

# Anti-consumption behavior: A meta-analytic integration of attitude behavior context theory and well-being theory

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## Abstract

Researchers have given considerable attention to investigate anti-consumption behavior. However, empirical research tends to report somewhat erratic and inconsistent findings. Accordingly, the relationships between the antecedents, and the outcome variables of anti-consumption behavior, such as consumer well-being, remain unclear. Thus, to fill this void in the literature, this study integrates Attitude Behavior Context (ABC) theory and Well-being theory into a meta-analytic framework and synthesizes the extant literature on anti-consumption to examine concrete relationships between the contextual and attitudinal variables, anti-consumption behavior and consumer well-being. The findings show that ecological concern, religiosity, mortality salience, and perceived behavioral control influence anti-consumption attitudes and intention, whereas consumer well-being is the outcome variable of anti-consumption behavior. To investigate the possible reasons for the inconsistent findings, we performed a moderation analysis which suggests that country of study, product type, data collection period, research methods and sample type may cause inconsistencies in the findings. This meta-analytic study contributes to the anti-consumption literature. Practically, the findings provide guidelines to policymakers and societal organizations interested in promoting anti-consumption.

## KEYWORDS

ABC theory, anti-consumption, consumer well-being, meta-analysis

## 1 | INTRODUCTION

Unsustainable consumption has led to many social (e.g., over-consumption), environmental (e.g., climate change), and individual (e.g., high indebtedness) problems. Despite the efforts of governments, policymakers, and marketing scholars, unsustainable consumption continues to be a concern in almost every country (Kaur & Luchs, 2022). Interestingly, there are some instances where consumers exhibit strong negative reactions to environmentally harmful products and adopt sustainable consumption practices (Flammer, 2013).

“Anti-consumption” has emerged as a means of inducing sustainable consumption and as a possible solution to worsening environmental problems (Sekhon & Armstrong Soule, 2020). According to Zavestoski (2002), anti-consumption means “consumers’ resistance to, distaste of, or even resentment or rejection of consumption more generally” (p. 121). Notably, the anti-consumption lifestyle emphasizes conservation using practices, such as voluntary simplification (Rebouças & Soares, 2021; Wilson et al., 2022; Zavestoski, 2002), collaborative consumption (Seegebarth et al., 2016), and green activism (Heyes & King, 2020; Peattie, 2001). In the last two decades, anti-

consumption studies have generated heightened interest among marketing academicians (Oral & Thurner, 2019).

Prior studies have used various theories to understand anti-consumption behavior. Although Attitude Behavior Context theory (ABC; Ertz et al., 2016) and well-being theory (Balderjahn et al., 2020) have been repeatedly used for studying consumer behavior in various contexts, they have not yet been integrated to understand anti-consumption behavior and consumer well-being. The ABC theory posits that “*behavior is an interactive product of contextual factors and attitudinal variables*” (Stern, 2000; p. 415). Contextual factors, such as religion and political ideology, as well as subjectively perceived factors (attitudinal factors), such as self-expression, self-control, and perceived risk, drive consumer intention for anti-consumption (Chaney & Lee, 2022; Makri et al., 2020). This argument indicates the primary tenets of ABC theory can explain consumer decision-making around anti-consumption.

The underpinnings of this theory do not explain consumers' post-consumption experience. One primary post-consumption experience of anti-consumption is well-being (Balderjahn et al., 2020). Consumers will adopt anti-consumption behavior only if they believe it will benefit themselves and their society, indicating that anti-consumption and well-being are closely related (Balderjahn et al., 2020). Scholars suggest that any model developed to understand anti-consumption behavior should incorporate well-being (Balderjahn et al., 2020; Lee & Ahn, 2016). However, the ABC theory does not show how the tenets of this theory lead to well-being, which is the overall goal of anti-consumption behavior.

Well-being theory is one such theory that enables us to understand the link between anti-consumption experience and well-being. While the concept of consumer well-being has been studied in various consumer behavior studies, the application of well-being theory in the anti-consumption literature remains scarce (Balderjahn et al., 2020). The primary rationale of well-being theory is that “*satisfaction of needs causes happiness, while the persistence of unfulfilled needs causes unhappiness*” (Balderjahn et al., 2020; p. 460). Well-being covers a broad spectrum of phenomena leading to life satisfaction. Therefore, it is highly likely that satisfaction with anti-consumption preferences will lead to consumer well-being indicating that well-being theory is relevant to understanding anti-consumption behavior (Balderjahn et al., 2020).

This discussion indicates that ABC theory and well-being theory are suitable for understanding consumer decision-making around anti-consumption; however, these theories have some limitations. For instance, well-being theory does not explain how contextual factors, such as religion, affect consumer attitudes and intentions about anti-consumption. On the other hand, although ABC theory is relevant to understanding attitudinal and contextual factors affecting anti-consumption, it is not relevant to demonstrate a link between anti-consumption and consumer well-being, which follow an anti-consumption experience and the resulting satisfaction. Therefore, a comprehensive understanding of anti-consumption behavior remains limited without a more integrative approach incorporating both the ABC and well-being theories. This discussion indicates that

combining these two theories will provide a better understanding of anti-consumption behavior and well-being.

The findings reported in anti-consumption literature based on the variables of the ABC and well-being theories appear to be fragmented and inconsistent. For example, Boujbel and d'Astous (2012) and Lee and Ahn (2016) indicated a positive relationship between anti-consumption behavior and subjective well-being; however, Iyer and Muncy (2016) found an inconsistent linkage between these two variables; sometimes they are positively related and sometimes they are negatively related. For example, Seegebarth et al. (2016) found no significant relationship between anti-consumption behavior and consumer well-being, while Balderjahn et al. (2020) found a positive relationship between these two variables. The anti-consumption literature also reports somewhat inconsistent findings regarding the influence of contextual (e.g., religiosity) and attitudinal (e.g., perceived risk) factors on anti-consumption intention. For instance, Kaynak and Eksi (2011) reported a nonsignificant impact of religiosity on anti-consumption while Chowdhury (2018) found a significant positive impact of religiosity on anti-consumption. Similarly, Yarimoglu et al. (2019) reported a significant positive influence of perceived risk on anti-consumption intention while Ortega-Egea and Garcia-de-Frutos (2021) did not find any significant impact of perceived risk on anti-consumption intention.

These examples indicate an ambiguity regarding actual relationships between the constructs of ABC theory and well-being theory in the anti-consumption literature. The managerial implications and policies based on this ambiguous and inconsistent literature tend to be unreliable. Given this ambiguity, it becomes challenging to offer concrete guidance to policymakers in inculcating anti-consumption practices. However, to date, no effort has been made to synthesize these findings which is a gap in the anti-consumption literature. Therefore, researchers have recommended conducting a quantitative meta-analysis to synthesize the contradictory results reported in the anti-consumption literature (Lee et al., 2020; Makri et al., 2020; Seegebarth et al., 2016). Hence, this study integrates ABC theory and well-being theory into a meta-analytic framework to synthesize the extant literature on anti-consumption and to suggest concrete relationships between the constructs of these theories (Paul & Barari, 2022). As such, this meta-analysis integrates the findings from 47 studies based on data collected from 22,650 individuals in 16 countries. It provides robust and generalizable findings on the relationships between the ABC theory and well-being theory-based constructs studied in the anti-consumption literature.

Further, researchers have recommended investigating the reasons for the contradictory findings in the anti-consumption literature (Lee et al., 2020; Makri et al., 2020; Seegebarth et al., 2016). The literature suggested that research design artifacts, such as country differences, may cause inconsistencies in the findings (Lewin & Donthu, 2005; Maseeh et al., 2021a). While many studies have examined anti-consumption behavior in developed countries, such as the United Kingdom and the United States, others have investigated it in developing markets, such as Bangladesh and Turkey. The differences in the development status of the countries may cause inconsistencies in the research. In addition to country differences, anti-consumption

studies vary depending on the product type (food vs. other), data collection period (before 2010 vs. during and after 2010), sample type (student vs. general), and research method (survey vs. experiment). Hence, a moderation analysis was performed to examine the moderating effect of country of the study (developed vs. developing), product type (food vs. other), data collection period (before 2010 vs. during and after 2010), sample type (student vs. general) and research methods (survey vs. experiment) on the relationship between the variables included in the proposed ABC theory and well-being theory-based meta-analytic framework. A better understanding of such moderating effects would provide guidance to policymakers and marketing organizations on the relationship between the variables included in the proposed framework.

This study has theoretical and practical significance. Theoretically, this study integrates ABC theory and well-being theory in an anti-consumption context from a meta-analytic perspective. Further, using the theoretical integration, being the first meta-analytic study in the anti-consumption domain, this study provides a statistical synthesis of the quantitative findings in the field of anti-consumption and synthesizes the literature on contextual and attitudinal variables influencing anti-consumption attitudes and intention as well as on consumer well-being. Moreover, by performing a moderation analysis, this study identifies the possible reasons for inconsistent findings in the literature concerning the relationship between contextual and attitudinal variables, anti-consumption behavioral outcomes, and consumers' subjective well-being. Overall, this study advances the anti-consumption literature. Practically, the findings of our study can be used by policymakers and societal organizations to promote the idea of anti-consumption to consumers.

