Consumer behavior towards organic products

A cross-national study of Turkey and the Netherlands

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Master thesis

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Abstract

The purpose of this research is to analyze and compare the consumer behaviors of the consumers in Turkey and in the Netherlands. I am of Turkish origin, but was born and raised in the Netherlands. Therefore, it seemed interesting to analyze and compare the consumer behaviors from these two cultures. For my bachelor thesis I did a research to the consumer behavior of consumers in the Netherlands. I was curious about the situation in Turkey and did a cross-national research to these two countries.

The consumer behavior model of Kotler is used to explain the consumer behavior of these two countries. The consumer characteristics, the consumer psychology, the buying decision process and the purchase decision of the consumers have been studied. This is done with a online-survey distributed via social media to respondents in Turkey and the Netherlands.

After the study we analyzed that mainly women from the 18-24 age category with a middle income buy organic products in both countries. The highest completed level of education of organic consumers is the secondary education in Turkey and university in the Netherlands.

In the Netherlands more people do not buy organic products compared with Turkey. Internet is the most populair resource of information about organic products in both countries. In both countries consumers mostly buy organic products in supermarkets.

Despite the differences in the cultures of these two countries the consumer behaviors of the organic consumers are not very different from each other. Marketing managers should give more information and awareness campaigns about organic products, so that consumers be more aware about their consumer behavior towards organic products.

1. Introduction

Generally the term 'organic' is seen to refer to food raised, grown or stored and/or processed without the use of synthetically produced chemicals or fertilisers, herbicides, pesticides, fungicides, growth hormones and regulators or genetic modification.

Nowadays an organic market with a rapid growth in trade volume and increasing demand has emerged. The demand on organic products focuses especially in the northern hemisphere (western Europe and Latin America). In order to compensate the increasing demand of organic products most of the supply has been provided from developing countries.

The organic food market has a small share of the general food market in all countries. With small quantities produced and distributed, it becomes crucial that producers have channels that accommodate the consumers who are most interested in the products. The structure of the organic product market has got three marketing channels (Sayin & Mencet, 2003):

- Direct sales
- Specialized shops (Germany, Netherlands)
- Conventional supermarkets

More than one quarter of the world's organic land is in developing countries (8.8 million hectares) according to statistics and emerging trends 2008 (Willer et al., 2008)

Organic food producers in regions like Asia, Africa and Latin America are advised to become less reliant on exports and develop internal markets for their products. By developing local markets, producers can spread the business risk of organic food production. Consumers can also benefit by having access to regionally produced organic foods.

Turkey is one of the countries with an upcoming market for organic products.The biggest part of the Turkish organic products is exported to other countries. The domestic organic products market is too small. The main reason for this is the lack of knowledge by Turkish consumers and sellers. Nowadays, all over the world there is more knowledge about the organic products. So, consumers are more aware by buying organic products. However, this awareness is higher in the Netherlands than in Turkey.

The awareness of consumers concerning organic products in the Dutch market exists a longer time. This awareness is caused by among others swine fever, mad cow disease, dioxin chickens, media reports on hormones in meat and manure surplus. Combined with government support to buy organic products, this market grew rapidly among years (Francken, 2000). If we compare the Dutch market with the Turkish market for organic products, we see difference in demand and supply. This market is still in development in Turkey. To stimulate the purchase of organic products, the government introduced the 'Organic Farming Law' in 2003 (Özlü & Karaaslan, 2010).

Therefore I will do this research about the consumer behavior in Turkey compared to the Netherlands. The main purpose of this research is to study the impact of nationality on consumer behavior concerning organic products.

Main question:

'What are the differences in consumer behavior between organic consumers from Turkey and the Netherlands?'

In order to answer the main question we use the following sub-questions:

1. *Do organic consumers from Turkey and the Netherlands show differences in demographic characteristics?*
2. *Do consumers from Turkey and the Netherlands differ in buying frequency?*
3. *Do consumers from Turkey and the Netherlands differ in getting information about organic products?*
4. *Do organic consumers from Turkey and the Netherlands show differences in point of sales?*
5. *What are the reasons of organic consumers from Turkey and the Netherlands for buying organic products?*

6. *What are the reasons of consumers from Turkey and the Netherlands for not buying organic products?*

7. *Do consumers from Turkey and the Netherlands show differences in their choice of organic farmers or organic brands?*

8. *Do Turkish-Dutch consumers and Dutch consumers differ in buying frequency?*

2. Literature

2.1. Domestic market

To gain more insight into consumer behavior of Turkish consumers about organic products, we will first look at the supply side. So, we can see how long the organic market exist in Turkey. The suppliers of organic products are organic farmers and organic brands. Organic brands are more an intermediary between organic farmers and consumers. It all starts with the organic farmer.

2.1.1. Organic farming

People in villages are aware of the biological cultivation of products. Earlier, when most of the Turkish population lived in villages, the cultivation of products was done by themselves. The cultivation of the products was done at a natural way, without using pesticides.

The stories of my grandparents make clear that it happened all much healthier and more organic than now. The seeds for the plants were purchased or were exchanged with each other. For example, my grandmother told about the cultivation of onions. The seeds of the onions from last year were used to cultivate onions. The land where people cultivate their products was for the rest clean, because in the villages there was absolutely no industry or degradation of the land by certain chemicals. The pest happened naturally. They know exactly what pest they have to use for combating pests. The fertilization of the ground occurred in a natural manner. The feces of animals were dried, which were used for the land on which crops were cultivated. The use of feces of animals made the soil more fertile.

The popularity of organic products is increasing in Turkey. Nowadays, more and more people live in cities, whereby people have no or little connection with agriculture. Even though the domestic organic market in Turkey is still small, it is in development. The number of organic farmers is increasing every year. The government, especially the Ministry of Agriculture, is the biggest support for this sector. The financial benefits provided by the ministry is an important support for the organic farmers (Ministry of agriculture in Turkey).

The climate and landscape of Turkey plays an important role in the increase of the supply towards organic products. The land is suitable for organic farming. If this was not the case, then there would be no opportunity to cultivate and produce organic products. Everything had to be imported from abroad. Fortunately, the land and climate is suitable for organic

farming. Indeed, there are certain conditions for the land used for organic farming. The land used for organic farming should not profit from his land near areas where traditional production is exported, nearby highways or heavy industrial areas and areas with polluted rivers and groundwater.

If the land areas meet these requirements then the farmers must submit an application to control and certification organizations. There are 20 control and certification organizations in Turkey carrying out the audit on organic production. These organizations are ECOCERT, IMO, CU, BCS, Etko, EKOTAR, ICEA, CERES, Orser, ANADOLU, TURKGAP, NİSSERT and IMC, ANKA GLOBAL TEST KALI, EGE TAR, BIO INSPECTA, NOPsert, ECAS and ORTAR. After organic production is approved by the inspection and certification bodies, the farmer can start working as organic farmers. The task of the control and certification organizations does not stop here. At each step of the production, these organization are concerned. There are strict controls to ensure that consumers are not misled. Organization institutions, control and certification companies, are generally situated in Izmir, because of the fact that most part of product treatment facilities takes place in Izmir and most of the produced products are exported from port of Izmir that has a great contribution in this (Isci et al., 2010). The reason why this province became the major production site in organic agriculture is that the majority of the production and processing facilities are located here and since it is an important harbor, most of the products could be exported with minimum transportation costs. Therefore many producer and certification organizations are located in Izmir (organic agriculture in Turkey, National raport).

2.1.2. Advantages & disadvantages

There is considerable latent interest among farmers in switching over to organic farming in Turkey (Emine Olhan et al., 2005)(Kenanoglu & Karahan, 2002). Before 1997 the number of organic farmers was limited and grew very slowly. Since 1997 a strong increase of organic agriculture in Turkey is seen (van Leeuwen et al., 2008). Research shows that in the 90s the premium prices and guarantee market were the main factors for farmers to switch to organic production. Nowadays, the social factors play the most important role for organic farmers. According to the research of Gumus the development of environmental awareness of the farmer and the importance of the value that is given to the health of people are

important factors. In response to these factors, more and more farmers produce organic products. There are factors that make organic farming more attractive. The use of pesticides and fertilizers are not allowed in organic agriculture, this leads to lower spending on pesticides and fertilizers. This provides a financial advantage to the organic farmers (Gumus, 2012).

Figure 1: Organic production in Turkey

Years	Number of organic producers	Total organic area(ha)	Production amount(ton)
2004	9314	162192,74	278725,9
2005	9427	175073,59	289082,32
2006	5602	30657,06	148573,5
2007	10553	135359,75	431202,97
2008	9384	141752,3	415380,09
2009	11.211	249.722,2	318164,99
2010	11.179	191.785,44	331.361,48
2011	15.642	325.445,08	639.810,76
2012	24406	398.897,14	876.371,52
2013	26.181	558.837,63	922.623,73
2014	33.738,00	660.807,40	1.065.567,32

Resource: Ministry of organic agriculture in Turkey

This brings another advantage along with it, namely that the farmers are not be exposed to chemicals. The health of the producer and the consumer is protected in this way, the risk of disease decreases with it. In organic agriculture, great importance is attached to the land. The fertility of the soil is preserved by not using hazardous chemicals and affecting the soil. Moreover the organic farming reduces erosion. In general organic agriculture is very beneficial for the environment because it ensures durability (Dizikisa, 2010).

Besides the advantages, there are disadvantages associated with organic farming. The benefits are mainly social benefits, such as health and the environment. The disadvantages are contrary on the financial side. A disadvantage is that the costs of organic farming are on the high side. The reasons for the high costs are the need for labor intensive, high prices of organic substances and the mandatory certification. In organic farming chemicals are not

used, therefore it requires more contol that leads to the need for intensive labor. In the farming of not organic products, there is no need for control and certification. In organic farming the most important issue is the control and certification of the production and products, which leads to the increase of the costs. An important part of this increase are the costs of biological pesticides that are used for the pest control. The prices of these biological pesticides are higher than the prices of normal pesticides (Dizikisa, 2010)

Another major disadvantage of organic farming is that the production depends widely on nature. The influence of the farmer is as little as possible because the farmer does not make use of pesticides, hormones, or chemicals. Therefore nothing can be said about the continuity and the size of the quantity of production. (Dizikisa, 2010).

Even though there are disadvantages of the organic farming, the ministry continues to encourage the sector. The advantages are more important than the disadvantages. The social advantages are more important than financial advantages, because environmental and health worsened worldwide. The ministry controls the organic farming with the help of control and certification organizations. Thanks to the control and certification organizations there is no need for any doubt about the integrity of organic products. Each step, from beginning to end is controlled by these organizations. These organizations are independent organizations under the authority of the Ministry of Agriculture. These organizations have met strict requirements to become an official inspection and certification organization. They may not perform any activities related to manufacture, promotion, trade and advice concerning organic farming (Bostan & Akunal, 2010).

The ministry authorized the private control and certification organizations for the implementation of organic agriculture law. The audit of the authorized ministerial organizations are made periodically by the organic agriculture committee members (Bayaner, 2010). Training activities are carried out for the promotion of organic farming by the ministry of agriculture and rural affairs. The education staff in these training are academics, representatives of organizations and specialized staff in ministry issues. The trainings are primarily made up for the ministry staff. In order to meet the needs of the sector there are also regulated organic farming controller trainings. Controllers with an

organic farming certificate, authorized by the ministry, can work as a controller or as a person who gave certification to organic products, at authorized organizations (Saygili & Karaaslan, 2010).

2.1.3. Marketing

Besides the farmers, there are also organic brands / companies that produce organic products. According to the Ministry of agriculture, there are currently 965 companies that produce organic products. A study about the marketing strategies of organic producers show us the 4 P's of the marketing mix of organic producers. This study is done by using a questionnaire filled in by the managers of the organic companies in Turkey. According to these marketing managers the most wanted organic products are fresh and dried fruit and vegetables, mediteranean, fruit juice concentrates and legume family. The prices are set according to the quality of the products. The higher the quality, the higher the prices. The companies promote their organic products by taking part in trainings and fairs that are mostly about promotion and advertising. The most used marketing strategy is the promotion of the organic products in supermarkets. Supermarkets are the places where organic producers can communicate easily with customers. When we look to the place of the 4 P's of the organic products, we see that organic bazaars are the most important places where the companies reach their customers. The companies are trying to reach consumers and make them aware about organic products, because the adoption of organic products by consumers in Turkey is still in development (Kilic et al., 2014).

The slow development concerning the adoption of organic products by consumers is due partly to the supply chains of these products. Organic products can only be sold in special organic shops, in supermarkets, but in a separate place than the other products, and through direct sales. The most accessible places are the supermarkets, where the supply of organic products is unfortunately limited. There is need for places where the organic products are sold directly from the farmers, like organic bazaars. These organic bazaars are found mainly in large cities such as Istanbul and Ankara. These are bazaars where all products are 100%

organic. There are also special organic shops, which encounter difficulties in selling organic products. These difficulties are because of the limited types of organic products what leads to a limited supply and continuity of the special shops. Because of these difficulties these shops usually sell natural products. This kind of stores are usually found in places where people with high incomes live. Therefore, most people prefer supermarkets to buy organic products (Saygili & Karaaslan, 2010). The growing demand for organic products has caused the increase of points of sales of organic products (Gamble, 2008). There are also organic bazaars where consumers can buy organic products directly from the organic farmers. These bazaars are strictly controlled according to organic farming principles. The first organic bazaar was opened in Sisli in 2006 by the municipality of Sisli. Sisli is a district of Istanbul where many people with high incomes live. (Saygılı & Karaaslan, 2010). Internet is also a point of sales of organic products. According to Gök is internet the new sales/distribution channel at the Turkish organic market (Gök, 2008).

Finally Yanmaz gives the difficulties for sellers of organic products. The high prices of organic products, lack of knowledge of the sellers about organic products and the short shelf life of the products are the disadvantages to the sellers. The study of Yanmaz about the owners of organic shops in Ankara and Istanbul shows that the owners are not educated about organic products and that this is the most important reason why the organic shops are closed down in a short time. The slow development of the Turkish domestic organic market is caused by the supply and demand side of the market (Yanmaz, 2011).

2.1.4. Turkish consumers

As mentioned earlier, the domestic organic market is very small. 10% -15% of the total organic production is sold on the domestic organic market. The rest of the organic production (85%-90%) is exported abroad. The focus is more on the foreign market, because the foreign market was the first step towards organic production in Turkey and therefore it exists longer than the domestic market. The domestic market is smaller than the export market. Consumers are more aware about organic products, thanks to the orgainc farming law that was introduced in 2005. For example, a contribution can be made to provide

consumers with information so they proceed to buy organic products. According to the research of Kilic et al. most companies that sell organic products follow a consumer oriented marketing. The range of products is determined according to the demand of consumers (Kilic et al., 2014). So, when the consumer is more aware of organic products, the demand for these products will increase which will lead to a higher supply of organic products.

