiving bad publicity is constantly increasing. Even a single incautious action or application can damage a company's reputation, and this can be very hard to re-establish afterwards.
- *Understand the nuances.* Consumers are all different by nature. However, there are some divergent features peculiar to the specific group of people integrated, for example, by geographical location. These distinctive characteristics are formed by the environment where consumers reside. Therefore, there is no unique model of company policy which can be applied to everyone. The key factor is to understand what drives and motivates different groups of customers, considering requirements and expectations conditioned by their socio-demographic peculiarities.
- *Maintain interactions.* Most consumers expect companies to act equitably and to provide them with knowledge on relevant ethical issues. However, more and more consumers tend to believe they have significant power in the marketplace, accomplishing their ethical contribution through boycotting and other actions of political consumerism. Although consumers' participation in solving social and environmental problems is

an important improvement in the development of political consumerism, it requires more complex systems, like the integration of efforts from both firms and consumers. In this regard, perspective managers should appreciate the significant role of an individuals' interest in policies carried out by their company, reporting genuine information to their consumers in a clear, intelligible and comprehensible way.

Today's consumer require more than the visible intentions of a company to engage in political consumerism. In the changing environment, shoppers are becoming more cautious, deliberate and suspicious. They no longer trust companies blindly, instead demanding open demonstrations of ethical policy. In the case of failing to operate virtuously, brands are caught at risk of being boycotted in a citizens' response to negative actions. Businesses who admit this will definitely benefit from their actions in the marketplace.

In terms of academic implications researchers should continue drawing rapt attention to the concepts of consumer boycotts. Since boycotters play a role as stakeholders, cognition of their traits and characteristics are essential in development of stakeholder theory. A very important question is how boycotters' claims should be compared with other more conventional stakeholder groups, such as employees, shareholders and customers. Moreover, consumer boycott is an important issue for marketing academics, because boycotters are customers themselves or they are trying to affect and influence customers. Thus, understanding the profile of boycotters could help the investigation of appropriate communication strategies for firms before, during, and after boycott actions.

Going further, consumer boycotts play significant role in economic and political science. Political consumerism implies realization of political actions through the market (Micheletti, 2003; Holzer, 2006). Moreover, political consumerism refers to and combines the rationalities both of politics and economy (Holzer, 2006).

With social movements people address to political objectives, and by authoritatively communicating those objectives they provide signals to producers and governments about their needs and preferences. Stolle, Hooghe & Micheletti (2005) refer act of consumption to a part of political system. As we discussed in the section 2.2 “Consumption as voting” there is not only structural conformity between voting and consumer choices. Researchers call it as “a kind of economic democracy” (Burke, 1996: 127, cited in Holzer, 2006: 413), where the consumer is sovereign. Since the ballot box is always limited by the summary of political activity, people transmit their aesthetic, religious and political preferences to the votes in the marketplace, implying political consumerism directly as democratic process. Thus, gaining better insight to the profile of those who boycott becomes an indispensable task for prevention of possible political and economic damage.

Needless to say, in some cases boycotts can significantly affect economic relations between regions and countries. Regions may endure economic loss since boycotters in addition to restraining of purchasing certain products and services also refrain to travel to targeted regions and countries. This fact emphasizes boycott as a powerful tool of affecting politics and economy. Our study extended geographical area of boycott investigations, narrowing the profile of boycotters and comparing it between Northern, Southern, and Eastern Europe. These findings could be used as a starting point of extending the cognition of the signals which are sent from consumers to governmental and political structures.

Although this study provides comprehensive insight into the profile of boycotters, its findings are not representative for the general consumer population, especially for eastern and southern European countries. Since companies produce certain goods for certain population groups, the results of this study do not rec-

ommend brands to take into consideration boycotters' characteristics as a general image of an average European consumer. The main contribution of this investigation is to provide managers and researchers with a more balanced perspective of consumer behaviour, referring to deliberate restraint from purchasing products. Having a clear image of those who boycott their products, companies can develop different strategies to reduce the damage from boycotts. For example, this can be achieved through the development of new product lines, with characteristics which might be attractive to the target boycotting group. Thus, in terms of managerial implications, knowledge of boycotters' socio-demographic profile could be a considerable advantage over competitors for certain companies.

### **8.5. Limitations and suggestions for future research**

Although this study helps to establish a better understanding of European boycotter profile, certain aspects limit the scope of the research, which deserve further discussion and investigation. First, this study uses secondary data derived from the fifth and sixth waves of the European Social Survey, which were undertaken in 2010-2013. Given the constantly changing character of the market, technology and society, the values and attitudes of consumers may also undergo significant alterations. Thus, it seems reasonable to enlarge duration of target surveys to gain a more integrated picture of a boycotter's profile. Moreover, data from other sources might be added in order to increase the validity and credibility of targeted results.

Second, the measures of boycotting might be improved. In this investigation, each interviewed consumer is identified as a "boycotter" or "non-boycotter". This classification is based on the consumer's report as to whether or not he/she has boycotted certain products during the last 12 months. However, this question does not distinguish between deliberate boycotting decisions and accidentally refraining from purchase. Thus, some of the consumers identified as boycotters and included in the analysis might represent a false group of boycotters. In other words, future research should replicate the present study, making a clear distinction between different types of boycotters, detecting and selecting those who constantly refuse to buy certain products due to ethical or political considerations.

Third, despite voting being considered one of the most quintessential measures of political participation (Glenn & Grimels, 1968; Quintelier, Hooghe & Marien, 2011), in terms of the present research, it might produce some inaccuracy, since several European countries have compulsory voting, for example, Greece. As far as voter turnout is higher in the countries with compulsory voting (Quintelier,

Hooghe & Marien, 2011), future research should modify this variable as a measure of political participation. Moreover, there is suggestion of moderating the effect of boycotters' political attitude by classifying them as left-wing or right-wing oriented, since political consumers usually have a left-wing political inclination (Stolle & Micheletti, 2005).

Fourth, we define profiles of boycotters through limited set of variables. However, throughout the thesis we mention more concepts which could shape measures of boycotting behaviour. Thus, influence of social media (see Chapter 3.8) may serve as a strong predictor of consumers' decision to boycott. People who spend more time watching TV, listening to the radio or using Internet may possess greater information on the concepts of boycotting issues. Moreover, these people may be impelled to make deliberate choices in the market under the influence of constant reminders of social media sources. Furthermore, key aspects of boycott's success suggested by Garrett (1987) (see Chapter 3.5) may also be an issue of investigation of boycotter's profile.

Finally, the countries for the current investigation were selected on the basis of the relatively similar characteristics of the individual-level analysis. However, the findings of the present study should be reproduced for boycotters in other European countries, expanding the existing clusters, in order to get more comprehensive knowledge about the differences between boycotters from different geographical parts of Europe.

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