The rest of the paper is structured as follows. Section "Development of a meta-analytic framework of anti-consumption behavior" presents the review of pertinent literature to develop the meta-analytic framework and proposes a series of related hypotheses. The methodology of the paper is discussed in the Section "Methodology." The results of the meta-analysis are presented in the Section "Results." The discussion of the findings, academic implications, and practical implications are provided in Sections "Discussion", "Academic implications," and "Practical implications," respectively. The paper concludes with the Section "Limitations and future research directions", which presents limitations, future research directions, and conclusions.

## 2 | DEVELOPMENT OF A META-ANALYTIC FRAMEWORK OF ANTI-CONSUMPTION BEHAVIOR

### 2.1 | Theories applied in anti-consumption literature

Researchers have applied various theories to understand anti-consumption behavior, such as the theory of planned behavior (TPB), Schwartz's (1992) value theory, and reasons theory (e.g., Ahmad et al., 2020; Ashraf et al., 2018; Chatzidakis & Lee, 2013;

Chowdhury, 2018). However, these theories have failed to capture a complete picture of customers' anti-consumption behavior despite having been applied in the anti-consumption literature. For instance, TPB postulates that the immediate antecedent of customers' actual behavior is their intention to perform the behavior, which is influenced by their attitude, subjective norm, and perceived behavioral control (Ajzen, 1991; Corsini et al., 2019). It is important to note that though TPB considers some attitudinal factors, such as perceived behavioral control, it does not capture contextual factors (e.g., ecological concerns in the anti-consumption context). Further, TPB does not provide insights into the "why" of anti-consumption; it does not explain the rationale behind customers' anti-consumption behavior. Accordingly, though TPB is one of the most frequently used theories in consumer behavior literature, it does not provide a comprehensive understanding of the pre- and post-anti-consumption phenomenon.

Another theory that has been used in anti-consumption behavior research is Schwartz's (1992) value theory (see Ahmad et al., 2020 for an overview). This theory assumes that individuals possess a set of values that shape their preference patterns (Schwartz, 1992). Though Schwartz's (1992) value theory is well-suited to examine customers' values that drive their behavior, the key focus of this theory is on individuals' personal values. That is, according to value theory, only personal values are responsible for shaping consumer behavior, such as anti-consumption behavior. As such, the tenets of value theory limit the investigation into consumer behavior to personal values and ignore the potential role of other factors (e.g., environmental/contextual factors) in shaping consumer behavior. However, since non-values-related factors may drive customers' anti-consumption behavior (Makri et al., 2020), this theory cannot provide a comprehensive set of anti-consumption drivers.

Another theory that has been used in anti-consumption literature is the reasons theory which explicates the influence of reason type (i.e., reasons for and reasons against) on individuals' behavior (Westaby & Fishbein, 1996). Using three concepts, that is, behavioral frequency/intention, reasons for performing a behavior, and reasons for not performing a behavior, reasons theory helps understand the motivations affecting individuals' behavior. Accordingly, researchers have applied reasons theory to examine the reasons driving customers' anti-consumption behavior (e.g., Chatzidakis & Lee, 2013). For example, the literature suggests that environmentally conscious customers are reluctant to purchase products that are harmful to the environment (e.g., Moisander & Pesonen, 2002), and ethical customers are hesitant to purchase from socially irresponsible organizations (e.g., Ozcaglar-Toulouse et al., 2006). However, it is important to note that though reasons theory is appropriate for identifying anti-consumption drivers, this theory is predominantly focused on self-reported reasons (e.g., ecological concerns) and does not account for attitudinal reasons (e.g., perceived behavioral control) affecting anti-consumption (Westaby & Fishbein, 1996). Furthermore, the underpinnings of this theory do not help understand post-anti-consumption phenomenon, such as well-being.

In contrast to TPB, Schwartz's (1992) value theory, and reasons theory, ABC theory, and well-being theory are better suited to provide a comprehensive understanding of the pre- and post-anti-consumption phenomenon. The suitability of ABC theory and well-being theory is elaborated in the following sections.

## 2.2 | ABC theory

Many studies on sustainable consumption have used ABC theory as the leading underlying theory (Chen et al., 2021; Ertz et al., 2016; Yadav et al., 2019). Such studies emphasize attitudinal and contextual factors motivating consumers to adopt sustainable consumption behavior. According to ABC theory, behavior (B) results from a combination of attitudinal (A) and contextual factors (C) (Guagnano et al., 1995). In ABC theory, contextual factors are associated with a particular context unique to a particular consumer, or a group of consumers. Contextual factors may include community expectations, government regulations, physical/ideological difficulty of specific actions (e.g., religious beliefs), environmental factors, and interest group pressure (Stern, 2000). For instance, high energy cost is considered a contextual factor affecting energy adaptation (Black et al., 1985). Similarly, in the green consumption context, environmental concerns can be a contextual factor affecting green purchase behavior (Dhir et al., 2021). Attitudinal factors, on the other hand, reflect individuals' beliefs, values, and norms that influence their behavior (Dalton & Jin, 2018; Stern, 2000). These factors include behavior-specific predispositions, and behavior-specific beliefs, such as difficulty of taking specific actions and/or the consequences of those actions. For instance, perceived risk is considered an attitudinal factor that increases the risk of unpleasant outcomes for individuals (Maseeh et al., 2021a).

Using this understanding, previous consumer behavioral studies have identified various attitudinal and contextual factors, such as interpersonal influences, personal values and feelings, personal capabilities, advertising, community expectations, physical environment, institutional factors, and temporal perspectives, which can explain consumers' behavioral responses (Belk, 1975; Yadav et al., 2019). Similarly, previous anti-consumption studies have suggested religion, ecological concerns, perceived risk, perceived behavioral control, and mortality salience as factors driving consumers' motivation for adopting anti-consumption practices (Casabayó et al., 2020; Nepomuceno & Laroche, 2016). For example, Chowdhury (2018) suggests that religiosity positively influences anti-consumption behavior. Similarly, Sudbury-Riley and Kohlbacher (2018) argue that ecological concerns are a strong predictor of anti-consumption. These studies indicate consumers' anti-consumption behavior may depend on various attitudinal and contextual factors. As such, building on ABC theory, we considered ecological concerns and religiosity as contextual variables, while perceived risk, perceived behavioral control, and mortality salience as attitudinal factors driving attitudes, intention, and behavior surrounding anti-consumption. Ecological concerns and religiosity are relevant to a particular group

of customers in the anti-consumption context, and hence they were considered contextual variables in our anti-consumption meta-analytic framework. However, perceived risk, perceived behavioral control and mortality salience are related to individuals' predispositions and beliefs surrounding any behavior in general, thus, we considered them as attitudinal factors.

It is important to note that in ABC theory, attitudinal factors are different from attitudes toward the behavior. That is, according to ABC theory, individuals' behavior and attitude toward a behavior (i.e., anti-consumption in the current study) are influenced by various contextual and attitudinal factors (Guagnano et al., 1995). While attitudinal factors comprise values, beliefs, and norms (Stern, 2000), attitudes generally refer to an individual's response to an object in a favorable or unfavorable manner (Vaske & Donnelly, 1999). As such, in the current study, attitude refers to customers' (favorable or unfavorable) attitude toward anti-consumption, which is influenced by a set of contextual and attitudinal factors.

The above discussion suggests that ABC theory is well-suited to examine pre-anti-consumption phenomenon (drivers of anti-consumption); however, this theory cannot support an investigation into the post-anti-consumption scenario. As such, it becomes vital to include another theory to examine post-anti-consumption phenomenon. Well-being theory is well-suited to examine post-(anti) consumption scenarios. The following section explains well-being theory and its application in the anti-consumption literature.

## 2.3 | Well-being theory

In general, the term "*well-being*" is used to describe the condition of an individual or group in a particular context, such as social, psychological, physical, or economic well-being (Lee & Ahn, 2016). In the marketing domain, "*well-being*" refers to the well-being of a consumer or a group of consumers. The concept of consumer well-being surrounds post-consumption experience, such as customer satisfaction or happiness (Lee & Ahn, 2016; Sirgy et al., 2007). The basic premise of the theory of well-being is that satisfaction of needs leads to happiness while unhappiness is caused by unsatisfied needs (Balderjahn et al., 2020; Diener et al., 1999). As such, individuals consume products to satisfy their needs to seek happiness.

In addition to seeking well-being through consumption, in some situations, consumers seek well-being through anti-consumption (Cova & D'Antone, 2016). For instance, in recent times, consumers have started acknowledging that excessive consumption harms not only the environment but also their own well-being and that of others (Markowitz & Bowerman, 2012). Accordingly, consumers avoid purchasing/consuming material objects to reduce environmental deterioration taking place via resource depletion (Pancer & Handelman, 2012). The literature has demonstrated a negative association between materialistic consumption and consumer well-being (e.g., Iyer & Muncy, 2016; Lee & Ahn, 2016), while avoiding materialistic consumption and living a simple life contribute to satisfaction, happiness, and well-being (Boujbel & d'Astous, 2012).