There are several reasons for the difficult adoption of organic products by the Turkish consumers. The main reason is the price level of these products which is on the high side. Compared to the prices of exported organic products, prices in the domestic market are higher. Consumers prefer to buy conventional products because of the higher prices of organic products (Yanmaz, 2011) (Marangoz & celikkan, 2010).

People in Turkey know little about organic products and therefore it does not matter to them if products are produced organically or not. The lack of information is one of the main reasons why people do not buy organic products. Also, the study of Yanmaz shows that the limited supply of organic products is a reason for not buy organic products. The few organic product variants is a reason for consumers why they are more likely to buy traditional products. If they can not find what they want, then it stops. The continuity of the supply has also an impact on this. The increase in the supply of organic product types will decrease the prices of these products in the domestic market (Yanmaz, 2011).

According to the study of Sarikaya, the distrust in organic products is also one of the reasons why people do not buy organic products. This problem will be solved by the support of the government. The strict controls and certifications of organic products will reduce distrust in organic products.
According Marangoz & Celikkan the reasons for the low demand of organic products are the income level, lack of information or misinformation, very high product prices, the low level of the awareness of consumers and the insufficient use of the marketing mix.
In addition to people who do not buy organic products, there are also people in Turkey who buy organic products. One of the main reasons for buying organic products is that Turkish consumers are concerned about their health. People who choose a healthier lifestyle choose for buying organic products. According to the study of Sarikaya the reasons for buying

organic products are as follows: no use of chemicals, tasteful and high nutritional value of organic products (Sarikaya, 2007).

According to the research of Kilic et al, the typical organic consumer in Turkey is mainly women between 20 and 40 years, with children and a high income. In this research of Kilic et al. surveys are distributed to marketing managers from 22 organic companies. The results show that the education level of organic consumers is mostly at a high level. The higher the education and income, the more aware consumers are of organic products. This leads to an increase of demand for organic products (Kilic et al., 2014).

2.1.5. Community supported agriculture

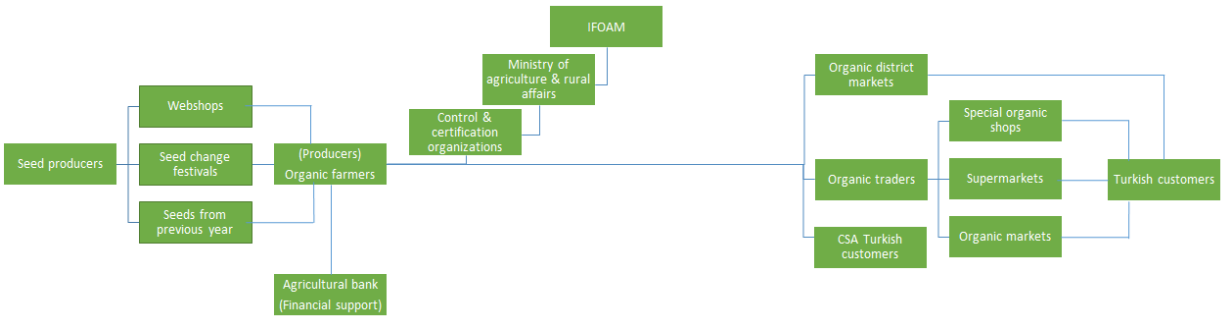
The increasing awareness of the Turkish consumers, leads to a higher demand for organic products which brings new trends along with it. One of the new trends are CSAs in Turkey. CSAs (community supported agriculture (Turkish: toplum destekli tarim)) are partnerships of mutual commitment between a farm and a community of supporters that provide a direct link between the production and consumption of food. Supporters usually cover a farm's yearly operating budget by purchasing a share of the season's harvest and in some cases they assist with the farm work. In return, the farm provides, to the best of its ability, a healthy supply of seasonal fresh produce. (IFOAM)

CSAs are agreements between customers and organic farmers. In Turkey 30 customers from cities sign agreement with six organic farmers from villages. These consumers go every week to the villages and get the organic products from these organic farmers and divide it among one another. These community supported agriculture agreements are not just for trading relations. The CSA consumers take care of the production of the organic products and if there are problems with the production they help the farmers. (Organik ürün rehberi)

An advantage of community supported agriculture is that there is no need for control and certification, so there won't be control and certification costs. This is because there isn't a mediator between the customers and the organic farmers. Another advantage of direct selling to the CSA customers is that the prices are lower than other organic products, because there are no mediators between the consumers and the farmers (Organik ürün rehberi).

The organic market in Turkey is explained in the previous part. Now, we will show the whole supply chain of the Turkish domestic organic market. A supply chain is defined as a set of three or more entities (organizations or individuals) directly involved in the upstream and downstream flows of products, services, finances, and/or information from a source to a customer (Mentzer et al., 2001).

Figure 2: Supply chain of the Turkish domestic organic market



The supply chain begins with the seed producers. These seed producers cultivate the seeds by themselves and sell them via online shops or seed change festivals. The examples of seed webshops are tarimtedarik.com or yerlitohum.com. Through these sites the seed producers and the organic products get connected. There are also seed change festivals where seed producers and organic product producers come and change the seeds with each other. This festival was previous year in Zeytinburnu, a municipality in Istanbul (www.bugday.org).
The organic farmers buy these seeds at these places or they use the seeds from the previous year. When the organic farmers can't get organic seeds from other ways, they can use the seeds of the previous year. If organic farmers have bought once in the past organic seeds with certification and have produced this, they can produce their own organic seeds. They keep these seeds in glass bottles or colorless cotton fabrics, they name these seeds and maintain the seeds in dark places. (Organik ürün rehberi)

Organic farmers use these seeds for the production of organic products. The agriculture bank in Turkey give discount interest loans for organic farmers, this will be a financial contribution in the production of organic products.

At every stage of the production of the organic products, the products will be controlled and certified by the control and certification organizations. If the products meets all requirements of the control and certification organizations, they can be brought on the organic market (Ertem & Cicekli, 2010).

The products can be bought by CSA customers. The organic farmers can sell their products on organic bazaars, where they connect directly with customers. The organic farmers can also sell their products to companies. These companies ensure that the products reach the market. These products reach the market/consumers via special organic shops, supermarkets and organic bazaars.

2.2. Export

Unlike the domestic market, exports to foreign countries is on the high side. The export of organic products is going on for years compared to the domestic market which exist for a short time. The demand of European companies for organic products was the reason of the formation of the organic market in Turkey. These products are produced by organic farmers and sold to companies abroad. Organic farmers began with the production for companies abroad in 1984 in response to the demand for organic products by the European companies. As previously mentioned the rules and regulations concerning organic production set in 2004. Since the first time of the export, 85% of the organic products exported abroad (Bugday Association for supporting ecological living). The high level of export is brought about by two factors. First, the limited domestic market for organic produce in Turkey. The domestic market for organic produce is limited to the larger cities in Turkey. This is due to the limited interest of people in organic products. The second factor is the high price level of organic products, which is around 50%-300% depending on the product (van Leeuwen et al., 2008).

Figure 3: Export of organic products from Turkey

Year	AMOUNT (KG)	AMOUNT ($)
1998	8.616.687	19.370.599
1999	12.049.949	24.563.892
2000	13.128.934	22.756.297
2001	17.556.280	27.242.407
2002	19.182.859	30.877.140
2003	21.083.351	36.932.995
2004	16.093.189	33.076.319
2005	9.319.328	26.230.259
2006	10.374.493	28.236.617
2007	9.346.677	29.359.321
2008	8.628.790	27.260.473
2009	7.565.604	27.504.928
2010	3.592.925	15.879.571
2011	3.371.298	15.529.387
2012	6.258.314	24.703.607
2013	10.495.217	46.020.389

Resource: ministry of agriculture in Turkey

As previously mentioned, the export of organic products from Turkey began with the demand of European companies, in the form of contract farming. The European companies enter into an agreement with the Turkish farmers about the export of organic products. The precise definition of organic farming is, according to Eaton & Shepherd, an agreement between farmers and processing and/or marketing firms for the production and supply of agricultural products under forward agreements, frequently at predetermined prices. The no special legislative arrangement related to contract farming existed in Turkey until 1996. In june of 1996, the ministry of agriculture circulated a directive (regulation) in order to control contractual arrangements (Rehber, 2007). All the activities related to the production and the marketing of organic products are performed within the framework of an agreement of 'contract farming' signed between the marketing companies and the producers (Kenanoglu & Karahan, 2002).

2.2.1. Contract farming

How to start with contract farming? The producer must apply to organizations firms, exporter and/of processed firms and control and certification firms to be a part of the organization system of the organic sector in Turkey. Upon completion of this process and having permission from the Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Affairs, producers may join the organic agricultural system. The committee of investigation and planning controls exporters and/or operating firms, producers and representatives of foreign firms. Control and certification firms control the production of products and then certify them. Consultant firms

provide technical support to the producer or firms that are in the system. The Aegean Exporter Union works as a coordinator in this system and helps in the export process of organic products. The organization firms organize the marketing of organic products in the domestic or/and foreign markets (Organic agriculture in Turkey). Besides all these support, the training of the producers and the organic farmers, are realized by the technical staff of the companies (Pezikoglu et al. 2010).

To get a better idea of the export of Turkey to foreign countries, we will look to the supply chain. Like mentioned before, foreign countries are the demanders of the organic products. They also care for the organic seeds for the organic contracted farmers. So, the supply chain begins with a foreign seed company which provides the seeds to the foreign contracted companies. These seeds will be used by the organic farmers. At every stage of the production of the organic products by the contracted organic farmers, the control & certification organizations are involved. The control & certification organizations are controlled by the ministry of agriculture & rural affairs. IFOAM, International Federation of Organic Agriculture Movement, is a federation where ecological agriculture movements all over the world gather under one roof. The purpose of this federation is the development of the movements in a healthy way, to prepare the necessary standards and regulations and aims to transfer all of the advances to its members and farmers.

After the production of the organic products they will be transported to the import firms (contracted foreign companies). All this is cared by the contracted foreign companies. Finally, it will reach the customers in the countries where the organic products have been exported. (see figure 4)

Figure 4: The supply chain of the export of organic products from Turkey

The cost of production of the organic products from contracted farmers is lower than the costs of organic products produced by farmers without a contract. The farmers with a

contract don't pay for the control and certification of the organic products, this is paid by the contracted companies (Pezikoglu et al., 2010).
Like mentioned before organic farmers who are producing for the domestic market make higher costs compared with the organic farmers of organic farmers.

Besides the advantage of lower costs for contracted organic farmers, another advantage is the demand of customers that is already known, so there will be not overproduction. This is because of the agreements between the organic farmers and the contracted companies from abroad (Ertem & Cicekli, 2010).

As previously mentioned 85% to 90% of the total organic production in Turkey are exported. These organic products are exported to about 30 countries. Germany is the biggest importer of organic products from Turkey. This can be caused by the successfully investments in Turkey of major German companies and Turkish companies founded in Germany. Since the 90s there is also an increase in the investments of medium-sized German companies in Turkey. The trade links between the Turkey and Germany exist since the 90s (Isinay Kemmler,2008). United States are the second biggest importer of organic products from Turkey, followed by France.

Figure 5: The export values of organic products from Turkey in 2014

Country	Amount (KG)	Amount ($)	%
Germany	3.335.466	19.248.646	24,4
United states	3.782.712	19.053.760	24,2
France	1.488.675	8.507.402	10,8
The Netherlands	1.254.091	7.075.308	9,0
Switzerland	1.190.599	6.217.360	7,9
United Kingdom	998.137	4.446.227	5,6
Sweden	808.811	4.360.203	5,5
Italy	389.770	2.775.607	3,5
Japan	296.571	1.910.147	2,4
Denmark	250.452	1.201.498	1,5
Australia	211.130	1.038.758	1,3
Belgium	136.720	471.784	0,6
Total	**14.143.134**	**76.306.700**	**96,9**
Total (with the other countries)	**15.552.638**	**78.779.537**	**100**

Resource: Ministry of agriculture in Turkey

2.2.2. Export of organic products

The first organic products exported from Izmir were seedless grapes and figs (see appendix 7.2 & 7.3). Later apricots and hazelnuts followed (see appendix 7.4). According to the statistics from the Ministry of agriculture, 1998 is the first year for which data is known. In 1998, the amount in kg of exported seedless dried grapes was 1.012.716kg. In 1998 the amount in kg of the total exported figs were 128.789.580,64 kg (see appendix 7.1). Figs are mostly produced in the Aegeon region, namely in Aydin and Izmir. According to the data from 2013, Aydin has a marketshare of 79,92% and Izmir a marketshare of 16,58% (www.tarimsalistatistik.com).

Nowadays, the three most exported organic products are figs, hazelnut and dried grapes. 29,09% of the total export consisted of the export of figs and fig products, which is followed by dried grapes with a percentage of 26,48%. Apricot & apricot products are at the third place (12,70%) and hazelnut & hazelnut products at the fourth place(10,56%). We see that in the course of the years there is no change in the most exported products. The most exported four products in 1998 are the same in 2014 (Ministry of agriculture in Turkey).

Figure 6: Export of organic products from Turkey in 2014

Product	Amount(kg)	Amount ($)	% KG	% $
Figs & fig products	4.523.936	21.626.691	29,09	27,5
Dried grapes	4.118.835	13.557.823	26,48	17,2
Apricots & apricot products	1.975.009	11.102.466	12,70	14,1
Hazelnut & hazelnut products	1.642.488	17.046.378	10,56	21,6
Fruit & fruit products	1.292.370	8.595.480	8,31	10,9
Total (including other products)	**15.552.638**	**78.779.537**	**100**	**100**

Resource: Ministry of agriculture in Turkey (see appendix 7.1 for the whole table)

2.2.3. Advantages of Turkey for export

The high export of Turkey is caused by many advantages of Turkey at the organic market worldwide, especially at the European market. One of the advantages of Turkey is the biological diversity of Turkey (Gülcubuk, 2010). According to the study of Kence (2013), Turkey has a unique position among temperate countries in terms of its biological diversity.

Especially, Anatolia is the genetic center, or diversity center for a large number of plants. According to the research of Yanmaz, the ecological richness of Turkey is also an advantage of Turkey. The closeness of Turkey to Europe is another advantage of Turkey as an organic market. Like mentioned before, the Turkish people have already experiences with agriculture for many years. The presence of still efficient and unused agricultural land is profitable for Turkey as an producer of agricultural product (Yanmaz, 2011).