Also, living a simple life and controlling consumption expenditure help consumers save their financial resources thereby increasing their financial well-being (Balderjahn et al., 2020). It is evident in the anti-consumption literature that individuals' preferences of anti-consumption influence their assessment of well-being. Considering the relevance of consumer well-being, anti-consumption literature has used the well-being theory to articulate post-anti-consumption behavior (e.g., Lee et al., 2020). As such, it is deemed appropriate to use well-being theory to synthesize the anti-consumption literature.

## 2.4 | Integrating ABC and well-being theories

As explained earlier, though ABC theory is well-suited to examine consumer anti-consumption, it largely ignores consumers' post-consumption experience, that is, how consumers feel after adopting anti-consumption behavior. Researchers recommend investigating both pre- and post-anti-consumption scenarios (Lee et al., 2020). Accordingly, integrating ABC theory with well-being theory becomes vital to support such an investigation. Thus, integrating ABC theory and well-being theory, this study develops a Meta-analytic framework to synthesize the extant literature on anti-consumption (see Figure 1). Accordingly, this framework comprises the contextual factors (i.e., ecological concerns and religiosity) attitudinal factors (i.e., perceived risk, perceived behavior control, and morality salience), consumer attitude toward anti-consumption, consumer behavioral outcomes (i.e., anti-consumption intention, anti-consumption behavior) and consumer well-being. Table 1 presents the definitions of all these factors, their common aliases, and representative studies.

Further explanation of the constructs in this study's framework and their association follows.

## 2.5 | Hypotheses development for direct effects

### 2.5.1 | Relationship of ecological concerns with attitudes and intention surrounding anti-consumption

The proposed theoretical framework starts with ecological concerns, which refers to individuals' concerns that their actions or purchase behavior may harm the environment or ecosystem (Kilbourne & Pickett, 2008). Using the premise of ABC theory, "ecological concerns" is categorized as a contextual factor because in the anti-consumption context, ecological concerns are specific to environmentally conscious individuals, who do not want to harm the environment due to their purchases, which triggers their anti-consumption behavior. The environmental consequences of consumption became a point of concern during the 1960s (Ingenbleek et al., 2015). Consequently, many consumers adopted anti-consumption practices, such as voluntary simplicity, to mitigate resource depletion, and thereby benefit the environment (Albinsson et al., 2010; Cherrier, 2009; Kuanr et al., 2020). In fact, Hutter and Hoffmann (2013) found that consumers with high environmental concern tend to hold positive attitudes toward anti-consumption practices (Hutter & Hoffmann, 2013; Hutter et al., 2016). Similarly, Rindell et al. (2014) and Garcia-de-Frutos et al. (2018) found a positive impact of ecological concerns on the intention for anti-consumption. Based on these arguments, it is hypothesized that:

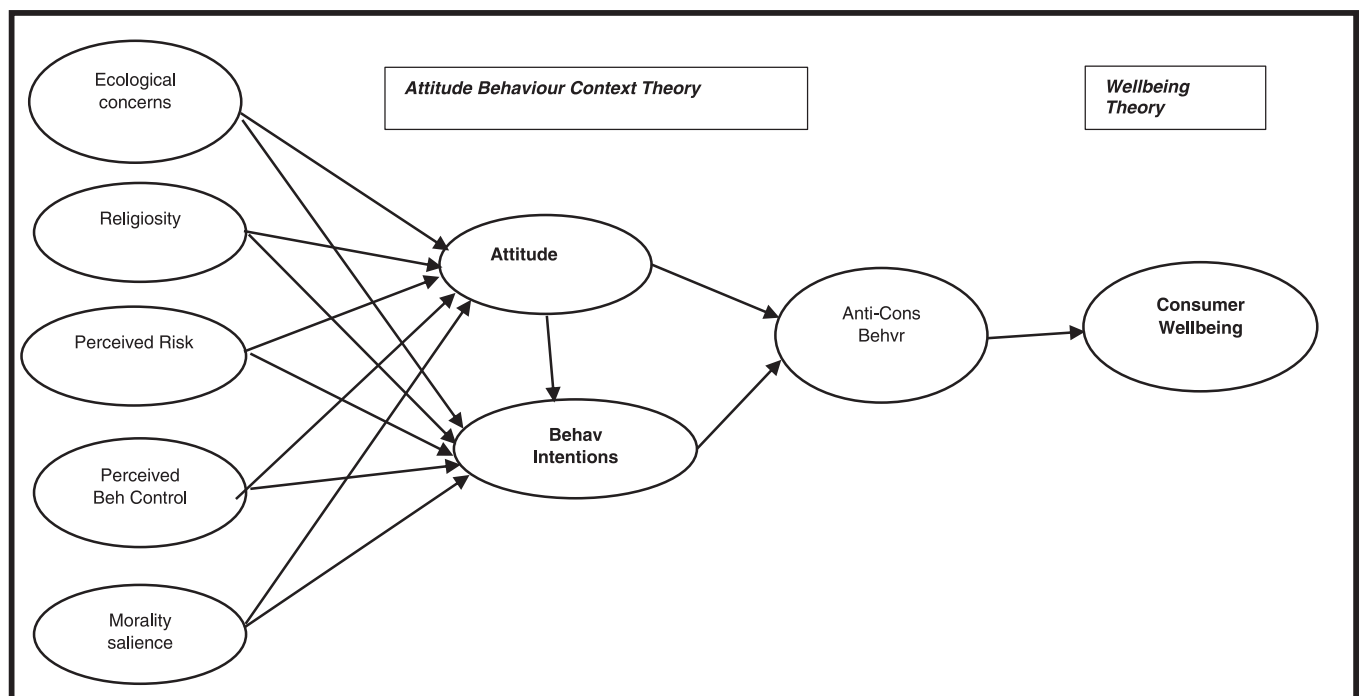


FIGURE 1 Meta-analytic framework

**TABLE 1** Variables and common aliases

Variable	Definition	Common aliases	Representative studies
Perceived Risk	Potential loss expectation and uncertainty due to a purchase decision (Chen, 2017).	Personal debt, anticipated regret, inauthenticity, disappointment	Yarimoglu et al. (2019), Nepomuceno and Laroche (2016), Kaynak and Eksi (2011)
Behavioral intentions	Conscious plan to perform or not to perform some specified future behavior (Park & Park, 2016).	–	Yarimoglu et al. (2019), Sudbury-Riley and Kohlbacher (2018)
Ecological Concerns	Individuals' concerns that their actions or purchase behavior may harm the environment or ecosystem (Kilbourne & Pickett, 2008).	Environmental ideology, environmental oriented concerns, climate change concerns, environmental consciousness, sustainability concerns.	Shahzad et al. (2019), Sudbury-Riley and Kohlbacher (2018)
Religiosity	An individual's commitment to their faith (Johnson et al., 2001).	–	Kaynak and Eksi (2011), Shahzad et al. (2019)
Anti-consumption Behavior	Consumers' resistance to, distaste of, or even resentment or rejection of consumption more generally (Seegebarth et al., 2016)	Social anti-consumption, anti-consumption lifestyle, consumer boycotts, environmentally oriented anti-consumption, boycott participation	Nepomuceno and Laroche (2016), Yoon et al. (2020), Yuksel and Mryteza (2009)
Consumer well-being	Cognitive and affective evaluation of one's life wherein one has more positive than negative feelings, experiences more pleasure than pain, and is more content than discontent with life (Balderjahn et al., 2020).	–	Balderjahn et al. (2020)
Mortality salience	Consumers' awareness of their own inevitable death (Ferraro et al., 2005).	–	Nepomuceno and Laroche (2016)
Perceived Behavioral Control	The perceived ease or difficulty of performing the behavior (Ajzen, 2002).	Perceived control	Ashraf et al. (2018)
Anti-consumption attitude	A sense of resentment or aversion toward the consumption of a given product (Zavestoski, 2002).	Attitudes, opinions	Yarimoglu et al. (2019), Shahzad et al. (2019)

**Hypothesis 1:** *Ecological concern is positively associated with (a) attitude toward and (b) intention for anti-consumption.*

### 2.5.2 | Relationship of religiosity with attitude and intention surrounding anti-consumption

In the proposed framework, religiosity is considered a contextual factor and corresponds to an individual's commitment to their faith (Johnson et al., 2001). Since religion impacts many aspects of consumers' lives, such as personality and attitude, it could be assumed that consumption behavior is also affected by religious beliefs (Cohen & Hill, 2007). Previous anti-consumption studies have identified religiosity as a motivator of anti-consumption practices, such as voluntary simplicity and resistance (Azevedo, 2020; Chowdhury, 2018; Ulusoy, 2015). Consumers' pursuit of living a simpler and religious life encourages individuals to adopt anti-consumption (Iyer & Muncy, 2009; Oral & Thurner, 2019). The literature also indicates that religiosity is positively associated with

attitudes toward anti-consumption (Duman & Ozgen, 2018; Kaynak & Eksi, 2011). Based on this discussion, this study hypothesizes that:

**Hypothesis 2:** *Religiosity is positively associated with (a) attitude toward and (b) intention for anti-consumption.*