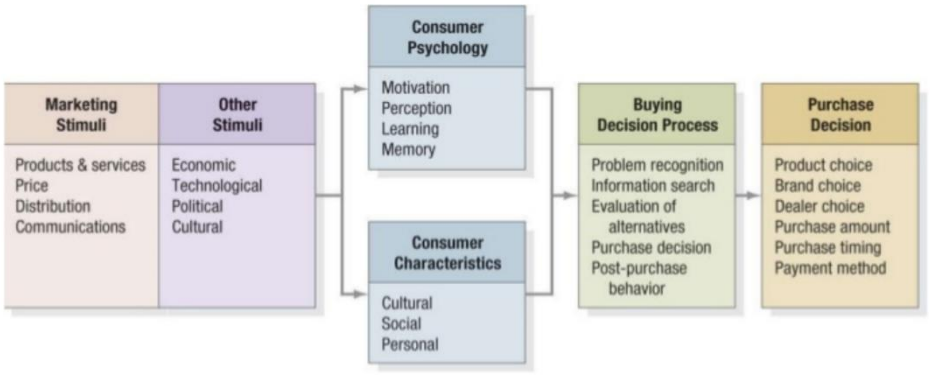
Figure 7: Total agricultural land in Turkey (2001-2014)

	Total utilized agricultural land	Sown area	Fallow land	Area of vegetable gardens	Area of ornamental plants	Area of fruits, beverage and spice crops	Permanent meadows and pastures
2001	***40 967***	17 917	4 914	909	-	**2 610**	14 617
2002	***41 196***	17 935	5 040	930	-	**2 674**	14 617
2003	***40 644***	17 408	4 991	911	-	**2 717**	14 617
2004	***41 210***	17 962	4 956	895	-	**2 780**	14 617
2005	***41 223***	18 005	4 876	894	-	**2 831**	14 617
2006	***40 493***	17 440	4 691	850	-	**2 895**	14 617
2007	***39 505***	16 945	4 219	815	-	**2 909**	14 617
2008	***39 122***	16 460	4 259	836	-	**2 950**	14 617
2009	***38 911***	16 217	4 323	811	-	**2 943**	14 617
2010	***39 012***	16 333	4 249	802	-	**3 011**	14 617
2011	***38 231***	15 692	4 017	810	4	**3 091**	14 617
2012	***38 399***	15 463	4 286	827	5	**3 201**	14 617
2013	***38 423***	15 613	4 148	808	5	**3 232**	14 617
2014	***38 560***	15 789	4 108	804	5	**3 238**	14 617

2.3. Consumer behavior

Consumer behavior is the study of how individuals, groups, and organizations select, buy, use and dispose of goods, services, ideas, or experiences to satisfy their needs and wants (Kotler & Keller, 2012). Culture, subculture, and social class are particularly important influences on consumer buying behavior. Culture is the fundamental determinant of a person's wants and behavior.

Figure 8: Model of consumer behavior (Kotler & Keller)



To understand the consumer behavior first we have to look to the stimulus-response model of Kotler & Keller. With this model we have to understand what happens in the consumer's consciousness between the arrival of the outside marketing stimuli and the ultimate purchase decisions. The consumer responses are influenced by five key psychological processes, namely motivation, perception, learning, emotions and memory.

Everyone has needs, but a need become a motive when it is aroused to a sufficient level of intensity to drive us to act. The perception of consumers is important, because perceptions affect consumer actual behavior. When consumers act, they learn. According to Kotler & Keller, learning induces changes in the behavior arising from experience. Consumer responses are also influenced by emotions. Emotions plays also an important role at the consumer responses. Memory is divided into two parts, namely short-term memory and long-term memory. The memory of consumers is very important, because of the information that is saved into it. When consumers buy a product, the information saved in the memory is used to recognize or recall the product or brand.

2.3.1. Psychological factors

The buying decision process begins with a problem recognition. This is when a consumer recognizes a problem or need is actived by internal stimuli or external stimuli. If someone has hunger we named this as an internal stimuli. An external stimuli is for example when somebody see an ad at the television. The information search is the second step in the buying decision process. Consumers search for information about a product or brand. According to Kotler & Keller information resources are divided into four groups, namely personal (family &friends), commercials (advertising), public (consumer-rating organizations) and experiential. When consumers buy a product, they evaluate first the alternatives to fulfill their needs. At the evaluation the consumer forms preferences among the brands and form an intention to buy the most preferred brand. The postpurchase behavior is the consumer behavior after the purchase. When a consumer is satisfied with a brand, he/she will buy the brand again.

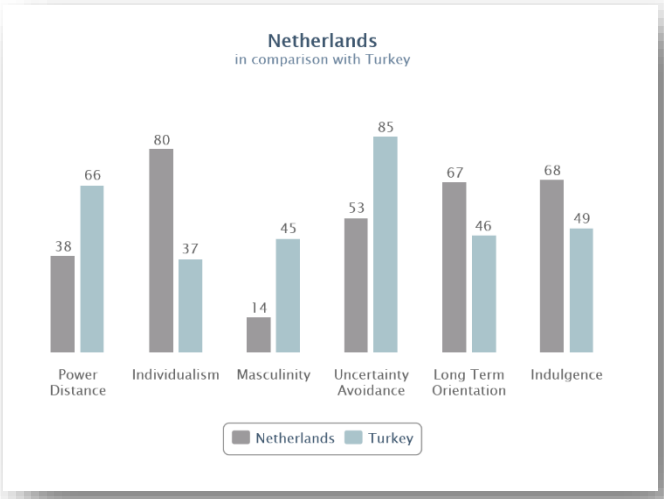
Figure 9: The buying decision process: the five-stage model

2.3.2. Cultural factors

To compare the consumer behavior of different countries with different cultures we need to do a cross-cultural research. According to Szmigin & Piacentini, culture is the sum total of learned ideas, beliefs, values, knowledge and customs that regulate the behaviour of members of a particular society.

The Dutch consumer behaviour researcher Hofstede identified the dimensions of culture as individualism, masculinity, power distance, uncertainty avoidance, and long-term orientation. We will look now to the dimensions of culture of The Netherlands and Turkey.

Hofstede dimensions



Power distance

Turkey scores high on power distance (score of 66) which means, according to Hofstede, that the following characterizes the Turkish style: Dependent, hierarchical, superiors often inaccessible and the ideal boss is a father figure. Power is centralized and managers rely on their bosses and on rules. Employees expect to be told what to do. Control is expected and attitude towards managers is formal. Communication is indirect and the information flow is selective. The same structure can be observed in the family unit, where the father is a kind of patriarch to whom others submit.

The Netherlands scores low on this dimension (score of 38) which means that the following characterises the Dutch style: Being independent, hierarchy for convenience only, equal rights, superiors accessible, coaching leader, management facilitates and empowers. Power is decentralized and managers count on the experience of their team members. Employees expect to be consulted. Control is disliked and attitude towards managers are informal and on first name basis. Communication is direct and participative.

Individualism

Turkey, with a score of 37 is a collectivistic society. This means that the "We" is important, people belong to in-groups (families, clans or organisations) who look after each other in exchange for loyalty. Communication is indirect and the harmony of the group has to be maintained, open conflicts are avoided. The relationship has a moral base and this always has priority over task fulfillment. Time must be invested initially to establish a relationship of trust. Nepotism may be found more often. Feedback is always indirect, also in the business environment.

The Netherlands, with the very high score of 80 is an Individualist society. This means there is a high preference for a loosely-knit social framework in which individuals are expected to take care of themselves and their immediate families only. In Individualist societies offence causes guilt and a loss of self-esteem, the employer/employee relationship is a contract based on mutual advantage, hiring and promotion decisions are supposed to be based on merit only, management is the management of individuals.

Masculinity

Turkey scores 45 and is on the Feminine side of the scale. This means that the softer aspects of culture such as leveling with others, consensus, sympathy for the underdog are valued and encouraged. Conflicts are avoided

in private and work life and consensus at the end is important. Leisure time is important for Turks, it is the time when the whole family, clan and friends come together to enjoy life. Status is shown, but this comes more out of the high PDI.

A low score (Feminine) on the dimension means that the dominant values in society are caring for others and quality of life. A Feminine society is one where quality of life is the sign of success and standing out from the crowd is not admirable.

Uncertainty avoidance

Turkey scores 85 on this dimension and thus there is a huge need for laws and rules. In order to minimize anxiety, people make use of a lot of rituals. For foreigners they might seem religious, with the many references to "Allah", but often they are just traditional social patterns, used in specific situations to ease tension.
The Netherlands scores 53 on this dimension and thus exhibits a slight preference for avoiding uncertainty. Countries exhibiting high Uncertainty Avoidance maintain rigid codes of belief and behaviour and are intolerant of unorthodox behaviour and ideas. In these cultures there is an emotional need for rules (even if the rules never seem to work) time is money, people have an inner urge to be busy and work hard, precision and punctuality are the norm, innovation may be resisted, security is an important element in individual motivation.

Long Term Orientation

Turkey's intermediate score of 46 is in the middle of the scale so no dominant cultural preference can be inferred.

The Netherlands receives a high score of 67 in this dimension, which means that it has a pragmatic nature. In societies with a pragmatic orientation, people believe that truth depends very much on the situation, context and time. They show an ability to easily adapt traditions to changed conditions, a strong propensity to save and invest, thriftiness and perseverance in achieving results

Indulgence

This dimension is defined as ***the extent to which people try to control their desires and impulses***, based on the way they were raised. Relatively weak control is called "Indulgence" and relatively strong control is called "Restraint". Cultures can, therefore, be described as Indulgent or Restrained. With an intermediate score of 49, a characteristic corresponding to this dimension cannot be determined for Turkey.

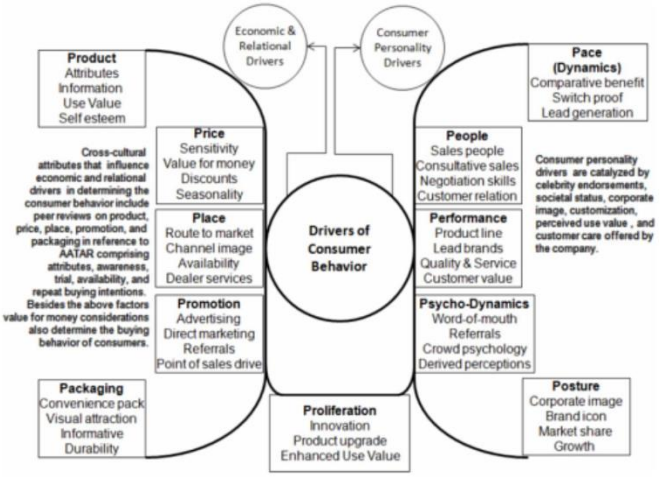
With a high score of 68, the culture of the Netherlands is clearly one of Indulgence. People in societies classified by a high score in Indulgence generally exhibit a willingness to realise their impulses and desires with regard to enjoying life and having fun. They possess a positive attitude and have a tendency towards optimism. In addition, they place a higher degree of importance on leisure time, act as they please and spend money as they wish

Resource: Hofstede

2.3.3. Personal factors

Beside the cultural factors, the personal factors also influence a buyer's decision include age and stage in the life cycle, occupation and economic circumstances, personality and self-concept, and lifestyle and values. Consumer wants and abilities change with age and a person's majer concern can change, therefore age and stage in the life cycle factor is important in the buying behavior. Gender, income and generation are also personal factors of the consumers that has an influence on the buyer's decision (Kotler & Keller, 2012).

Figure 10: Drivers of consumer behavior



2.3.4. Cross-national research

We will do a cross-national research to compare the consumers from Turkey and The Netherlands. So, one group consist of consumers from Turkey and the other group are consumers from the Netherlands. In this part of the research all the respondents from the Netherlands will have the dutch nationality.

We will also look to the difference in buying frequency between Dutch and Turkish-Dutch consumers from the Netherlands. This will be done with a cross-cultural research, whereby one group are the consumers with the Dutch nationality and the other group with the Turkish-Dutch nationality.

With the cross-national and cross-cultural researches we will analyze the differences and the comparisons between the two countries and the two different cultures.

2.4. Hypotheses

This research is a cross-national research of the consumer behaviors of organic consumers from Turkey and the Netherlands. We will compare the consumer behaviors of the two countries concerning organic product. The main research question of this study is, what the differences and similarities are in consumer behavior of organic consumers in Turkey and the Netherlands concerning organic products. In this study, we called respondents who have ever bought organic products, organic consumers. To distinguish the respondents who have ever bought organic products from respondents who have never bought organic products, we asked the respondents to indicate their buying frequency of organic products. The respondents from the Netherlands and Turkey indicated with these question if they buy never, rarely, sometimes, very often or always organic products. to test if the respondents from these two countries differ significantly in buying frequency, we generate the following hypothese:

> *H_o= Consumers from Turkey and the Netherlands do not differ significantly in buying frequency.*

For the comparison of the consumers, who have ever bought organic products, from the two countries, we also looked to the demographic factors of these consumers. The demographic factors we used were gender, age, education and income. According to many studies women are the typical buyers of organic products. The studies that has been done in Turkey (Kilic et al.) and the Netherlands (Borghuis et al., 2005) also show that the consumers, who buy organic products, are mainly women in both countries. According to the study of Davies et al. the age of a typical organic consumer is in the middle age category. The study of Yanmaz, about organic consumers in Turkey, also shows that especially people older than 35 years buy organic products. Another important demographic factor in consumer behavior is the education of the consumers. According to many studies organic consumers are mostly highly educated (Sarikaya, 2007) (Davies et al. 1995). We used also the monthly income level of the consumers as a demographic factor in our research. According to the study of davies et al. those with children in the highest income bracket were the largest purchasers of organic food (1995). To make a comparison on the basis of demographic factors among consumers from Turkey and the Netherlands, we have generated the following hypothese:

H_o= Organic consumers from Turkey and the Netherlands show not significant differences in gender, age, education and income.

The search for information is the second step of the buying decision process, after the problem recognition. When consumers need a products they will search for information. Like mentioned before, according to Kotler & Keller information resources are divided into four groups, namely personal (family &friends), commercials (advertising), public (consumer-rating organizations) and experiential. In our research the information resources we have used are internet, newspapers, magazines, television, radio, outdoor advertising, family & friends and mouth-to ear (worth of mouth). According to the research of Sarikaya internet and word of mouth are the two sources where most consumers get information about organic products in Turkey. The study of Trusov et al, shows that WOM have a strong impact on new customer acquisition (Trusov et al., 2009).

According to the values of Hofstede, Turkey is a collectivistic society. The Netherlands on the other hand is a individualistic society (see literature Hofstede). Therefore we expect that more respondents from Turkey, compared with the Netherlands, get information from family & friends and word of mouth. Even though this will be not the most selected information resource, our expectation is that it will be more chosen in Turkey than in the Netherlands. To compare the two countries we generate the following hypothesis:

H_o= Consumers from Turkey and the Netherlands show not significant differences in getting information about organic products

We want also know where the consumers buy organic products in the two countries. According to many studies the most preferred place where consumers buy organic products are supermarkets (Padel & Foster, 2005) (Viester, 2003). In the Netherlands, organic products were previously in a separate corner, nowadays they usually stand on the shelves between the conventional products. In Turkey the organic products in supermarkets are still in a separate corner. According to the research of Viester, in the Netherlands more consumers buy organic products from organic shops. the points of sales in Turkey of organic products are supermarkets (apart corner), special organic shops, organic bazaars, internet and direct from organic farmers. The organic bazaars are mostly in neighborhoods with people from the high income class, for example the first organic bazaar of Turkey in Sisli,

Istanbul. In the Netherlands there is also an organic bazaar once a week in Rotterdam. To compare the places where respondents from Turkey and the Netherlands buy organic products, we generate the following hypothesis:

> *H_o= Organic consumers from Turkey and the Netherlands show no differences in point of sales.*

For the analysis of the consumer behavior of consumers who buy organic products, we have to look to the consumer psychology of these consumers. The motivation and the perception of the consumers are a part of the consumer psychology that has an influence on the buying decision process. The respondents are asked what their reasons are for buying organic products. The reasons healthy, environment friendly, no use of chemicals, tasteful, easy to obtain and high quality were the options that has to be valued with a five-points likert scale (stronly disagree (1), disagree (2), neutral(3), agree (4) or strongly agree (5)). According to the study of Sarikaya the most important reason for buying organic products for the consumers in Turkey, is the no use of chemicals by the products of organic products. Followed by the reasons: tasteful, food value and prices. According tot he study of Viester tot he organic consumer in the Netherlands, the reasons for buying organic products are the good impact on health and the fact that no pesticides are used and that the products are environment friendly. To analyze the reasons for buying organic products of consumers from Turkey and the Netherlands we generatet he following hypothesis:

> *H_o = Organic consumers from Turkey and the Netherlands show no differences in their reasons for buying organic products*

The respondents who never buy organic products are also asked to their reasons for not buying organic products. According to the study Padel & Foster the most important reason for not buying organic products are the high prices of these products (Padel & Foster,2005)(Tarkiainen & Sundqvist, 2005). According to the research of Tarkiainen & Sunqvist the limited availability of the organic products are also an import reason for not buying organic products. The respondents who never buy organic products indicated their level of agreement in a five-point likert scale for the following reasons high prices, limited product types, no difference in taste between organic and normal products, low quality, not easy to obtain, it does not matter to me whether a product is organic or not and I don’t

believe that these products are truly organic. For the comparison of the two countries the following hypothesis is generated:

> *H_o = Consumers who never buy organic consumers from Turkey and the Netherlands show no differences in their reasons for not buying organic products*

The support of the ministry of agriculture in Turkey stimulate farmers to produce organic products. The amount of organic farmers is still increasing in Turkey. According to the figures of the CBR (central bureau for statistics in the Netherlands) in 2014 there were 1412 organic farms in the Netherlands. respondents from Turkey and the Netherlands had to make a choice between buying organic products direct from organic farmers or from organic brands. To compare the choices of these two groups we generate the following hypothesis:

> *H_o= Consumers from Turkey and the Netherlands show no significant differences in their choice between organic farmers or organic brands.*

We were also interested in the buying frequency of the Turkish-Dutch and Dutch organic consumers in the Netherlands. Even though they live in the same country, the cultures of these two groups are different. The upbringing of the most Turkish-Dutch people in the Netherlands is different than the upbringing of the Dutch people. Our parents or grandparents have immigrated from Turkey, a big part of the immigrated Turkish people in the Netherlands are from the villages. They came to the Netherlands for working, but they brought their families and remained here. This will not change that their roots is in Turkey. As previously mentioned, in the villages where they come from was farming very important. They know all the techniques about farming and also about the agricultural products. I see always that my grandparents compare the organic products in the Netherlands with the organic products in Turkey. They find these products not tasteful and not comparable with the organic products in Turkey. Therefore it was also interesting to do a research to do buying frequency of the Turkish-Dutch respondents and compare this with the Dutch respondents. The following hypothesis is generated to study this:

> *H_o= Turkish-Dutch consumers differ significantly from Dutch consumers in buying frequency.*

3. Empirical research

3.1. Methodology

3.1.1. Data collection

For this research we made use of two sources of data: secondary data and primary data. The secondary data we have used in the literature section of this research. According to Kardes et al. the secondary data is data that already exist and is readily accessible, for example the data from the ministry of agriculture of Turkey. Because the secondary data is not specificcaly collected for our research, we used primary data. The primary data we get from an online survey distributed in Turkey and the Netherlands. The advantages of primary data are that the information is specific and relevant, current and it can be controlled.

According to Kardes et al. there are four primary research methods, namely observation, direct questioning, experimentation and projective techniques. In this study, the direct questioning is used, an online survey. The online survey is distributed to the consumers in Turkey and the Netherlands. According to the study of Roztocki an online survey effectively reaches respondents in different geographic areas in a short amount of time (Roztocki, 2001). To reach the respondents in Turkey there was no other choice than an online- survey. The link to the online survey was distributed via facebook, instagram and whatsapp. Thanks to many friends and family, who have shared the survey via social media, the survey reached a lot of people. The online survey is distributed in three languages, namely English, Dutch and Turkish.

For this research we want to analyze the consumer behavior of organic products in Turkey and the Netherlands. The populations of this research are all the consumers in Turkey and in the Netherlands. The respondents who participated in this research are the sample we used for this research. A sample is the part of the population from which we actually collect information used to draw conclusions about the whole.

In total 458 respondents participated in this survey. There were 240 respondents from the Netherlands who have participated in the survey and 218 respondent from Turkey. All respondents from Turkey have Turkish nationality. All respondents from the Netherlands have Dutch nationality, only for the last sub-question (*Do Turkish-Dutch consumers and Dutch consumers differ in buying frequency?). T*he Dutch respondents are distinguished into

two nationalities, namely Turkish-Dutch and Dutch. For this question, we adopted all nationalities (except the Turkish) as the Dutch nationality. We have done this because this thesis revolves arount these two nationalities.

3.1.2. Variables

- *Nationality*

This dummy variable consists of two values, namely Turkish (0) and Dutch (1). This variable is used to compare the two countries with each other. Nationality is used by every hypothesis, to make a distinction between the two countries. A further distinction is made in this variable for the distinction of nationalities in the Netherlands, namely Turkish-Dutch (0) and Dutch (1). These dummy variable is only used for the latest sub-question (buying frequency of Turkish-Dutch and Dutch respondents in the Netherlands). The variable 'nationality' is a nominal variable, because there is no order or metric distance characteristics (Janssens et al., 2008)

- *Buying frequency*

The variable 'frequency' is an ordinal variable, because it has a meaningful order, but no distance characteristics (Janssens et al., 2008). The values of this variable are never (1), rarely (2), sometimes(3), very often (4) and always (5). To make a distinction between respondents who never buy organic products and respondents who have ever bought or buy organic products. To analyze the consumer behavior of organic consumers (= respondent who have ever bought organic products). We used this variable to analyze the demographic characteristics, the point of sales and the reasons for buying organic products concerning organic consumers. To analyze the consumer behavior of organic consumers we divided this variable into two values, namely no (1) and yes (0). The 'no' value is for respondent who never buy organic products and the 'yes' values is for the respondent who buy rarely, sometimes, very often and always organic products.

- *Gender*

This dummy variable has two values: male (1) and female (0). This variable is a nominal variable, because there is no order or metric distance characteristics.

- *Age*

This variable has seven values: younger than 18 years (1), between 18 and 24 years (2), between 25 and 34 years (3), between 35 and 44 years (4), between 45 and 54 years (5), between 55 and 64 years (6) and older than 65 years (7). This variable is an ordinal variable, because it has an order, from young to old.

- *Education*

This variable is also an ordinal variable, because it has a meaningful order, but no metric distance characteristics (Janssens et al., 2008). The categories of this variable differ a little from each other, according to the countries. In Turkey, we used the following categories: primary education (1), secondary education (2) and university (3). In the Netherlands the education categories are as follows: primary education (1), secondary education (2), HBO (3), bachelor's degree from the universtiy (4) and master's degree from the university (5). The different distribution of the education categories oft he two countries is not practical for comparison. Therefore we have combined HBO (3), bachelor's degree from the universtiy (4) and master's degree from the university (5) into one value, namely university. The two countries will have three education categories what will be practical to compare.

- *Income*

This variable is an ordinal variable with four categories. In the Turkish version of the survey the categories are as follows: lower dan 500 Turkish Lira (1), between 500 and 1500 TL (2), between 1500 and 2500 TL (3) and higher than 2500 TL (4). In the Dutch and English version of the survey the categories are as follows: lower dan €500 (1), between €500 and €1500 (2), between €1500 and €2500 (3) and higher than €2500 (4). The currencies of the two countries are different from each other, you can't compare 500 Turkish Lira with €500. According to the currency 500 TL is €163,46, so it will not be a good comparison of income levels oft he consumers. Therefore wem ade three categories, namely low income, middle income and high income. In the low income category is the 500 TL and €500 included. In the middle income category the categories €500-€1500 and €1500-€2500 are included (500-1500 TL and 1500-2500 TL in Turkey). The high income category included the income level that is higher than €2500 and 2500TL. This adjustment makes it easier to make a comparison between the two countries.

- *Resource of information*

This is a nominal variable, because it has no order. It has eight values, namely internet(1), Newspaper(2), Magazine(3), Television(4), Radio(5), Outdoor advertising(6), Family and friends(7) and Mouth-to-ear(8). The respondents has to indicate where they get mostly information about organic products from.

- *The point of sales*

This variabe is a nominal variable with five values, namely organic bazaars(1), supermarkets(2), special organic shops(3), internet(4) and direct from organic farmers(5). Respondents has to indicate which of the five places is their most preferred one.

- *Reasons for buying at the point of sales*

As complement to the variable point of sales, this variable is used where the respondents are asked to the reasons for buying organic products at the indicated places. The values where they could choose from were hygienic, brand awareness, broad assortment, friendly sales staff, atmosphere, accessibility, prices and trustworthy. For these values we created dummy variables for each of the reasons with the values yes (1) and no (0). These variables are nominal variables, because they have no meaningful order.

- *Organic farmer or organic brand?*

This is a nominal, dummy variable with the values organic farmer(1) and organic brand(2). Respondents has to indicated from which one they would buy organic products if they had to choose.

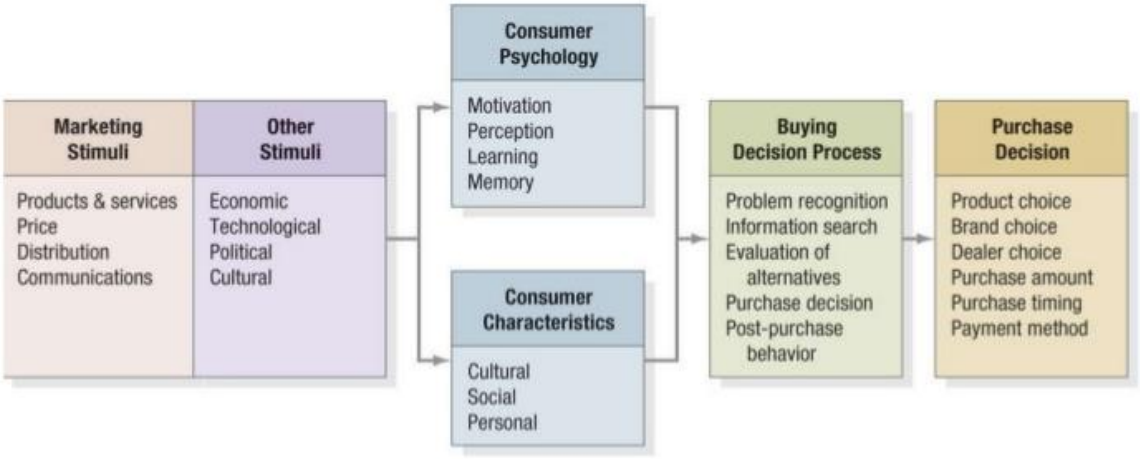
3.1.3. Survey design

To analyze the consumer behavior of the respondents we have used the model of consumer behavior of Kotler, a stimulus-response model.

The model of consumer behavior is explained by Kotler & Keller as follows:

> *"Marketing and environmental stimuli enter the consumer's consciousness, and a set of psychological process combine with certainconsumer characteristics to result in decision process and purchase decision."*
>
> *Kotler & Keller, 2012*

Figure 11: Model of consumer behavior (Kotler & Keller)



The marketing stimuli and other stimuli is explained in the literature part of this research. the model of consumer behavior will explained further with the aim of the survey. The parts that will be explained by the survey are consumer psychology, consumer characteristics, buying decision process and purchase decision. According to these four parts of the model we have divided the survey into four parts (see appendix 7.34)

- *Demographic characteristics (consumer characteristics, see figure 11)*
- *Characteristics of organic products (consumer psychology, see figure 11)*
- *Buying behavior (buying decision process & purchase decision, see figure 11)*
- *Reasons for buying behavior (consumer psychology, see figure 11)*

Consumer characteristics

In this part of the survey we asked the respondents to indicated their gender (*question 1*), age(*question 2*), education (*question 3*), nationality(*question 4*), city where they live (*question 5*),and monthly income (*question 6*). According to the model of Kotler about consumer behavior we see that consumer characteristics has an impact on the buying decision process. A consumer's buying behavior is influenced by cultural, social and personal factors (Kotler, 2012). In the survey we used personal and cultural factors of the respondents. The personal factors are gender, age, education and income. The cultural factor is the nationality of the respondents. Culture is the fundamental determinant of a person's wants and behavior. Cultural factors exert the broadest and deepest influence (Kotler & Keller, 2012). To analyze and compare these consumer characteristics of consumers from Turkey and the Netherlands, we included these questions in the survey.

Consumer psychology

Characteristics of organic products (question 7)

We asked the respondents what they think the characteristics of organic products are. This was an open question. The respondents could indicate their thought in their own words. We summarized the answers on this question. This question is included in the survey to get an idea about the perceptions the respondents have about organic products and what the respondents has in their memory about organic products (consumer psychology)

Reasons to buy organic products (question 11)

The respondents has to indicate, in a five-points likert scale if they were stronly disagree (1), disagree (2), neutral(3), agree (4) or strongly agree (5) with the given options. The options/reasons that has to be valued with the likert scale were healthy, environment friendly, no use of chemicals, tasteful, easy to obtain and high quality. We asked the respondents if these were the reasons for buying organic products and they indicated their opinions. This question presents a picture about the consumer psychology (see figure kotler)

Reasons for not buying organic products (question 12)

The respondents who indicated that they never buy organic products are also asked for the reasons for not buying organic products. The reasons were given in this question, that has to be valued with a five-points likert scale, namely stronly disagree (1), disagree (2), neutral(3),

agree (4) or strongly agree (5). The reasons that were given were as follows high prices, limited product types, no taste differences between organic and normal products, low quality, not easy to obtain, it does not matter to me whether a product is organic or not and I don't believe that these products are truly organic. This question presents a picture about the consumer psychology of people who don't buy organic products.

Buying decision process & purchase decision

Resource of information (question 8)

The 8th question of the survey is were the respondents get information from about organic products. As previously mentioned this question consisted of eight answers, namely Internet, Newspaper, Magazine, Television, Radio, Outdoor advertising, Family and friends and Mouth-to-ear. This is the information search of the buying decision process (see figure kotler)

Buying frequency (question 9)

We also asked the respondents what their buying frequency is concerning organic products. The answers they could choose from were never, rarely, sometimes, very often and always. The buying frequency is a part of the purchase decision: will you buy or not?