### 2.5.3 | Relationship of perceived risk with attitude and intention surrounding anti-consumption

In our proposed framework, the third antecedent is perceived risk, which refers to potential loss expectation and uncertainty due to a purchase decision (Chen, 2017). This definition shows that perceived risk is associated with possible unpleasant outcomes of a purchase decision; in light of the ABC theory, we considered perceived risk as an attitudinal factor driving customers' anti-consumption behavior (Stern, 2000). Typically, consumers want to reduce risk when involved in uncertain exchanges (Khan & Lee, 2014). In marketing, many researchers have examined the impact of perceived risk on

consumer decision-making (Lin, 2008; Mitra et al., 1999; Yarimoglu et al., 2019). Specifically, Khan and Lee (2014) suggested that consumers tend to resist certain products or brands when perceived risk associated with a purchase is considerably high. This consumer resistance is an indicator of anti-consumption. Previous studies asserted that perceived risk largely influences attitudes toward anti-consumption as well as intention to avoid certain products or brands (Yarimoglu et al., 2019). Based on this discussion, this study hypothesizes that:

**Hypothesis 3:** *Perceived risk is positively associated with (a) attitude toward and (b) intention for anti-consumption.*

#### 2.5.4 | Relationship of perceived behavioral control with attitude and intention surrounding anti-consumption

The proposed theoretical framework also considers perceived behavioral control, which is defined as “the perceived ease or difficulty of performing the behavior” (Ajzen, 2002, p. 668). The ABC theory postulates that attitudinal factors are related to behavior-specific beliefs, such as difficulty in performing a particular behavior (Stern, 2000). Accordingly, perceived behavioral control was considered an attitudinal factor affecting customers' anti-consumption behavior. In the consumption context, perceived behavioral control is considered an important determinant of consumer behavior (Zhou et al., 2013) since it focuses on consumers' level of control on their purchase decisions (Chen, 2017). According to Ajzen (2015), people's belief in their ability to decide a behavior encourages them to perform the behavior. Thus, when people feel in control of the outcome of a situation, they exhibit positive attitudes and intentions surrounding that behavior (Sreen et al., 2018). Similarly, in the context of anti-consumption, previous studies proposed a positive relationship between perceived behavioral control and attitude and intention surrounding anti-consumption practices, such as boycott (Yuksel et al., 2020). Thus, this study hypothesizes that:

**Hypothesis 4:** *Perceived behavioral control is positively associated with (a) attitude toward and (b) intention for anti-consumption.*

#### 2.5.5 | Relationship of mortality salience with attitude and intention surrounding anti-consumption

In the proposed framework, mortality salience, refers to consumers' awareness of their inevitable death. It has been considered an attitudinal factor since people's behavioral responses change when they are made aware of their inevitable death (Ferraro et al., 2005). Mortality salience involves making people aware of inevitable death (Burke et al., 2010). When mortality is salient, a person will apply coping mechanisms to divert the resulting terror (Fritsche & Häfner, 2012). Previous studies noticed an increase in consumers'

intention for materialistic activities when mortality salience was introduced (Arndt et al., 2004; Arnett et al., 2003). Therefore, consumer research broadly concludes that mortality salience triggers consumers' materialistic tendencies (Kasser & Sheldon, 2000; Mandel & Heine, 1999). Similarly, in the context of anti-consumption, Nepomuceno and Laroche (2016) found that mortality salience negatively impacted consumers' intention to resist materialistic behavior. This indicates that mortality salience negatively affects both attitudes and intention surrounding anti-consumption, and hence, the current study hypothesizes that:

**Hypothesis 5:** *Mortality salience is negatively associated with (a) attitude toward and (b) intention for anti-consumption.*

#### 2.5.6 | Relationship between attitude and intention surrounding anti-consumption

Generally, attitude means an individual's predisposition to respond favorably or unfavorably (Maseeh et al., 2021a). In the anti-consumption context, Zavestoski (2002) defined anti-consumption attitudes as “a sense of resentment or aversion toward the consumption of a given product” (p. 121). Since divergence between attitude and behavioral intentions creates internal imbalance (Hutter & Hoffmann, 2013), numerous studies found that attitude toward a behavior positively predicts intention to perform that behavior (Chen, 2017; Riebl et al., 2015). Similarly, the anti-consumption literature suggests that attitude is a primary determinant of intention for anti-consumption (Agnoli et al., 2016). Given the key role of anti-consumption attitude in enhancing consumers' behavioral responses to anti-consumption, the current study hypothesizes that:

**Hypothesis 6:** *Anti-consumption attitude is positively associated with an intention for anti-consumption.*

#### 2.5.7 | Relationship between intention for anti-consumption and anti-consumption behavior

Many theories and models have been developed in the literature to explain consumers' behavioral intentions (BIs) since it is the best predictor of their behavior (Guo et al., 2018). For example, customers' purchase intentions are the best predictor of their purchase behavior (Park & Park, 2016; Park et al., 2005). This is because when people intend to purchase or consume a product, they are more likely to purchase the product (Antwi, 2021; De Cannière et al., 2009). Similarly, in the anti-consumption context, it has been found that consumers' intention to boycott is positively associated with their anti-consumption behavior (Seegebarth et al., 2016). Based on this discussion, it is hypothesized that:

**Hypothesis 7:** *Intention for anti-consumption is positively associated with anti-consumption behavior.*

## 2.5.8 | Relationship between anti-consumption attitude and anti-consumption behavior

During the last two decades, researchers have shown increasing interest in studying anti-consumption practices (Oral & Thurner, 2019) and have considered boycotting, sharing, brand avoidance, consumer resistance, recycling, and reusing as prominent anti-consumption practices (Kuanr et al., 2022). To successfully incorporate anti-consumption into human practice, individuals should willingly, rather than by force, reduce or reject consumption (Khan, 2017). Only an individual holding an anti-consumption attitude would consciously reduce or reject consumption of a particular product or service and practice anti-consumption behavior (Iyer & Muncy, 2009; Sharp et al., 2010). Therefore, this study hypothesizes that:

**Hypothesis 8:** *Anti-consumption attitude is positively associated with anti-consumption behavior.*

## 2.5.9 | Relationship between anti-consumption behavior and consumer well-being

Consumer well-being refers to the cognitive and affective evaluation of one's life wherein one has more positive than negative feelings, experiences more pleasure than pain, and is more content than discontented with life (Balderjahn et al., 2020). It has been the subject of interest for researchers from various disciplines, such as marketing and psychology (Furchheim et al., 2020; Pancer & Handelman, 2012). Since some studies showed a negative relationship between consumer well-being and materialism (Dittmar et al., 2014; Lee & Ahn, 2016), anti-consumption researchers commonly assume that an anti-consumption lifestyle enhances subjective well-being (Jackson, 2005; Lee & Ahn, 2016; Rich et al., 2017). In fact, a few studies demonstrate a positive association between anti-consumption behavior and subjective well-being of consumers and that of others and the environment around them (Lee & Ahn, 2016; Seegebarth et al., 2016). Based on this discussion, it is hypothesized that:

**Hypothesis 9:** *Anti-consumption behavior is positively associated with consumer well-being.*

## 2.6 | Hypotheses development for moderating effects

In the last two decades, anti-consumption research has evolved from merely studying the "dumpster living" lifestyle (Zavestoski, 2002) to a more sustainable resistance to mainstream consumption (Cherrier et al., 2011). Various studies have been conducted on anti-consumption during this period; however, wide inconsistencies have been observed across these studies in terms of effect size of variables

affecting anti-consumption behavior. Meta-analysts suggest that the variation in research design artifacts can be a possible reason for these inconsistencies (Ashaduzzaman et al., 2022; Lewin & Donthu, 2005; Maseeh et al., 2021b). A moderation analysis enables researchers to identify the possible reasons for inconsistencies in the effect sizes across the studies included in a meta-analysis (Van Vaerenbergh et al., 2014). Our review of the anti-consumption literature showed that a few study-specific factors, such as country where the empirical study was conducted (developing vs. developed), product type (food vs. others), data collection period (before 2010 vs. during and after 2010), sample type (student vs. others) and research methods (survey vs. experiment) can moderate the relationship between the variables included in the proposed model. Accordingly, we examined the moderating effects of these research design artifacts on the relationship between contextual and attitudinal variables, that is, attitude, intention, behavior around anti-consumption, and consumer well-being. The following sections provide an explanation for the moderating effects of each of these moderators.

### 2.6.1 | Country of study

The findings of empirical research may vary depending on the country's developmental status (Makri et al., 2020). Previous anti-consumption studies pointed out the importance of understanding the differences in anti-consumption practices, such as consumer resistance, across countries (Makri et al., 2020) rather than attempting to generalize anti-consumption practices to the whole consumer society (Holt, 2002). Several studies have reported that consumers in developed countries are more environmentally oriented and have greater concerns about climate change (Chowdhury & Samuel, 2014; Filieri et al., 2021; Verma & Chandra, 2018). Lasarov et al. (2019) found that the adoption of anti-consumption behavior is much faster in developed countries because of heightened environmental concerns among consumers in such countries. Thus, it is expected that the relationships among the contextual and attitudinal variables, attitudes, intentions, behavior around anti-consumption, and consumer well-being are stronger in developed countries than in developing countries. Accordingly, it is hypothesized that:

**Hypothesis 10:** *The relationship between contextual and attitudinal variables, attitudes, intentions, behavior around anti-consumption, and consumer well-being is stronger in studies conducted in developed countries than in developing countries.*

### 2.6.2 | Product type

Anti-consumption has been studied in multidisciplinary contexts, ranging from food products (Farah & Shahzad, 2020; Sekhon & Armstrong Soule, 2020), green products (Sudbury-Riley & Kohlbacher, 2018), debt-free living (Balderjahn et al., 2020) to



shopping bags (Chang & Chou, 2018). However, the effect of contextual (e.g., environmental concern, and religiosity) and attitudinal (e.g., perceived behavioral control and perceived health risk) factors on anti-consumption practices is stronger in the food consumption contexts than in the consumption contexts of other products. Further, consumers voluntarily restrict their over-consumption of food products to avoid health risks (Farah & Shahzad, 2020). Therefore, consumers tend to adopt stronger anti-consumption measures in the food consumption contexts than in the consumption of other products. Thus, the association between the contextual and attitudinal variables, attitude, intention, behavior around anti-consumption, and consumer well-being is expected to be stronger in the studies focusing on food products than in the studies focusing on other products. Thus, we considered the type of product, that is, food products versus others, as a moderating variable and accordingly, propose the following hypothesis.

**Hypothesis 11:** *The relationship between contextual and attitudinal variables, attitude, intention, behavior around anti-consumption, and consumer well-being is stronger in the studies conducted on food products than in the studies conducted on other products.*

### 2.6.3 | Data collection period

Although research on anti-consumption started in early 2000 when Zavestoski (2002, p. 121) proposed a definition for the concept of anti-consumption, the number of publications on this concept significantly increased in 2010 after a special issue appeared on anti-consumption in the *Journal of Business Research* in 2009. This special issue triggered the interest of researchers in anti-consumption and published several papers in this domain from highly influential authors. A recent literature review article by Makri et al. (2020) showed a significant growth in the number of articles on anti-consumption from 2010 onwards. During and after 2009, six special issues appeared on anti-consumption in reputable journals: *Journal of Business Research* (2009), *Consumption, Markets and Culture* (2010), *Journal of Consumer Behavior* (2010), *European Journal of Marketing* (2011), *Journal of Consumer Affairs* (2016) and *Journal of Public Policy and Marketing* (2018). Thus, the theoretical underpinnings and the data around anti-consumption research witnessed widespread development after 2010. Notably, in early 2000, anti-consumption research included sustainable, green, and ethical consumption, but post-2009, the concept widened and included voluntary simplicity, boycotts/consumer activism, and product and brand avoidance. Therefore, the theoretical underpinnings of anti-consumption research as well as relationships among the constructs reported in the anti-consumption literature were well-defined post-2009 than in the early 2000s. Thus, considering the period of data collection, that is, before 2009 and during and after 2010, as a moderating variable, it is hypothesized that:

**Hypothesis 12:** *The relationship between contextual and attitudinal variables, attitude, intention, behavior around anti-consumption,*

*and consumer well-being is stronger in the studies conducted during and post-2010 than before 2010.*

### 2.6.4 | Research methods

In a meta-analysis context, the relationship between the constructs can be moderated by research methods used in the primary studies considered for meta-analysis (Lewin & Donthu, 2005; List & Gallet, 2001; Maseeh et al., 2021a; Murphy et al., 2005). While some anti-consumption studies used the survey method (e.g., Balderjahn et al., 2020; Seegebarth et al., 2016; Yoon et al., 2020), some other studies used the experimental approach (e.g., Nepomuceno & Laroche, 2016; Sekhon & Soule, 2020; Yuksel et al., 2020). However, previous meta-analysis studies suggest that experimental studies have stronger effect sizes because this study approach enables greater control over scenarios involving different groups (Hedges & Olkin, 1985; Maseeh et al., 2021a). Therefore, we expect a stronger relationship among the variables of the proposed model in the experimental studies than in the survey-based studies. Accordingly, considering the research method, that is, survey versus experiment, as a moderating variable, it is hypothesized that:

**Hypothesis 13:** *The relationship between contextual and attitudinal variables, intention, attitude, behavior around anti-consumption, and consumer well-being is stronger in the studies using the experimental method than in the studies using the survey method.*

### 2.6.5 | Sample type

According to Fern and Monroe (1996), research findings can vary depending on the sample type (e.g., student or nonstudent) used in a study. Past anti-consumption studies suggest that students naturally find pleasure in purchasing rather than avoiding the purchase (Seegebarth et al., 2016). Further, students are more likely to be selfish when deciding to buy something (Belot et al., 2015). Therefore, students may not value an anti-consumption lifestyle (Seegebarth et al., 2016). Thus, this study hypothesized that:

**Hypothesis 14:** *The relationship between contextual and attitudinal variables, intention, attitude, behavior around anti-consumption, and consumer well-being is stronger in the studies based on nonstudent samples than in the studies based on student samples.*

## 3 | METHODOLOGY

The meta-analysis approach allows investigation into relationship(s) between the variables under consideration (Ashaduzzaman et al., 2022; Barari et al., 2021; Jaramillo et al., 2005; Lipsey & Wilson, 2001; Paul & Barari, 2022; Paydas Turan, 2021; Rana & Paul, 2020; Trappey, 1996). As such, we adopted a meta-analytical

approach to examine the impact of widely studied factors on customers' attitude, intention, and behavior relating to anti-consumption. A search was conducted to access the relevant scholarly literature in the anti-consumption domain. The following section explains the search strategy adopted for this meta-analysis.

### 3.1 | Literature search

In systematic literature reviews and meta-analyses, researchers need to perform a thorough literature search process (Adil et al., 2022; Barari et al., 2021; Barari et al., 2022; Bindra et al., 2022; Hassan et al., 2022; Maseeh et al., 2021b; Paul & Barari, 2022; Paul & Benito, 2018; Paul & Criado, 2020; Paul & Feliciano-Cestero, 2021; Paul et al., 2021). Thus, the literature search process for our meta-review involved five steps. The first step was the selection of databases to search for published articles. Accordingly, several online databases, that is, Academia, Emerald Group Publishing, Gale Academic OneFile, JSTOR, Research Gate, Sage Publications, ScienceDirect, Scopus, Taylor and Francis, Web of Science, and Springer were selected (Jebarajakirthy et al., 2021; Shankar et al., 2022). The second step was the identification of keywords to search for relevant literature. We used "anti-consumption," "antic-onsumption," "anti consumption," "anticonsumption activities," "antic-onsumption behavior," "consumer boycott," "against consumption," "against consumerism," "restrict consumption," "restrict consumerism," "reject consumption," "reject consumerism," "consumer resistance," "voluntary simplification," "voluntary simplified," "voluntary simplicity," "brand avoidance," "product avoidance," and "symbolic consumption" as keywords to search for the relevant literature available on the selected databases. In the third step, using those keywords, we accessed the ProQuest database to retrieve relevant dissertations and theses. In the fourth step, a search process was performed using those keywords in SSCI<sup>1</sup> and SSRN<sup>2</sup> websites to access any unpublished studies. Also, a call was put on ELMAR<sup>3</sup> to mitigate the possibility of missing any unpublished studies or working papers on anti-consumption (Maseeh et al., 2021a; Zlatevska et al., 2014). Finally, we performed a search process using the same keywords on Google and Google Scholar search engines. A total of 403 papers were retrieved from the search process.

### 3.2 | Eligibility criteria

In systematic literature reviews and meta-analyses, researchers are required to define eligibility criteria to shortlist the appropriate articles (Adil et al., 2022; Barari et al., 2022; Dabić et al., 2022; Gilal et al., 2022; Paul et al., 2021; Rana & Paul, 2020; Shree et al., 2021). Accordingly, we developed eligibility criteria to select the articles for

this meta-analysis. For eligibility, articles (1) should have been written in the English language, (2) should be scholarly work, either published (i.e., journal articles) or unpublished (e.g., working papers) (3) should focus on anti-consumption, (4) should be quantitative, and (5) should report correlation values ( $r$ ) or other statistics, such as  $F$  ratios and  $t$ -statistics, that can be used to calculate correlation coefficients. A total of 403 articles were accessed from the selected databases using the specified keywords. Duplicate articles, that is, any article downloaded more than once from online databases, were identified and excluded. At this stage, 274 articles were discarded. Eligibility criteria were then applied to select the appropriate articles for meta-analysis.