Point of sales & reasons (question 10)

The 10th question was about the places where the respondents buy organic products. This question was for the respondents who indicated that they rarely, sometimes, very often or always buy organic products. Hereby we also asked why they buy organic products at these places. The places where they could choose from were organic bazaars, supermarkets, special organic shops, internet and direct from organic farmers. The reasons for buying at these places were they could choose from were hygienic, brand awareness, broad assortment, friendly sales staff, atmosphere, accessibility, prices and trustworthy. This question is also a part oft he purchase decision. The respondents indicate with this question their dealer choice and the reasons of their choice. This question was a multiple response question, were the respondents could indicate multiple answers.

Organic farmer or organic brand (question 13 & 14)

The respondents were asked to make a choice between the two options, namely organic farmer or organic brand. This question is followed by an open question where the respondents were asked why they choose for a organic farmer or an organic brand. This questions give also a picture of the dealer choice.

Question 15

The last question was an open question were the respondents were asked what needs to be done to encourage people to buy organic products. With this question the shortcomings of each country about the organic product market can be identified.

3.2. Data-analysis

The purpose of this research is to analyze the consumer behavior concerning organic products in Turkey and the Netherlands. The respondents in Turkey and the Netherlands are independent samples, in this case two samples selected from two different populations. The variables of these research are nominal (gender, points of sales, organic farmer or organic brand) or ordinal (age, education, valuation of the reasons for buying or not buying organic products). The distribution of the samples are not normally distributed (see appendix). All these are the reasons for the use of non-parametric tests in this research. To test the hypothesis, which include nominal variables, we used the chi-square test. The hypotheses include ordinal variables are tested with a Mann Withney U test.

These two tests that are used for this study are both non-parametric tests, in these tests the assumption for a normally distribution of the variables is not needed. The variables of this research are not normally distributed (see appendix 7.33), therefore we use non parametric tests.

The assumptions for a chi-square test are simple random sample, large sample size, expected cell counts 5 or higher and independent samples. This research meet these assumptions, because the sample size is randomly selected and consists of 218 respondents from Turkey and 240 respondents from the Netherlands. The expected cell counts of all the variables are 5 or higher and the assumption of independent samples is also satisfied. The data is analysed with SPSS. The formulation of the chi-quare is

$$X^2 = \sum \frac{(observed\ count - expected\ count)^2}{expected\ count}$$

The ordinal variables are tested with the Mann-Whitney U-test. This is also a non-parametric test. The data of this research meet the assumptions oft he Mann- Whitney U test, namely the (ordinal) data is not normally distributed, independent samples and ordinal variables. The formula oft he Mann-Whitney U test is:

$$U_1 = n_1 n_2 + \frac{n_1(n_1+1)}{2} - R_1$$

$$U_2 = n_1 n_2 + \frac{n_2(n_2+1)}{2} - R_2$$

3.2.1. Descriptives

The descriptive statistics are shown separately for the two countries, Turkey and the Netherlands. In the tables the percentages are calculated per country, this is done because we will compare the two countries. These two countries are independent samples.

Buying frequency

Most of the respondents from Turkey and the Netherlands indicated that they buy sometimes organic products. The answer ‚'rarely' is the second most chosen answer by both of the countries. In the Netherlands, compared with Turkey, there are more respondents who indicated that they never buy organic products (see appendix 7.5).

In this research the respondents who buy ‚'rarely', 'sometimes', 'very often' and 'always' are named organic consumers, because they have bought or buy organic products.

15% oft he respondents from the Netherlands indicated that they never buy organic products, in Turkey is this percentage 3.7%.

According to the study of Viester in 2003, 78% of the Dutch people have ever bought organic products. In our research this percentage is 85%, we see that more people in the Netherlands buy organic products compared with the research of Viester in 2003.

We did also a research to the buying frequency of the Dutch and Turkish-dutch consumers in the Netherlands. According to our research 11,6% of the Dutch consumer never bought organic products. 19,6% of the Turkish-Dutch consumers have never bought organic products in the Netherlands (see appendix 7.6).

Demographic characteristics

Gender

According to many studies mainly women are the buyers of organic products. In our research we see that in both of the countries more women buy organic products than men. In Turkey the percentage of female respondents who buy organic products is 60%. In the Netherlands we see that 64% of the respondents who have ever bought or buy organic products are female (see appendix 7.7).

Age

The age category with the most respondents who ever buy organic products is the 18-24 age category. We can not say that the 18-24 age category is a characteristic for an organic consumer, because in both countries the majority of the respondents were from the 18-24 age category. A major cause of this is the online survey we have used for this research (see appendix 7.8).

Education

If we look to the results of the survey we see that in the Netherlands, most of the organic farmers has finished HBO. For the comparison of the two countries, we have taken HBO, university (bachelor's degree) and university (maser's degree) together, into one category namely university. If we compare the two countries with each other we see that most of the organic consumers from the Netherlands are highly educated. In Turkey we see that the most of the organic consumers have completed the secondary school. This is not in line with the studies who shows the organic consumers as persons with high education (see appendix 7.9).

Income

In Turkey we see that most of the respondents have an income between 1500 TL and 2500 TL. While in the Netherlands the most of the organic consumers are from the €500-€1500 income category (see appendix 7.10). To compare the two countries with each other we renamed the categories into low income, middle income and high income. After this adjustment in both of the countries the middle income category has the most respondents. In Turkey 55% of the respondents indicated that they have an income in this category and in the Netherlands it was 65% of the respondents (see appendix 7.11).

Nationality

In Turkey all of the respondents have the Turkish nationality. In the Netherlands we see that 40% of the consumers has the Turkish-Dutch nationality and 60% has the Dutch nationality. Respondents who indicated another nationality than Turkish-Dutch or Dutch nationality, we have considered as a Dutch respondents (see appendix 7.12).

Buying behavior

Resource of information

The respondents from both of the countries get information about organic products mostly from internet. In Turkey 49% of the respondents indicated that they get mostly information from the internet and in the Netherlands 46%. The majority of the respondents are aged between 18 and 24 years, this may have a great inluence on this result, because this age-category makes great use of internet. The television as resource of information comes in the second place in both of the countries, namely Turkey with 27% and the Netherlands with 15%. These are followed by family & friends and mouth-to-ear (see appendix 7.13).

The point of sales

The top three most preferred places the respondents in Turkey buy organic products are supermarkets (41%), special organic shops (24%) and organic bazaars (18%). In the Netherlands the top three most preferred places where to buy organic products are supermarkets (61%), special organic shops (28%) and direct from organic farmers (6%). In both of the countries we see that internet is the least chosen place to buy organic products, namely in Turkey with 4% and in the Netherlands with 2% (see appendix 7.14).

Reasons for points of sales

37% of the respondents in Turkey buy organic products in supermarket, the most important reasons for this choice of the Turkish consumers are the accessibility, hygiene and the broad assortment of supermarkets. After the supermarkets the most preferred place (25%) to buy organic products are special organic shops. The reasons for buying in special organic shops are the trustworthy, hygiene and the broad assortment of the organic shops. In the third place we see the organic bazaars chosen by 21% of the respondents. The most important reasons why the Turkish consumers buy organic products at these places are the trustworthy, the prices and the hygiene of the organic bazaars (see appendix 7.15).

Supermarkets are also in the Netherlands the most preferred places to buy organic products. 52% of the respondents in the Netherlands indicated that they buy organic products in supermarkets. The most important three reasons for buying organic products in the supermarkets are the accessibility, trustworthy and the prices. As in Turkey, in the Netherlands we see special organic shops in the second place of the most preferred places

to buy organic products (25%). The reasons for buying of organic products in special organic shops are trustworthy, hygiene and the brand awareness of these organic shops.

Different from Turkey we see in the third place buying directly from organic farmers as the most preferred place to buy organic products (12%). The trustworthy, accessibility and the prices of the organic farmers are the reasons why the consumers choose for organic farmers to buy organic products from (see appendix 7.15).

Reasons for buying

According to the descriptive statistics we see that 76% of the respondents in Turkey are agree that they buy organic products because these products are healthy, while in the Netherlands this percentage is 73% of the respondents. The top three reasons the respondents in Turkey agree are tasteful (77%), healthy (76%) and environment friendly (73%). In the Netherlands the top three reasons for buying organic products are no use of chemicals (74%), healthy (73%) and being environment friendly (65%) of these products. As we see the most import reasons for buying organic products differ from each other in both of the countries. In both of the countries the most unimportant reason for buying organic product is easy to obtain. In Turkey 20% of the respondents disagree with this as a reason for buying organic products, while it is 26% of the respondents who are disagree with this as a reason for buying organic products. The most important reason according to the respondents in Turkey is the tastefulness of the organic products, this is not in line with the study of Sarikaya. According to the study of Sarikaya the most important reasons was the no use of chemicals. In the Netherlands we see that the reasons from our research is in line with the research of Viester. In our study and the study of Viester the most important reasons for buying organic products is that the products are healthy and the no use of chemicals (see appendix 7.16).

Reasons for not buying

To analyze the reason for not buying organic products we only look to the respondents who have indicated never buy organic products. In Turkey 8 of the 218 respondents has indicated never buy organic products, in the Netherlands it was 36 respondents of the 240 who never buy organic products. The reasons has to be valued with a five-point likert scale (1= strongly disagree,…, 5= strongly agree). According to many studies the most important reason for not buying organic products are the high prices of these products (Yanmaz, 2011) (Marangoz &

celikkan, 2010) (Padel & Foster,2005)(Tarkiainen & Sundqvist, 2005). We see in our research that 62% of the respondents in Turkey agree with this reason for buying organic products, while this is not the most important reasons according to the respondents in the Netherlands. In the Netherlands the most important reason for not buying organic product is that it doesn't matter for the respondents if a product is organic or not (56%), followed by the reason high prices (44%). The respondents from Turkey (50%) and the Netherlands (50%) disagree with low quality as the reason for not buying organic products. Most of the respondents in Turkey disagree with not easy to obtain as a reason for not buying organic products (64%). The top three reasons were the most of the respondents in Turkey agree with are high prices (62%), no matter if a product is organic or not (38%) and don't believe that an organic product is truly organic (38%). These top three reasons in the Netherlands are no matter if a product is organic or not (56%), high prices (44%) and don't believe that an organic product is truly organic (39%). The reasons in the top three are the same in both of the countries, only their order is different (see appendix 7.17).

Organic farmer or organic brand?

The majority of the respondents in Turkey choose for buying organic products from organic farmers, namely 78% of the respondents. The reasons for their choices for organic farmers are asked in a open question. The respondents who answered this question indicated that the trustworthy is one of the reasons why they choose for an organic farmer. Another reasons were that there is no middlemen between the consumer and de farmer and that it is easy to obtain. No middlemen makes sure that the prices of the products are lower. Supporting farmers is also a reason for buying from organic farmers. The products the consumers get from organic farmers are fresher than the products which are sold in supermarkets or shops (see appendix 7.18).

In the Netherlands 59% of the respondents choose for buying organic products from organic farmers. The reasons for this choice of the respondents are that the products are naturally delivered and they have more trust in farmers. Buying from organic farmers will be a support for the organic farmers, making them to continue with the production of organic products. Organic farming is a small-scale production that is more reliable. The products from organic farmers are fresher because they come direct from the source without a middlemen

between the consumers and farmers. 41% of the respondents in the Netherlands indicated that they will buy organic products from organic brands. A reason for this choice is the accessibility of the products from organic brands. The respondents who indicated this answer don't have the opportunity to buy organic products from organic farmers or it is far from them. The brand awareness of the brands are also a reason of the Dutch consumer to buy organic products from organic brands. The strict controls on brands and the certification for this brands give the consumers more confidence. In the Netherlands there is more advertising for the brands, so it feels more familiar to the consumers.

3.2.2. Hypotheses

H_0= Organic consumers from Turkey and the Netherlands show no differences in gender, age, education and income.

Gender

The descriptive statistics show that in Turkey, 59.5% of respondents who buy organic products are women, while it is 64.2% in the Netherlands.
The difference appeared from the descriptive statistics is not significant. The p-value (.326) is greater than α (.05), therefore the null hypothesis can not be rejected ($\chi 2$ (1) = .965; p=.326). So, there is no significant difference in the proportion of men - women between Turkey and Netherlands (see appendix 7.19).

Age

(For the chi-square thest the age categories are reduced to 5 categories, because the cell counts in the age category 55-64 and older than 65 were lower than 5)

The descriptive statistics show that in Turkey, 41% of respondents who buy organic products are in the 18-24 age-category, while this is 44.1% in the Netherlands.
The difference appeared from the descriptive statistics is not significant. The p-value (.202) is greater than α (.05), therefore the null hypothesis can not be rejected ($\chi 2$ (4) = 5.968; p=.202). So, there is no significant difference in the proportion of age categories between Turkey and Netherlands (see appendix 7.20).

Education

(For the chi-square test the education categories are reduced to 3 categories, namely primary education, secondary education and university)

The descriptive statistics show that the highest level of education completed by 51.9% of respondents, who buy organic products, is the secondary education. While in the Netherlands the highest level of education completed by 64.2% of the respondents, who buy organic products, is the university.
The difference appeared from the descriptive statistics is significant. The p-value (.000) is lower than α (.05), therefore the null hypothesis will be rejected ($\chi 2$ (2) = 25,821; p=.000). So, there is a significant difference in the proportion of highest level of education completed between Turkey and Netherlands (see appendix 7.21).

Income

(the income-categories are reduced to 3 categories, namely low income, middle income and high income. This is done because of the different currency)

The descriptive statistics show that 55.2% of respondents, who buy organic products, are from the middle income category. While in the Netherlands 76.5% of the respondents, who buy organic products, are from the middle income category.
The difference appeared from the descriptive statistics is significant. The p-value (.000) is lower than α (.05), therefore the null hypothesis will be rejected ($\chi 2$ (2) = 69.588; p=.000). So, there is a significant difference in the proportion of income levels between Turkey and the Netherlands (see appendix 7.22).

Buying frequency

H_o= Consumers from Turkey and the Netherlands do not differ in buying frequency.

The descriptive statistics show that 3.7% of the respondents in Turkey never buy organic products, while this is 15% in the Netherlands. So, 96.3% of the respondents in Turkey have ever bought organic products, while it is 85% in the Netherlands.
The difference appeared from the descriptive statistics is significant. The p-value (.000) is lower than α (.05), therefore the null hypothesis will be rejected ($\chi 2$ (4) = 30.438; p=.000). So, there is a significant difference in the proportion of frequencies between Turkey and the Netherlands (see appendix 7.23).

Resource of information

(the cell counts of the option radio were lower than 5, therefore we excluded it)

H_0= Consumers from Turkey and the Netherlands show no differences in getting information about organic products.