The first criterion was that articles should have been written in the English language. Accordingly, of the remaining 129 records, 17 were not in English and therefore were discarded. The second eligibility criterion was employed on the remaining 112 records to remove 31 non-scholarly works, such as newspaper articles, magazine articles, or blogs. The third eligibility criterion related to the articles with respect to their area of study is anti-consumption. Accordingly, 17 papers were excluded from the remaining 81 articles because they were not anti-consumption. Of the remaining 64 relevant articles, 13 were not quantitative papers and were removed. Next, we employed the fifth and final eligibility criterion; four articles that did not report the correlation coefficients ( $r$ ) or other statistics, such as  $F$  ratios and  $t$ -statistics, that can be used to calculate correlation coefficients, were excluded. As a result, 47 research papers were deemed appropriate for this meta-analysis. This number is consistent with the number of papers considered for previous meta-analyses published in reputable journals (e.g., Ismagilova et al., 2020; Maseeh et al., 2021a; Moldes & Ku, 2020; Rana & Paul, 2020). Figure 2 shows the process of the literature search and inclusion/exclusion of articles.

### 3.3 | Coding

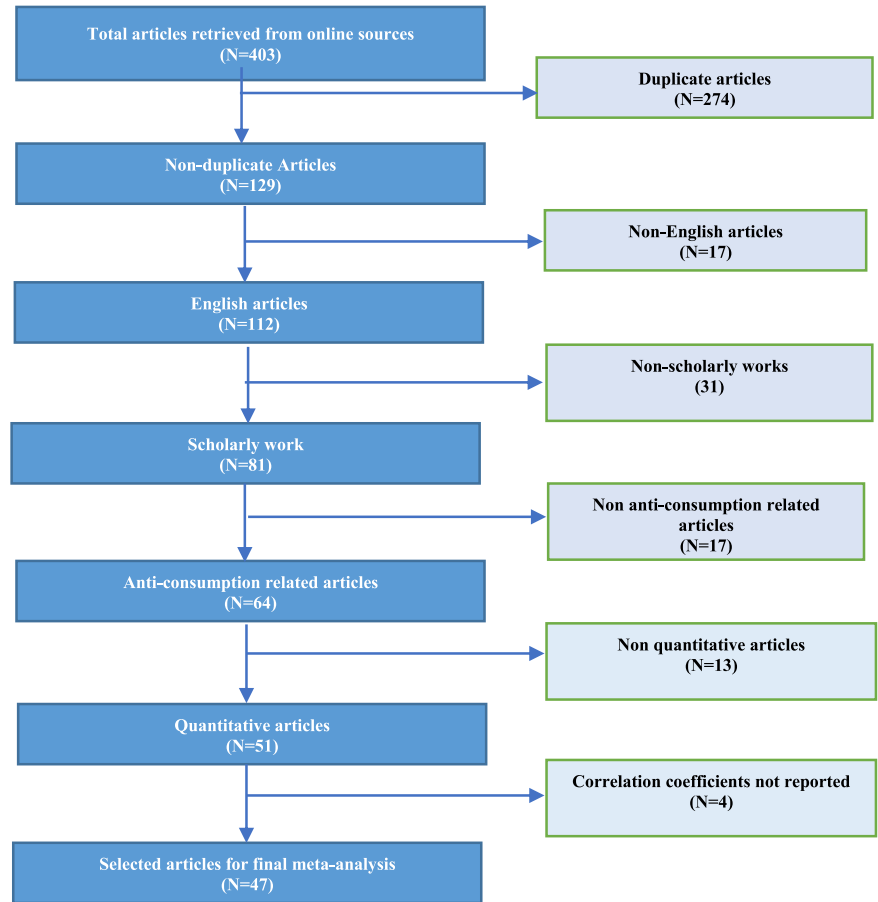
After employing the eligibility criteria, 47 papers were considered for this meta-analysis. The included studies were conducted in 16 countries and were based on the data collected from 22,650 respondents.

A coding process was performed on the selected 47 studies before proceeding into the meta-analysis. During the literature review, some variables were found to have similar definitions and researchers had used similar measurement items to measure those constructs; however, they had been given different names. For example, *consumer boycott* (Yuksel & Mryteza, 2009) and *anti-consumption behavior* (Dursun & Tümer Kabadayi, 2013) have similar definitions and meanings within the anti-consumption context, and had been measured using similar items but were given different names in the papers. Following the best meta-analytic practices (e.g., Palmatier et al., 2006; Rosengren et al., 2020), we coded such variables based on their definitions, meanings, and measurement items provided in the literature.

<sup>1</sup>Social Science Citation Index.

<sup>2</sup>Social Science Research Network.

<sup>3</sup>Electronic List for Marketing Academics and Researchers.

**FIGURE 2** Literature search and inclusion/exclusion criteria

### 3.4 | Meta-analysis procedure

#### 3.4.1 | Publication bias

Since publication bias can affect the validity of the findings of a meta-analysis (Borenstein et al., 2011; McShane et al., 2016; Roehr, 2012; Scargle, 1999), researchers suggest assessing publication bias when conducting a meta-analysis. Accordingly, we assessed the publication bias using three methods: funnel plots (Song et al., 2012), fail-safe  $N$  (Rosenthal, 1979), and Egger's test (Zaremohzzabieh et al., 2021). In the first method, that is, funnel plots,  $r$  values are plotted on the X-axis while the index of precision (i.e.,  $1/\text{standard error}$ ) is plotted on the Y-axis. A symmetrical funnel plot indicates the absence of publication bias (Maseeh et al., 2021a; Song et al., 2012). The observation of the funnel plots showed that they were all symmetric indicating that this meta-analysis does not suffer from publication bias.

Calculating fail-safe  $N$  was the second method used to assess publication bias (Rosenthal, 1979). In a meta-analysis, fail-safe  $N$  values indicate the number of unpublished studies required to increase the  $p$  value above 0.05 thereby nullifying the meta-analytic results (Lipsey & Wilson, 2001). For this meta-analysis, the sum of fail-safe  $N$  values for all the bivariate relationships was 4155 (see Table 3). This indicates that the results of this meta-analysis can be nullified only if 4155 studies report nonsignificant relationships

between the constructs examined in this study. To further test the potential for publication bias, following the recommendation outlined by meta-analysts (e.g., Copas & Malley, 2008; Rücker et al., 2008), we performed Egger's test, which assesses a linear association between the intervention effect and its standard error (Egger et al., 1997; Rothstein et al., 2005). The  $p$  values for all the bivariate relationships were nonsignificant, that is, above 0.05 (see Table 3) indicating the absence of any significant publication bias (Zaremohzzabieh et al., 2021).

#### 3.4.2 | Statistical power test

Consistent with prior meta-analysis studies published in reputable journals (e.g., Ellis, 2010; Maseeh et al., 2021a), statistical power was calculated for all the meta-analytic relationships to identify the possibility of the presence of a Type II error, that is, not rejecting a null hypothesis (Maseeh et al., 2021a). Accordingly, we performed a statistical power test using the recommendations of Muncer et al. (2003). Consistent with the literature (Maseeh et al., 2021a; Van Vaerenbergh et al., 2014), we calculated two statistical powers for each association. To calculate the first statistical power, we considered the total sample size, that is, the cumulative sample size in the studies reporting an association. The second statistical power was

calculated using the product of the sample size divided by the number of studies in each bivariate association.

### 3.4.3 | Bivariate analysis

Most studies selected for this meta-analysis reported correlation coefficients as effect sizes. We used the correlation coefficient ( $r$ ) as the effect size metric. If a study did not report a correlation matrix, other statistics, such as beta coefficient ( $\beta$ ), were used to calculate<sup>4</sup> the correlation values (Maseeh et al., 2021a; Peterson & Brown, 2005). High correlation values indicate a stronger association between two variables, while a low correlation value shows a weaker association between two variables.

To examine the bivariate association between the variables, we calculated simple average correlations ( $r+$ ), and measurement and sampling error-corrected correlations ( $\rho$ ) for each hypothesized relationship. Accordingly, we used a random effect meta-analysis model to correct  $r$  values for measurement and saGrewal et al., 2018mpling error (Chang & Taylor, 2016; Franke & Park, 2006; Kirca et al., 2005; Zablah et al., 2012). For this, first, we divided  $r$  values by the product of the square-root of the reliabilities ( $\alpha$ )<sup>5</sup> (Hunter & Schmidt, 2004; Maseeh et al., 2021a). If the reliability coefficients were not reported in a study, we used an average reliability across all the studies for that variable (Geyskens et al., 1998).

Next, we transformed the reliability-corrected  $r$  into Fisher's  $Z$ . Finally, after averaging and weighting Fisher's  $Z$  by the estimate of the inverse of their variance, we converted them back into correlation coefficients (Hedges & Olkin, 2014). The (in)significance of  $\rho$  was determined by 95% confidence intervals (Hunter & Schmidt, 2004). Following the guidelines of Borenstein et al.

<sup>4</sup>Equations to convert other statistical values to  $r$ :

If normalized  $\beta$  coefficient or non-standardized regression coefficient  $b$  and standard deviation  $\sigma$  are reported to show the relationship between (a) one independent variable and one dependent variable; then

$$(i) \quad r = \beta; \beta = b \times \sigma_x / \sigma_y$$

b) two independent variables and one dependent variable

$$(ii) \quad r_{y1} = \beta_1(1 - r_{12}^2) + r_{y2}r_{12}; r_{y2} = \beta_2(1 - r_{12}^2) + r_{y1}r_{12}$$

If only  $\beta$  is reported;

$$(iii) \quad r = 0.98\beta + 0.05\lambda \quad (\lambda \text{ is the indicator variable, and when } \beta \geq 0, \lambda = 1, \text{ otherwise } \lambda = 0)$$

If only  $t$  is reported and there is one independent variable for a dependent variable;

$$(iv) \quad r = \sqrt{t^2/t^2 + df} \quad [df \text{ is the degrees of freedom}] \text{ If } t \text{ and standard error (SE) are reported;}$$

$$(v) \quad b = t \times SE \quad [r \text{ can be calculated using Equation (i)}]$$

If  $f$  values are reported;

$$(vi) \quad r = \sqrt{F/F + df} \quad [df \text{ is the degrees of freedom}]$$

<sup>5</sup>If  $\alpha$  values were not reported in a study, composite reliability (CR) was used as the reliability coefficient (Peterson & Kim, 2013).

(2011), if the confidence intervals for a  $\rho$  did not include "0," we considered it significant ( $p < 0.05$ ).

### 3.4.4 | Assessment of homogeneity

As Paul and Barari (2022) suggested, the variance in the effect sizes was examined using a heterogeneity analysis. For this, the values for the degree of heterogeneity ( $I^2$ ) and the observed variance ( $Q$  statistics) were calculated to assess whether the included studies were heterogeneous or homogeneous<sup>6</sup> (Borenstein et al., 2011; Higgins & Thompson, 2002; Higgins et al., 2003; Huedo-Medina et al., 2006). Using the benchmark suggested by Higgins et al. (2003),  $I^2$  values below 25%, between 25% and 50%, and above 50% indicate low, moderate, and high levels of heterogeneity in the effect sizes, respectively.

### 3.4.5 | Causal model estimation

Following the guidelines outlined by Paul and Barari (2022) and Barari et al. (2022), this study uses meta-analysis structural equation modeling (MASEM) for model estimation. For this, a meta-analytically derived pooled correlation matrix was developed. We used AMOS 27 software to perform MASEM. Consistent with previous meta-studies (e.g., Maseeh et al., 2021a), the mean and standard deviation values were set to 0 and 1, respectively, to estimate the model fitness.

### 3.4.6 | Moderation analysis

Consistent with previous meta-analysis studies (e.g., Barari et al., 2022), we performed a meta-regression to assess the moderation of potential moderators on the relationship between the variables in our model. The categorization, operationalization, and coding scheme of the moderators are presented in Table 2. Beta coefficients were calculated for each moderator to determine the impact of the moderator on each hypothesized relationship.

## 4 | RESULTS

### 4.1 | Results of bivariate analysis

The results of the bivariate meta-analysis are presented in Table 3. The results show that ecological concerns, religiosity, perceived risk,

<sup>6</sup>The following equations were used to assess the heterogeneity:

$$Q = \sum_{i=1}^n W_i (T_i - M)^2$$

$$M = \sum (W_i T_i) / \sum W_i$$

$$I^2 = \frac{Q - df}{Q} \times 100\%$$

$W_i$  = sample size for the  $i$ th study

$T_i$  = effect size for the  $i$ th study

$M$  = summary effect.

**TABLE 2** Moderators

Moderator	Operationalization	Coding (number of studies)
<b>Country of the study</b>	Whether the data were collected from a developing country or a developed country	0 = developing (16); 1 = developed (31)
Developing		
Developed		
<b>Sample type</b>	Whether the data were collected from students or general population	0 = students (12); 1 = general (35)
Student		
General		
<b>Type of product</b>	Whether the study is focused on food products or other products	0 = food (14); 1 = other (33)
Food		
Other		
<b>Research methods</b>	Whether the study is survey-based or experiment-based	0 = survey (37); 1 = experiment (10)
Survey		
Experiment		
<b>Period of data collection</b>	Whether the data were collected before 2010 or during and after 2010	0 = before 2010 (7); 1 = during and after 2010 (40)
Before 2010		
During and after 2010		

perceived behavioral control, and mortality salience have a significant relationship with anti-consumption attitude ( $\rho_{\text{ecological concerns}} = 0.43^{***}$ ,  $\rho_{\text{religiosity}} = 0.39^{***}$ ,  $\rho_{\text{risk}} = 0.11^{***}$ ,  $\rho_{\text{behavioral control}} = 0.35^{***}$ ,  $\rho_{\text{mortality salience}} = -0.14^{***}$ ) and with anti-consumption intention ( $\rho_{\text{ecological concerns}} = 0.36^{***}$ ,  $\rho_{\text{religiosity}} = 0.45^{***}$ ,  $\rho_{\text{risk}} = 0.13^{***}$ ,  $\rho_{\text{behavioral control}} = 0.40^{***}$ ,  $\rho_{\text{mortality salience}} = -0.20^{***}$ ). Table 3 further shows a significant association between attitude and intention ( $\rho = 0.58^{***}$ ), intention and behavior ( $\rho = 0.34^{***}$ ), attitude and behavior ( $\rho = 0.38^{***}$ ), and behavior and well-being ( $\rho = 0.27^{***}$ ).

Table 3 also shows the number of missing studies: fail-safe  $N$  values and the  $p$  values for Egger's test. The fail-safe  $N$  values for all the hypothesized relationships are above the benchmark,<sup>7</sup> therefore, the findings of this meta-analysis do not suffer from publication bias (Maseeh et al., 2021a; Rosenthal, 1986). Moreover, the mean value for fail-safe  $N$  across all the hypothesized relationships is approximately 296: an average number of missing studies for each hypothesized relationship. This shows that, on average, 296 studies are required against each relationship to nullify the results of this meta-analysis. Further, the  $p$  values for Egger's test for all the bivariate relationships are greater than 0.05, indicating no significant publication bias.

Finally, following the suggestions of previous meta-studies published in reputable journals (e.g., Maseeh et al., 2021a), we determined the possibility of Type II errors by calculating statistical

power values. Table 3 shows that the statistical power values are well above the threshold values of 0.5 (Ellis, 2010) indicating that our study has sufficient power to conclude meaningful results (Maseeh et al., 2021a).

## 4.2 | Results of MASEM

Consistent with previous meta-analyses (e.g., Maseeh et al., 2021a), a MASEM was performed using the correlation matrix (see Table 4) to test the proposed hypotheses. The results showed that the hypothesized model fits the data well with at least two indices meeting the criteria, that is,  $\chi^2(12) = 8.406$ ,  $p < 0.000$ , root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) = 0.154, standardized root mean square residual (SRMR) = 0.104, goodness of fit index (GFI) = 0.950, and composite fit index (CFI) = 0.900. Hu and Bentler (1999) suggested that at least two of the goodness of fit indices should be satisfactory. Using this criterion, GFI and CFI support the model. This approach is consistent with the previous meta-analysis published in reputable journals (e.g., Kumar et al., 2021).

The results of the causal model estimation are presented in Table 5. The results show a significant positive impact of ecological concerns, religiosity, and perceived behavioral control on anti-consumption attitudes ( $\beta_{\text{ecological concerns}} = 0.30^{**}$ ,  $\beta_{\text{religiosity}} = 0.41^*$ ,  $\beta_{\text{behavioral control}} = 0.29^*$ ) thereby supporting H1a, H2a, and H4a while mortality salience had a significant negative effect on anti-consumption attitude ( $\beta_{\text{mortality salience}} = -0.44^*$ ), supporting H5a. However, the influence of perceived risk on anti-consumption attitude is nonsignificant ( $\beta_{\text{risk}} = 0.01$ ,  $p > 0.05$ ), therefore, H3a is not supported.

Table 5 shows a significant positive impact of ecological concerns, religiosity, perceived behavioral control, and attitude on anti-consumption intention ( $\beta_{\text{ecological concerns}} = 0.14^{**}$ ,  $\beta_{\text{religiosity}} = 0.45^{**}$ ,  $\beta_{\text{behavioral control}} = 0.35^{**}$ ,  $\beta_{\text{attitude}} = 0.15^*$ ) thereby supporting H1b, H2b, H4b, and H6. Mortality salience had a significant negative impact on anti-consumption intention ( $\beta_{\text{mortality salience}} = -0.49^*$ ), which supports H5b. However, the impact of perceived risk on anti-consumption intention is nonsignificant ( $\beta_{\text{risk}} = 0.04$ ,  $p > 0.05$ ), therefore, H3b is not supported.

Concerning the results of H7 and H8, Table 5 shows a significant impact of anti-consumption intention and anti-consumption attitude on anti-consumption behavior ( $\beta_{\text{intention}} = 0.18^*$ ,  $\beta_{\text{attitude}} = 0.28^{**}$ ), thereby supporting both H7 and H8. For H9, the findings show a significant impact of anti-consumption behavior on consumer well-being ( $\beta_{\text{behavior}} = 0.27^*$ ); thus, H9 is also supported.

## 4.3 | Results of heterogeneity analysis

Table 6 presents the results of heterogeneity analysis, which shows that the  $Q$  statistics for all the hypothesized relationships are significant suggesting a variance in all the bivariate relationships.

<sup>7</sup>fail-safe  $N > 5k + 10$ .