The descriptive statistics show that 49.1% of the respondents in Turkey get information from the internet, while this is 47,9% in the Netherlands. In the second place we see the televion as the resource of information about organic products, chosen by 26.6% of the respondents in Turkey and 15.8% in the Netherlands. 12.8% of the respondents in Turkey indicated that they get information about organic products from family & friends, while this is 11,5% in the Netherlands. The difference appeared from the descriptive statistics is significant. The p-value (.001) is lower than α (.05), therefore the null hypothesis will be rejected ($\chi 2$ (6) = 21.632; p=.001). So, there is a significant difference in resource of information about organic products between Turkey and the Netherlands (see appendix 7.26 & 7.27).

Point of sales

H_0= Organic consumers from Turkey and the Netherlands show no differences in point of sales.

The descriptive statistics show that the top three most preferred places where the respondents in Turkey buy organic products are supermarkets (41%), special organic shops (24%) and organic bazaars (18%). In the Netherlands the top three most preferred places where to buy organic products are supermarkets (61%), special organic shops (28%) and direct from organic farmers (6%). The difference appeared from the descriptive statistics is significant. The p-value (.000) is lower than α (.05), therefore the null hypothesis will be rejected ($\chi 2$ (4) = 40.167; p=.000). So, there is a significant difference in points of sales between Turkey and the Netherlands (see appendix 7.28).

We also analyzed the reasons for buying at points of sales, to show the importancy of the reasons for buying organic products at these places. According to the respondents in the Netherlands, the important reasons to buy organic products at a certain place are being trustful (.87), accessible (.69) and hygienic (.65) of the point of sales. These reasons for the consumers in Turkey are prices (.38), atmosphere (.34) and trust (.30). The significance levels of the reasons are all significant, because all are lower than α= 0.05. Therefore, we assume

that there is no equality in variance. The variances differ from each other. So, we look to the row of equal variances not assumed by every reason (Levene's test for equality of variances). After the Levene's test for equality of variances, we look to the t-test for equality of means in the table. The value of the significance levels in equal variances not assumed are all significant. So, we can consider that all the reasons significantly differ between the two countries (see appendix 7.32).

Reasons for buying organic products

H_0= The organic consumers in Turkey and the Netherlands have, on average, the same ranking in the reasons for buying organic products

If we look to the mean ranks of the reasons we see that only the reason no use of chemicals is higher ranked in the Netherlands compared with Turkey. The other reasons compared with the Netherlands are higher ranked in Turkey.

The rankings of the reasons healthy (sign. Level = 0.135) and no use of chemicals (sign. level = 0.351) are not significantly different between the consumers from Turkey and the consumers from the Netherlands. The ranking of the reasons environment friendly (sign. level = 0.017), tasteful (sign. Level = 0.000), easy to obtain (sign. level = 0.000) and the high quality (sign. level= 0.000) are significantly different in Turkey and the Netherlands. these reasons are more important in Turkey than in the Netherlands (see appendix 7.30).

Reasons for not buying organic products

H_0= The organic consumers in Turkey and the Netherlands have, on average, the same ranking in the reasons for not buying organic products

The reason high prices is the only one that is higher ranked in Turkey (Mean rank: 25.63) compared with the Netherlands (Mean rank: 21.81). The other reasons are all higher ranked in the Netherlands than in Turkey. If we look to the significance level of these reasons, we see that all of the reasons are not significant, they are all higher than α=0.05. All the reasons are not significantly different between the consumers from Turkey and the Netherlands, so we have been unable to show that there is difference in reasons for not buying organic products between consumers in Turkey and the Netherlands. this may be caused by the small sample sizes of the respondents from Turkey and the Netherlands who never buy organic products (see appendix 7.31).

Organic farmer or organic brand?

H_o= Consumers from Turkey and the Netherlands show no differences in their choice between organic farmers or organic brands.

The descriptive statistics show that 78% of the respondents in Turkey will buy from organic farmers, while it is 59% in the Netherlands. The difference appeared from the descriptive statistics is significant. The p-value (.000) is lower than α (.05), therefore the null hypothesis will be rejected ($\chi 2$ (1) = 19.386; p=.000). So, there is a significant difference in the choices of the respondents in Turkey and the Netherlands. More consumers in Turkey choose for organic farmers than consumers in the Netherlands (see appendix 7.29).

Buying frequency Dutch and Turkish-Dutch respondents

H_o= Turkish-Dutch consumers differ from Dutch organic farmers in buying frequency.

The descriptive statistics show that 12% of the Dutch respondents never buy organic products, while it is 20% for the Turkish-Dutch consumers. So, 88% of the Dutch respondents have ever bought organic products and 80% of the Turkish-Dutch consumers have ever bought organic products.

The difference appeared from the descriptive statistics is not significant. The p-value (.415) is greater than α (.05), therefore the null hypothesis can not be rejected ($\chi 2$ (3) = 2.853; p=.415). So, there is no significant difference in buying frequency between Dutch and Turkish-Dutch consumers (see appendix 7.24 & 7.25).

3.2.2.1. Overview of hypotheses

	Hypotheses	Accepted or rejected
1	H_o= Organic consumers from Turkey and the Netherlands show no differences in gender, age, education and income.	Gender and age = accepted Education and income = rejected
2	H_o= Consumers from Turkey and the Netherlands do not differ in buying frequency.	Rejected
3	H_o= Consumers from Turkey and the Netherlands show no differences in getting information about organic products.	Rejected
4	H_o= Organic consumers from Turkey and the Netherlands show no differences in point of sales.	Rejected
5	H_o= The organic consumers in Turkey and the Netherlands have, on average, the same ranking in the reasons for buying organic products	No use of chemical : accepted Healthy: accepted Environment friendly: rejected Tasteful: rejected Easy to obtain: rejected High quality: rejected
6	H_o= The organic consumers in Turkey and the Netherlands have, on average, the same ranking in the reasons for not buying organic products	All reasons: accepted
7	H_o= Consumers from Turkey and the Netherlands show no differences in their choice between organic farmers or organic brands.	Rejected
8	H_o= Turkish-Dutch consumers do not differ from Dutch organic farmers in buying frequency.	Accepted

4. Conclusion

This research was unable to show the differences in age and gender of the Turkish and the Dutch consumers. So, we assume that the age and gender of the most organic consumers in Turkey and the Netherlands are the same, namely women from the 18-24 age category. This two groups of consumers do show differences in education and income. The highest level of education of the Turkish organic consumer is the secondary education, while it is the university by the organic consumers in the Netherlands. The income levels of the organic consumers significantly differ from each other. There are more consumers in the Netherlands who buy organic products from the middle income category compared with Turkey.

The consumers in Turkey and the Netherlands differ significantly in their buying frequency. In the Netherlands more people do not buy organic products than in Turkey.

The consumers from the two countries significantly differ in getting information about organic products. Internet is the most populair resource of information in both of the countries, but in Turkey it is more populair than in the Netherlands.

In Turkey and in the Netherlands the most chosen place to buy organic products are the supermarkets. More people in the Netherlands chose for buying in a supermarket compared with Turkey. Supermarkets are followed by special organic shops and organic bazaars in Turkey, while in the Netherlands this is followed by special organic shops and organic farmers.

The reasons environment friendly, tasteful, easy to obtain and high quality are more important in Turkey than in the Netherlands. The reasons no use of chemicals and healthy are equally important in both countries.

All the reasons for not buying organic products are not significant, therefore this research is unable to show the rankings of these reasons in the two countries. This is caused due to the very small sample size of respondents who not buy organic products.

More consumers in Turkey choose for organic farmers compared to the Netherlands. Apart in both countries consumers choose for organic farmers, but in Turkey is this more than in the Netherlands.

5. Limitations

This research was about the consumer behavior of consumers in Turkey and the Netherlands. The limitations of this research was that most of the respondents were from the 18-24 age-category. It would be better when there is an equal distribution of the age-categories. This can be done with distributing surveys in supermarkets, where people from every age-category come. In this research the consumers who never buy organic products are too little studied. For further research it is interesting to study the consumer behavior of consumers who never buy organic products.

For further research more countries can be studied to give a better picture of an organic consumer. In this research it was all about Turkey and the Netherlands. It is more interesting when more countries will be compared with each other.

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7. Appendix

7.1. Export of organic products from Turkey in 2014

Export 2014				
Product	Amount(kg)	Amount ($)	% KG	% $
Figs & fig products	4.523.936	21.626.691	29,09	27,5
Dried grapes	4.118.835	13.557.823	26,48	17,2
Apricots & apricot products	1.975.009	11.102.466	12,70	14,1
Hazelnut & hazelnut products	1.642.488	17.046.378	10,56	21,6
Fruit & fruit products	1.292.370	8.595.480	8,31	10,9
Wheat & wheat products	845.340	364.871	5,44	0,5
Lentils & variety	365.123	709.020	2,35	0,9
Cotton & textile products	132.447	1.814.432	0,85	2,3
Capers	76.125	604.698	0,49	0,8
Vegetables & vegetable products	56.256	347.835	0,36	0,4
Walnut	22.258	343.069	0,14	0,4
Pistachio	21.807	854.089	0,14	1,1
Total	**15.071.994**	**76.966.852**	**96,9**	**97,7**
Total (including other products)	**15.552.638**	**78.779.537**	**100**	**100**

7.2. Export of seedless dried grapes

Year	Country	Amount(**KG**)	Amount(**$**)
1998	Germany	1.012.716,00	1.381.771,11
1998	The Netherlands	590.925,00	741.027,45
1998	Sweden	551.750,00	814.726,06
1998	France	233.250,00	317.425,18
1998	England	182.000,00	241.332,19
1998	Denmark	158.750,00	210.987,50
1998	United Stated	54.102,20	70.598,14
1998	Belgium	20.000,00	27.700,00
1998	Israel	20.000,00	32.000,00
1998	Australia	10.750,00	11.597,50
1998	Norway	2.000,00	2.900,00
1998	Japan	1.875,00	2.681,25
1998	Spain	500,00	535,00
	Total	142.066.384,76	321.787.860,38

Resource: Aegean Exporters' associations

7.3. Export of dried figs

Year	Country	Amount**(KG)**	Amount**($)**
1998	Germany	594.976,50	1.428.183,08
1998	Sweden	531.775,00	1.280.343,23
1998	France	158.039,50	401.999,39
1998	Denmark	143.406,00	284.960,39
1998	The Netherlands	34.230,00	74.031,20
1998	Sweden	30.000,00	69.900,00
1998	England	25.003,00	54.281,75
1998	Australia	14.200,00	20.179,20
1998	Israel	10.000,00	25.900,00
1998	United States	9.985,00	27.919,70
1998	Australia	7.720,00	18.185,00
1998	Japan	5.700,00	18.126,00
1998	Norway	3.000,00	9.600,00
1998	Canada	1.500,00	4.189,50
		128.789.580,64	297.823.614,28

Resource: Aegean Exporters' associations

7.4. Export of dried apricots

Year	Country	Amount**(KG)**	Amount**($)**
1998	Germany	503.094,80	1.490.653,24
1998	United States	245.226,60	623.765,89
1998	The Netherlands	78.189,50	194.714,20
1998	England	75.430,00	196.720,75
1998	France	69.440,00	202.929,14
1998	Denmark	68.500,00	171.600,00
1998	Switzerland	62.442,50	203.015,93
1998	Italy	12.125,00	37.587,50
1998	Israel	5.000,00	13.500,00
1998	Australia	3.000,00	8.330,00
1998	Japan	1.250,00	3.956,25
1998	Norway	1.000,00	3.190,00
		120.351.047,20	280.881.124,31

7.5. Buying frequency (Turkey and the Netherlands)

	Never	*Rarely*	*Sometimes*	*Very often*	*Always*	*Total*
The Netherlands	36 (15%)	79 (33%)	101 (42%)	21 (9%)	3 (1%)	240 (100%)
Turkey	8 (4%)	60 (28%)	97 (44%)	46 (21%)	7 (3%)	218 (100%)

7.6. Buying frequency in the Netherlands (Turkish-Dutch and Dutch respondents)

Nationality	*Never*	*Rarely*	*Sometimes*	*Very often*	*Always*	*Total*
Dutch	16 (12%)	48 (35%)	59 (43%)	12 (9%)	3 (2%)	138 (100%)
Turkish-Dutch	20 (20%)	31 (30%)	42 (41%)	9 (9%)	0 (0%)	102 (100%)

7.7. Gender

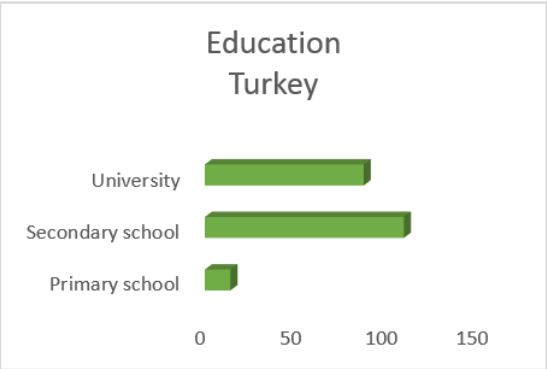
	Turkey	*The Netherlands*
Male	85 (40%)	73 (36%)
Female	125 (60%)	131 (64%)
Total	210 (100%)	204 (100%)

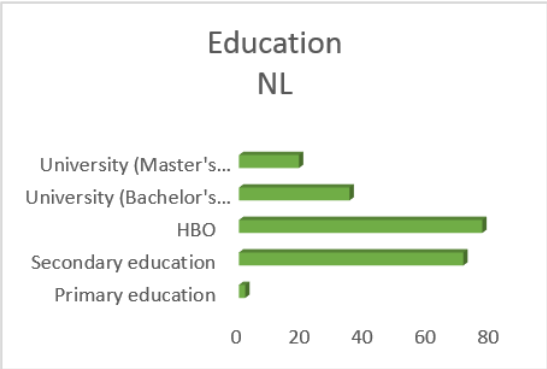
Gender (respondents who never buy organic products are excluded)

7.8. Age

	Turkey	*The Netherlands*
Younger than 18 years	12 (6%)	5 (3%)
18-24 years	86 (41%)	90 (43%)
25-34 years	55 (26%)	66 (32%)
35-44 years	42 (20%)	33 (16%)
45-54 years	11 (5%)	6 (3%)
55-64 years	2 (1%)	3 (2%)
Older than 65 years	2 (1%)	1 (1%)
Total	210 (100%)	204 (100%)

7.5.1. Education

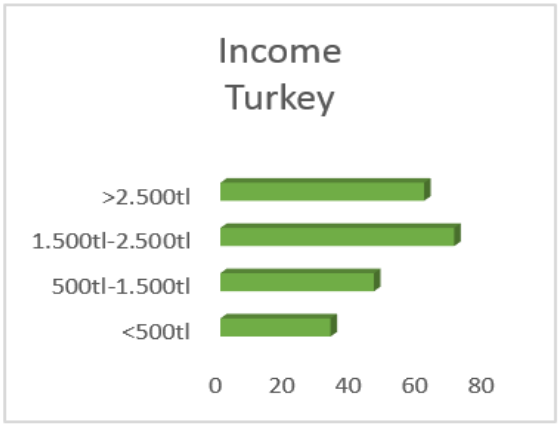


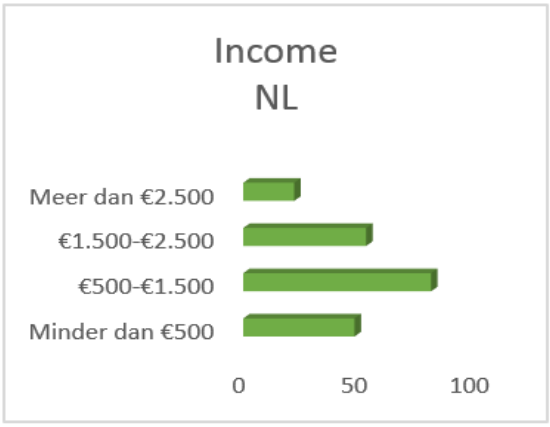


7.9. Education

	Turkey	*The Netherlands*
Primary education	14 (7%)	2 (1%)
Secondary education	109 (52%)	71 (35%)
University	87 (41%)	131 (64%)
Total	210 (100%)	204 (100%)

7.10. Income

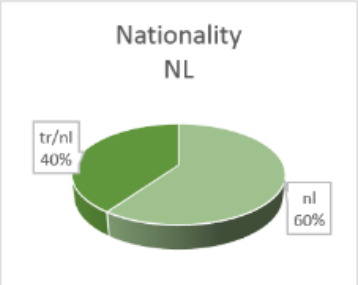




7.11. Income

	Turkey	*The Netherlands*
Low income	33 (16%)	48 (24%)
Middle income	116 (55%)	134 (65%)
High income	70 (29%)	22 (11%)
Total	210 (100%)	204 00%)

7.12. Nationality



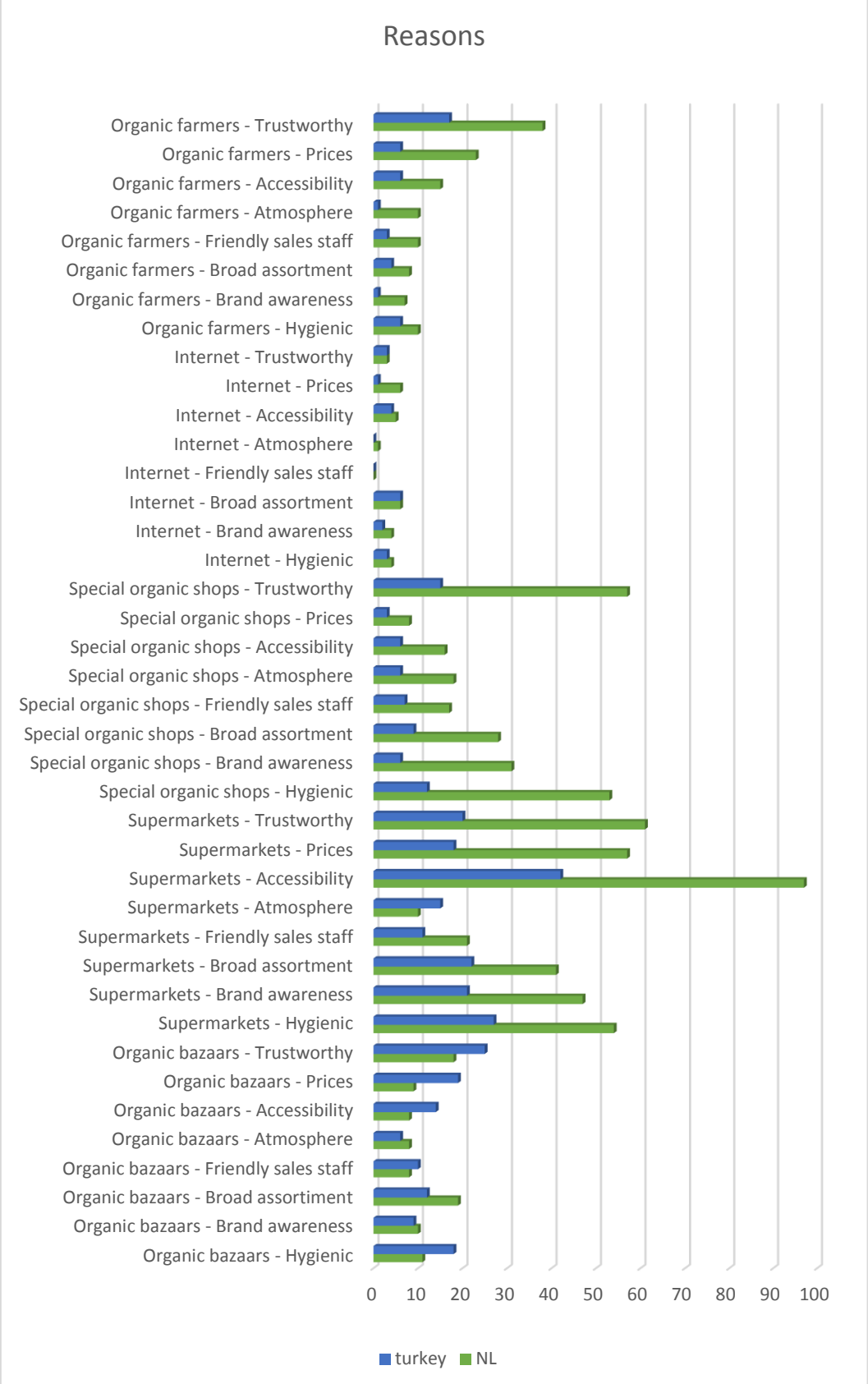
7.13. Resource of information

	Turkey	*The Netherlands*
Internet	107 (49%)	112 (46%)
Newspapers	3 (1%)	18 (8%)
Magazines	5 (2%)	7 (3%)
Television	58 (27%)	37 (15%)
Radio	0 (0%)	6 (3%)
Outdoor advertising	3 (1%)	11 (5%)
Family & Friends	28 (13%)	27 (11%)
Mouth-to-ear (WOM)	14 (6%)	22 (9%)
Total	218 (100%)	240 00%)

7.14. Points of sales

	Turkey	*The Netherlands*
Organic bazaar	38 (18%)	6 (3%)
Supermarket	85(41%)	126 (61%)
Special organic shops	51 (24%)	57 (28%)
Internet	8 (4%)	3 (2%)
Organic farmer	28 (13%)	12 (6%)
Total	210 (100%)	204 00%)

7.15. Reasons for points of sales



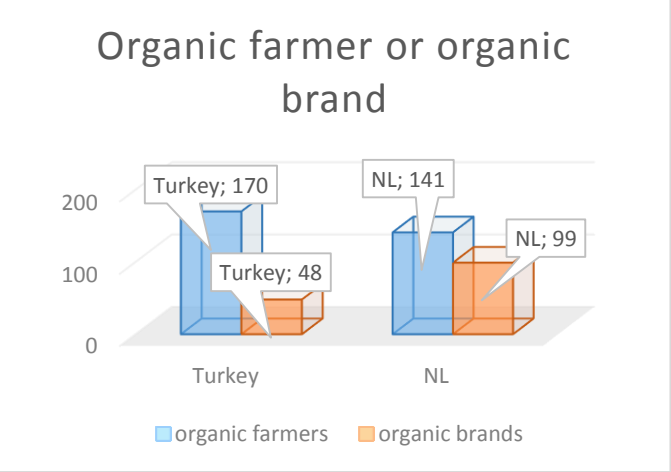
7.16. Reasons for buying organic products

	Disagree		*Neutral*		*Agree*	
	TR	NL	TR	NL	TR	NL
Healthy	10%	6%	14%	21%	76%	73%
Environment friendly	12%	12%	14%	23%	73%	65%
No use of chemicals	14%	10%	19%	17%	67%	74%
Tasteful	8%	11%	15%	35%	77%	54%
Easy to obtain	20%	26%	21%	39%	59%	35%
High quality	8%	10%	20%	28%	72%	62%

7.17. Reasons for not buying organic products

	Disagree		*Neutral*		*Agree*	
	TR	NL	TR	NL	TR	NL
High prices	38%	20%	0%	36%	62%	44%
Limited product types	50%	36%	25%	47%	25%	17%
No difference in taste	50%	42%	25%	42%	25%	16%
Low quality	50%	50%	50%	33%	0%	17%
Not easy to obtain	64%	36%	13%	36%	23%	28%
No matter organic or not	24%	17%	38%	28%	38%	56%
Don't believe	50%	39%	12%	22%	38%	39%

7.18. Organic farmer or organic brand



7.19. Gender * nationality

Crosstab

			nationality		
			TR	NL	Total
Gender	Male	Count	85	73	158
		Expected Count	80,1	77,9	158,0
		% within nationality	40,5%	35,8%	38,2%
	Female	Count	125	131	256
		Expected Count	129,9	126,1	256,0
		% within nationality	59,5%	64,2%	61,8%
Total		Count	210	204	414
		Expected Count	210,0	204,0	414,0
		% within nationality	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	,965[a]	1	,326		
Continuity Correction[b]	,777	1	,378		
Likelihood Ratio	,966	1	,326		
Fisher's Exact Test				,363	,189
Linear-by-Linear Association	,963	1	,326		
N of Valid Cases	414				

a. 0 cells (0,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 77,86.
b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

Symmetric Measures

		Value	Approximate Significance
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	,048	,326
	Cramer's V	,048	,326
N of Valid Cases		414	

7.20. Age * nationality

Crosstab

			nationality		
			TR	NL	Total
age	<18	Count	12	5	17
		Expected Count	8,6	8,4	17,0
		% within nationality	5,7%	2,5%	4,1%
	18-24	Count	86	90	176
		Expected Count	89,3	86,7	176,0
		% within nationality	41,0%	44,1%	42,5%
	25-34	Count	55	66	121
		Expected Count	61,4	59,6	121,0
		% within nationality	26,2%	32,4%	29,2%
	35-44	Count	42	33	75
		Expected Count	38,0	37,0	75,0
		% within nationality	20,0%	16,2%	18,1%
	>45	Count	15	10	25
		Expected Count	12,7	12,3	25,0
		% within nationality	7,1%	4,9%	6,0%
Total		Count	210	204	414
		Expected Count	210,0	204,0	414,0
		% within nationality	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	5,968[a]	4	,202
Likelihood Ratio	6,065	4	,194
Linear-by-Linear Association	,260	1	,610
N of Valid Cases	414		

a. 0 cells (0,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 8,38.

Symmetric Measures

		Value	Approximate Significance
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	,120	,202
	Cramer's V	,120	,202
N of Valid Cases		414	

7.21. Education * nationality

Crosstab

			nationality		
			TR	NL	Total
Education	Primary school	Count	14	2	16
		Expected Count	8,1	7,9	16,0
		% within nationality	6,7%	1,0%	3,9%
	Secondary school	Count	109	71	180
		Expected Count	91,3	88,7	180,0
		% within nationality	51,9%	34,8%	43,5%
	University	Count	87	131	218
		Expected Count	110,6	107,4	218,0
		% within nationality	41,4%	64,2%	52,7%
Total		Count	210	204	414
		Expected Count	210,0	204,0	414,0
		% within nationality	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	25,821[a]	2	,000
Likelihood Ratio	27,062	2	,000
Linear-by-Linear Association	25,582	1	,000
N of Valid Cases	414		

a. 0 cells (0,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 7,88.

Symmetric Measures

		Value	Approximate Significance
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	,250	,000
	Cramer's V	,250	,000
N of Valid Cases		414	

7.22. Income * nationality

Crosstab

			nationality		
			TR	NL	Total
Income	Low income	Count	33	48	81
		Expected Count	41,1	39,9	81,0
		% within nationality	15,7%	23,5%	19,6%
	Middle Income	Count	116	156	272
		Expected Count	138,0	134,0	272,0
		% within nationality	55,2%	76,5%	65,7%
	High Income	Count	61	0	61
		Expected Count	30,9	30,1	61,0
		% within nationality	29,0%	0,0%	14,7%
Total		Count	210	204	414
		Expected Count	210,0	204,0	414,0
		% within nationality	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	69,588[a]	2	,000
Likelihood Ratio	93,175	2	,000
Linear-by-Linear Association	41,177	1	,000
N of Valid Cases	414		

a. 0 cells (0,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 30,06.

Symmetric Measures

		Value	Approximate Significance
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	,410	,000
	Cramer's V	,410	,000
N of Valid Cases		414	

7.23. Frequency * nationality

Frequency * nationality Crosstabulation

			nationality		Total
			TR	NL	
Frequency	Never	Count	8	36	44
		Expected Count	20,9	23,1	44,0
		% within nationality	3,7%	15,0%	9,6%
	rarely	Count	60	79	139
		Expected Count	66,2	72,8	139,0
		% within nationality	27,5%	32,9%	30,3%
	sometimes	Count	97	101	198
		Expected Count	94,2	103,8	198,0
		% within nationality	44,5%	42,1%	43,2%
	very often	Count	46	21	67
		Expected Count	31,9	35,1	67,0
		% within nationality	21,1%	8,8%	14,6%
	always	Count	7	3	10
		Expected Count	4,8	5,2	10,0
		% within nationality	3,2%	1,3%	2,2%
Total		Count	218	240	458
		Expected Count	218,0	240,0	458,0
		% within nationality	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	30,438[a]	4	,000
Likelihood Ratio	32,105	4	,000
Linear-by-Linear Association	27,051	1	,000
N of Valid Cases	458		

a. 1 cells (10,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 4,76.

Symmetric Measures

		Value	Approximate Significance
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	,258	,000
	Cramer's V	,258	,000
N of Valid Cases		458	

7.24. Frequency * nationality (Turkish-Dutch and Dutch)

Frequency * nationality Crosstabulation

			nationality		
			nl	tr/nl	Total
Frequency	Nooit	Count	16	20	36
		Expected Count	20,7	15,3	36,0
		% within nationality	11,6%	19,6%	15,0%
	Zelden	Count	48	31	79
		Expected Count	45,4	33,6	79,0
		% within nationality	34,8%	30,4%	32,9%
	Soms	Count	59	42	101
		Expected Count	58,1	42,9	101,0
		% within nationality	42,8%	41,2%	42,1%
	Vaak	Count	12	9	21
		Expected Count	12,1	8,9	21,0
		% within nationality	8,7%	8,8%	8,8%
	Altijd	Count	3	0	3
		Expected Count	1,7	1,3	3,0
		% within nationality	2,2%	0,0%	1,3%
Total		Count	138	102	240
		Expected Count	138,0	102,0	240,0
		% within nationality	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	5,108[a]	4	,276
Likelihood Ratio	6,176	4	,186
N of Valid Cases	240		

a. 2 cells (20,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1,28.

Symmetric Measures

		Value	Approximate Significance
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	,146	,276
	Cramer's V	,146	,276
N of Valid Cases		240	

7.25. Frequency (without always) * nationality (Turkish-Dutch and Dutch)

Frequency * nationality Crosstabulation

			Wat is uw nationaliteit?		
			nl	tr/nl	Total
Frequency	Nooit	Count	16	20	36
		Expected Count	20,5	15,5	36,0
		% within nationality	11,9%	19,6%	15,2%
	Zelden	Count	48	31	79
		Expected Count	45,0	34,0	79,0
		% within nationality	35,6%	30,4%	33,3%
	Soms	Count	59	42	101
		Expected Count	57,5	43,5	101,0
		% within nationality	43,7%	41,2%	42,6%
	Vaak	Count	12	9	21
		Expected Count	12,0	9,0	21,0
		% within nationality	8,9%	8,8%	8,9%
Total		Count	135	102	237
		Expected Count	135,0	102,0	237,0
		% within nationality	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	2,853[a]	3	,415
Likelihood Ratio	2,828	3	,419
N of Valid Cases	237		

a. 0 cells (0,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 9,04.

Symmetric Measures

		Value	Approximate Significance
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	,110	,415
	Cramer's V	,110	,415
N of Valid Cases		237	

7.26. Information * nationality

Information * nationality Crosstabulation

			nationality		
			TR	NL	Total
Information	internet	Count	107	112	219
		Expected Count	104,2	114,8	219,0
		% within nationality	49,1%	46,7%	47,8%
	newspapers	Count	3	18	21
		Expected Count	10,0	11,0	21,0
		% within nationality	1,4%	7,5%	4,6%
	magazines	Count	5	7	12
		Expected Count	5,7	6,3	12,0
		% within nationality	2,3%	2,9%	2,6%
	tv	Count	58	37	95
		Expected Count	45,2	49,8	95,0
		% within nationality	26,6%	15,4%	20,7%
	radio	Count	0	6	6
		Expected Count	2,9	3,1	6,0
		% within nationality	0,0%	2,5%	1,3%
	outdoorad	Count	3	11	14
		Expected Count	6,7	7,3	14,0
		% within nationality	1,4%	4,6%	3,1%
	famandfriends	Count	28	27	55
		Expected Count	26,2	28,8	55,0
		% within nationality	12,8%	11,3%	12,0%
	mouthtoear	Count	14	22	36
		Expected Count	17,1	18,9	36,0
		% within nationality	6,4%	9,2%	7,9%
Total		Count	218	240	458
		Expected Count	218,0	240,0	458,0
		% within nationality	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	27,177[a]	7	,000
Likelihood Ratio	30,948	7	,000
Linear-by-Linear Association	,162	1	,687
N of Valid Cases	458		

a. 2 cells (12,5%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 2,86.

Symmetric Measures

		Value	Approximate Significance
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	,244	,000
	Cramer's V	,244	,000
N of Valid Cases		458	

7.27. Information * nationality (without radio)

Information * nationality Crosstabulation

			nationality		
			TR	NL	Total
Information	internet	Count	107	112	219
		Expected Count	105,6	113,4	219,0
		% within nationality	49,1%	47,9%	48,5%
	newspapers	Count	3	18	21
		Expected Count	10,1	10,9	21,0
		% within nationality	1,4%	7,7%	4,6%
	magazines	Count	5	7	12
		Expected Count	5,8	6,2	12,0
		% within nationality	2,3%	3,0%	2,7%
	tv	Count	58	37	95
		Expected Count	45,8	49,2	95,0
		% within nationality	26,6%	15,8%	21,0%
	outdoorad	Count	3	11	14
		Expected Count	6,8	7,2	14,0
		% within nationality	1,4%	4,7%	3,1%
	famandfriends	Count	28	27	55
		Expected Count	26,5	28,5	55,0
		% within nationality	12,8%	11,5%	12,2%
	mouthtoear	Count	14	22	36
		Expected Count	17,4	18,6	36,0
		% within nationality	6,4%	9,4%	8,0%
Total		Count	218	234	452
		Expected Count	218,0	234,0	452,0
		% within nationality	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	21,632[a]	6	,001
Likelihood Ratio	23,121	6	,001
Linear-by-Linear Association	,044	1	,834
N of Valid Cases	452		

a. 0 cells (0,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 5,79.

Symmetric Measures

		Value	Approximate Significance
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	,219	,001
	Cramer's V	,219	,001
N of Valid Cases		452	

7.28. Points of sales * nationality

pointofsales * nationality Crosstabulation

			nationality		
			TR	NL	Total
pointofsales	biobazaar	Count	38	6	44
		Expected Count	22,3	21,7	44,0
		% within nationality	18,1%	2,9%	10,6%
	supermarket	Count	85	126	211
		Expected Count	107,0	104,0	211,0
		% within nationality	40,5%	61,8%	51,0%
	specialorganic shop	Count	51	57	108
		Expected Count	54,8	53,2	108,0
		% within nationality	24,3%	27,9%	26,1%
	internet	Count	8	3	11
		Expected Count	5,6	5,4	11,0
		% within nationality	3,8%	1,5%	2,7%
	Organic farmer	Count	28	12	40
		Expected Count	20,3	19,7	40,0
		% within nationality	13,3%	5,9%	9,7%
Total		Count	210	204	414
		Expected Count	210,0	204,0	414,0
		% within nationality	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	40,167[a]	4	,000
Likelihood Ratio	43,151	4	,000
Linear-by-Linear Association	,637	1	,425
N of Valid Cases	414		

0 cells (0,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 5,42.

Symmetric Measures

		Value	Approximate Significance
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	,311	,000
	Cramer's V	,311	,000
N of Valid Cases		414	

7.29. Farmerorbrand * nationality

farmerorbrand * nationality Crosstabulation

			nationality		
			TR	NL	Total
farmerorbrand	farmer	Count	170	141	311
		Expected Count	148,0	163,0	311,0
		% within nationality	78,0%	58,8%	67,9%
	brands	Count	48	99	147
		Expected Count	70,0	77,0	147,0
		% within nationality	22,0%	41,3%	32,1%
Total		Count	218	240	458
		Expected Count	218,0	240,0	458,0
		% within nationality	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	19,386[a]	1	,000		
Continuity Correction[b]	18,514	1	,000		
Likelihood Ratio	19,718	1	,000		
Fisher's Exact Test				,000	,000
Linear-by-Linear Association	19,344	1	,000		
N of Valid Cases	458				

a. 0 cells (0,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 69,97.
b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

Symmetric Measures

		Value	Approximate Significance
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	,206	,000
	Cramer's V	,206	,000
N of Valid Cases		458	

7.30. Reasons for buying organic products

Ranks

	nationality	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
healthy	TR	210	215,66	45289,50
	NL	204	199,10	40615,50
	Total	414		
environmentfriendly	TR	210	220,57	46319,00
	NL	204	194,05	39586,00
	Total	414		
nouseofchemicals	TR	210	202,38	42500,00
	NL	204	212,77	43405,00
	Total	414		
tasteful	TR	210	238,30	50043,50
	NL	204	175,79	35861,50
	Total	414		
easytoobtain	TR	210	231,98	48716,50
	NL	204	182,30	37188,50
	Total	414		
highquality	TR	210	228,21	47924,50
	NL	204	186,18	37980,50
	Total	414		

Test Statistics[a]

	healthy	environmentfriendly	nouseofchemicals	tasteful	easytoobtain	highquality
Mann-Whitney U	19705,500	18676,000	20345,000	14951,500	16278,500	17070,500
Wilcoxon W	40615,500	39586,000	42500,000	35861,500	37188,500	37980,500
Z	-1,493	-2,390	-,933	-5,579	-4,380	-3,768
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	,135	,017	,351	,000	,000	,000

a. Grouping Variable: nationality

7.31. Reasons for not buying organic products

Ranks

	nationality	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
highprices	TR	8	25,63	205,00
	NL	36	21,81	785,00
	Total	44		
limitedtypes	TR	8	21,13	169,00
	NL	36	22,81	821,00
	Total	44		
nodifference	TR	8	21,00	168,00
	NL	36	22,83	822,00
	Total	44		
lowquality	TR	8	22,50	180,00
	NL	36	22,50	810,00
	Total	44		
noteasytoobtain	TR	8	19,50	156,00
	NL	36	23,17	834,00
	Total	44		
nomatter	TR	8	17,63	141,00
	NL	36	23,58	849,00
	Total	44		
dontbelieve	TR	8	20,00	160,00
	NL	36	23,06	830,00
	Total	44		

Test Statistics[a]

	highprices	limitedtypes	nodifference	lowquality	noteasytoobtain	nomatter	dontbelieve
Mann-Whitney U	119,000	133,000	132,000	144,000	120,000	105,000	124,000
Wilcoxon W	785,000	169,000	168,000	180,000	156,000	141,000	160,000
Z	-,787	-,353	-,382	,000	-,762	-1,242	-,633
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	,431	,724	,702	1,000	,446	,214	,527
Exact Sig. [2*(1-tailed Sig.)]	,463[b]	,754[b]	,731[b]	1,000[b]	,482[b]	,247[b]	,560[b]

a. Grouping Variable: nationality

b. Not corrected for ties.

7.32. Reasons for points of sales

Group Statistics

	nationality	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
hyg	nl	204	,65	,479	,034
	tr	210	,19	,390	,027
brand	nl	204	,49	,501	,035
	tr	210	,25	,435	,030
assortment	nl	204	,50	,501	,035
	tr	210	,15	,360	,025
staff	nl	204	,27	,447	,031
	tr	210	,14	,346	,024
atmosphere	nl	204	,23	,422	,030
	tr	210	,34	,476	,033
access	nl	204	,69	,463	,032
	tr	210	,22	,418	,029
prices	nl	204	,50	,501	,035
	tr	210	,38	,487	,034
trust	nl	204	,87	,340	,024
	tr	210	,30	,461	,032

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
									95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
hyg	Equal variances assumed	61,228	,000	10,762	412	,000	,461	,043	,377	,546
	Equal variances not assumed			10,730	391,001	,000	,461	,043	,377	,546
brand	Equal variances assumed	65,211	,000	5,053	412	,000	,233	,046	,142	,324
	Equal variances not assumed			5,043	400,668	,000	,233	,046	,142	,324
assortment	Equal variances assumed	189,934	,000	8,121	412	,000	,348	,043	,263	,432
	Equal variances not assumed			8,083	367,877	,000	,348	,043	,263	,432
staff	Equal variances assumed	51,266	,000	3,477	412	,001	,136	,039	,059	,214
	Equal variances not assumed			3,464	382,044	,001	,136	,039	,059	,214
atmosphere	Equal variances assumed	25,859	,000	-2,541	412	,011	-,112	,044	-,199	-,025
	Equal variances not assumed			-2,546	408,670	,011	-,112	,044	-,199	-,026
access	Equal variances assumed	15,386	,000	10,787	412	,000	,467	,043	,382	,553
	Equal variances not assumed			10,771	404,987	,000	,467	,043	,382	,553
prices	Equal variances assumed	12,138	,001	2,553	412	,011	,124	,049	,028	,219
	Equal variances not assumed			2,552	410,607	,011	,124	,049	,028	,219
trust	Equal variances assumed	82,575	,000	14,102	412	,000	,563	,040	,484	,641
	Equal variances not assumed			14,163	384,167	,000	,563	,040	,485	,641

7.33. Normal distribution of the variables

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean		Std. Deviation	Skewness	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error
Education	458	1	4	2,49	,027	,578	-,531	,114
nationality	458	0	1	,52	,023	,500	-,096	,114
Income	458	1	3	1,93	,027	,587	,014	,114
Gender	458	1	2	1,62	,023	,486	-,496	,114
Frequency	458	1	5	2,69	,043	,911	,049	,114
Age	458	1	7	2,80	,050	1,074	1,141	,114
Information	458	1	8	3,20	,118	2,521	,693	,114
pointofsales	458	1	5	2,51	,049	1,044	1,048	,114
healthy	414	1,00	5,00	3,9565	,05160	1,04987	-1,137	,120
environmentfriendly	414	1,00	5,00	3,7657	,05256	1,06935	-,943	,120
nouseofchemicals	414	1,00	5,00	3,7971	,05391	1,09694	-,973	,120
tasteful	414	1,00	5,00	3,7899	,05019	1,02122	-,735	,120
easytoobtain	414	1,00	5,00	3,3406	,05348	1,08810	-,255	,120
highquality	414	1,00	5,00	3,8068	,04852	,98726	-,727	,120
highprices	44	1,00	5,00	3,3409	,17187	1,14004	-,327	,357
limitedtypes	44	1,00	5,00	2,6818	,14818	,98294	-,075	,357
nodifference	44	1,00	5,00	2,6591	,15573	1,03302	,214	,357
lowquality	44	1,00	5,00	2,5682	,15727	1,04320	,583	,357
noteasytoobtain	44	1,00	5,00	2,7955	,15103	1,00185	-,003	,357
nomatter	44	1,00	5,00	3,3636	,17536	1,16321	-,675	,357
dontbelieve	44	1,00	5,00	3,0000	,17204	1,14119	,098	,357
Valid N (listwise)	0							

7.34. The online survey

Please indicate your gender

- ○ Male
- ○ Female

Which range includes your age?

- ○ younger than 18
- ○ 18-24
- ○ 25-34
- ○ 35-44
- ○ 45-54
- ○ 55-64
- ○ older than 65

What is the highest level of education you have completed?

- ○ Primary school
- ○ High school
- ○ Higher professional education
- ○ Bachelor's degree
- ○ Master's degree

What is your nationality?

What characteristics do you think organic products have?

How do you get information about organic products?

- [ ] Internet
- [ ] Newspaper
- [ ] Magazine
- [ ] TV
- [ ] Radio
- [ ] Outdoor advertising
- [ ] People around me
- [ ] mouth to mouth

What city do you live in?

What category best describes your monthly income?

- ○ Less than €500
- ○ €500 - €1.500
- ○ €1.500 - 2.500
- ○ More than €2.500

How often do you buy organic products?

- ○ Never
- ○ Rarely
- ○ Sometimes
- ○ Most of the Time
- ○ Always

The point of sales

	Where do you buy organic products?	Why do you buy organic products at this place?							
	I buy organic products from	Hygienic	Brand awareness	Broad assortment	Friendly sales staff	Atmosphere	Accessibility	Prices	Trustworthy
Organic bazaars	○	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Supermarkets	○	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Special organic shops	○	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Internet	○	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Direct from organic farmers	○	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Reasons to buy organic products

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
Healthy	○	○	○	○	○
Environment friendly	○	○	○	○	○
No use of chemicals	○	○	○	○	○
Tasteful	○	○	○	○	○
Easy to obtain	○	○	○	○	○
High quality	○	○	○	○	○

Reasons not to buy organic products

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
High prices	○	○	○	○	○
Limited product types	○	○	○	○	○
No taste differences between organic and normal products	○	○	○	○	○
Low quality	○	○	○	○	○
Not easy to obtain	○	○	○	○	○
It does not matter to me whether a products is organic or not	○	○	○	○	○
I don't believe that these products are truly organic	○	○	○	○	○

Which one would you prefer?

- ○ Buy from organic farmers
- ○ Buy from organic brands

Why do you prefer this? (Question 14)

What needs to be done to encourage people to buy organic products?