**TABLE 3** Results of bivariate analysis

Bivariate relationship	No. of studies	N	$r^+$	$\rho$	95% CI		Publication bias		Statistical power <sup>a</sup>	Statistical power <sup>b</sup>
					Lower	Upper	Fail safe N	Egger's test		
Ecological concerns → Attitude	8	3664	0.42	0.43***	0.34	0.50	334	0.45	>0.999	>0.999
Religiosity → Attitude	6	2198	0.38	0.39***	0.10	0.52	51	0.62	>0.999	>0.999
Perceived risk → Attitude	16	6187	0.10	0.11***	0.05	0.41	410	0.16	>0.999	0.700
Perceived behavioral control → Attitude	11	3057	0.32	0.35***	0.14	0.53	151	0.57	>0.999	0.997
Mortality salience → Attitude	8	4967	-0.11	-0.14***	-0.31	-0.01	74	0.48	>0.999	0.969
Ecological concerns → Intention	6	4036	0.32	0.36***	0.24	0.46	138	0.19	>0.999	>0.999
Religiosity → Intention	6	2026	0.44	0.45***	0.24	0.60	64	0.54	>0.999	>0.999
Perceived risk → Intention	12	4573	0.11	0.13***	0.08	0.23	265	0.12	>0.999	0.818
Perceived behavioral control → Intention	17	7959	0.38	0.40***	0.23	0.54	157	0.87	>0.999	>0.999
Mortality salience → Intention	9	3004	-0.19	-0.20***	-0.41	-0.05	163	0.88	>0.999	0.981
Attitude → Intention	24	13891	0.52	0.58***	0.14	0.62	1978	0.80	>0.999	>0.999
Intention → Behavior	14	5284	0.33	0.34***	0.17	0.42	166	0.12	>0.999	>0.999
Attitude → Behavior	11	5023	0.36	0.38***	0.21	0.53	148	0.96	>0.999	>0.999
Behavior → well-being	7	2475	0.26	0.27***	0.08	0.44	56	0.82	>0.999	0.998

Note: N = sample size,  $r^+$  = simple average correlation,  $\rho$  = correlation corrected for measurement and sampling error, CI = confidence interval.

\*\*\* $p < 0.001$ .

<sup>a</sup>Statistical power is calculated using cumulative sample size.

<sup>b</sup>Cumulative sample size was divided by the number of studies in each bivariate relationship and the product was used as sample size to calculate statistical power.

**TABLE 4** Correlation matrix

	ECN	RSK	RLG	PBC	MTL	INT	ATT	BHR	WLB
ECN	1								
RSK	0.24	1							
RLG	0.27	0.237	1						
PBC	0.35	0.25	0.22	1					
MTL	0.19	0.303	0.37	0.32	1				
INT	0.36	0.13	0.45	0.4	-0.2	1			
ATT	0.43	0.11	0.39	0.35	-0.14	0.58	1		
BHR	0.18	0.18	0.374	0.23	0.24	0.34	0.38	1	
WLB	0.35	0.22	0.26	0.25	0.29	0.17	0.22	0.27	1

Note: ECN—ecological concern; RSK—perceived risks; RLG—religiosity; PBC—perceived behavioral control; MTL—mortality salience; INT—intention; ATT—attitude; BHR—behavior; WLB—well-being.

**TABLE 5** Results of path analysis

Hypothesis	Independent variable	→	Dependent variable	Estimate	LCI	UCI	p Value
H1a	Ecological concerns	→	Attitude	0.30	0.218	0.413	**
H2a	Religiosity	→	Attitude	0.41	0.272	0.471	*
H3a	Perceived risk	→	Attitude	0.01	-0.097	0.078	>0.05
H4a	Perceived behavioral control	→	Attitude	0.29	0.156	0.379	*
H5a	Mortality salience	→	Attitude	-0.44	-0.520	-0.349	*
H1b	Ecological concerns	→	Behavioral intention	0.14	0.059	0.224	**
H2b	Religiosity	→	Behavioral intention	0.45	0.366	0.548	**
H3b	Perceived risk	→	Behavioral intention	0.04	-0.037	0.109	>0.05
H4b	Perceived behavioral control	→	Behavioral intention	0.35	0.269	0.470	**
H5b	Mortality salience	→	Behavioral intention	-0.49	-0.587	-0.391	*
H6	Attitude	→	Behavioral intention	0.15	0.059	0.250	*
H7	Behavioral intention	→	Anti-consumption behavior	0.18	0.046	0.229	*
H8	Attitude	→	Anti-consumption behavior	0.28	0.160	0.393	**
H9	Anti-consumption behavior	→	Consumer well-being	0.27	0.165	0.362	*

Note: LCI, lower bound of confidence interval; UCI, upper bound of confidence interval.

\* $p < 0.05$ ; \*\* $p < 0.01$ ;  $p > 0.05$  = nonsignificant.

**TABLE 6** Results of heterogeneity analysis

Bivariate relationship	No. of studies	N	Q	I <sup>2</sup> (%)
Ecological concerns → Attitude	8	3664	45.54***	84.63
Religiosity → Attitude	6	2198	533.95***	99.10
Perceived risk → Attitude	16	6187	670.44***	97.76
Perceived behavioral control → Attitude	11	3057	319.33***	96.87
Mortality salience → Attitude	8	4967	647.78***	98.92
Ecological concerns → Intention	6	4036	28.53***	82.48
Religiosity → Intention	6	2026	76.84***	93.49
Perceived risk → Intention	12	4573	241.61***	95.45
Perceived behavioral control → Intention	17	7959	983.69***	98.37
Mortality salience → Intention	9	3004	236.67***	96.62
Attitude → Intention	24	13891	3568.96***	99.36
Intention → Behavior	14	5284	904.42***	98.56
Attitude → Behavior	11	5023	88.37***	88.68
Behavior → well-being	7	2475	63.65***	90.57

Note: N = sample size, Q = the observed variance, I<sup>2</sup> = the degree of heterogeneity.

\*\*\* $p < 0.001$ .

The significance of Q statistics indicates that the heterogeneity is not caused only by sampling error; thus, some other factors (i.e., moderators) might cause such variance. Further, the I<sup>2</sup> values for all the bivariate relationships are above 80%,<sup>8</sup> which shows a high level of heterogeneity in the effect sizes, thereby indicating the need for a moderation analysis.

#### 4.4 | Results of moderation analysis

We performed a meta-regression to examine the moderation of country of the study (developing vs. developed), product type (other products vs. food products), data collection period (before 2010 vs. during and after 2010), research methods (survey vs. experiment), and sample type (student sample vs. nonstudent sample) on the relationships between study constructs. The results of the meta-regression are presented in Table 7.<sup>9</sup>

As expected, the results of H10, that is, the moderating effect of country of the study on the associations between study constructs, the findings suggested that the relationship between most of the contextual and attitudinal variables, attitude, intention, behavior around anti-consumption and consumer well-being is significantly stronger in the studies conducted in developed countries than in the

<sup>8</sup>Benchmark: Below 25%=Low; 25%-50%=Medium; Above 50%=High (Higgins et al., 2003).

<sup>9</sup>Since the causal model estimation showed a nonsignificant relationship for H2a and H2b, we did not perform a moderation analysis on these relationships, accordingly, the moderation of country of the study, product type, data collection period, research methods, and sample type on these relationships could not be tested.

TABLE 7 Results of moderation analysis

Bivariate relationship	Country of study		Product type		Data collection period		Research methods		Sample type	
	H10	H11	H11	H11	H12	H13	H13	H14	H14	H14
	Developing countries ( $\beta^0$ )	Developed countries ( $\beta^1$ )	Other products ( $\beta^0$ )	Food products ( $\beta^1$ )	Before 2010 ( $\beta^0$ )	During and after 2010 ( $\beta^1$ )	Survey ( $\beta^0$ )	Experiment ( $\beta^1$ )	Student ( $\beta^0$ )	Nonstudent ( $\beta^1$ )
Ecological concerns → Attitude	0.41	0.55	0.25	0.44	0.13	0.40	0.20	0.37	0.41	0.54
Religiosity → Attitude	0.92	0.21	0.37	0.65	0.51	0.72	0.10	0.97	0.55	0.63
Perceived risk → Attitude	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Perceived behavioral control → Attitude	0.25	0.57	0.26	0.45	0.12	0.57	0.15	0.44	0.21	0.39
Mortality salience → Attitude	-0.15	-0.46	-0.33	-0.41	-0.29	-0.36	-0.25	-0.39	-0.35	-0.14
Ecological concerns → Intention	0.19	0.30	0.18	0.29	0.12	0.27	0.18	0.33	0.12	0.28
Religiosity → Intention	0.59	0.24	0.26	0.45	0.10	0.37	0.43	0.54	0.16	0.42
Perceived risk → Intention	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Perceived behavioral control → Intention	0.27	0.46	0.17	0.36	0.11	0.39	0.28	0.56	0.22	0.41
Mortality salience → Intention	-0.30	-0.64	-0.34	-0.67	-0.55	-0.87	-0.58	-0.85	-0.63	-0.49
Attitude → Intention	0.16	0.38	0.18	0.28	0.23	0.58	0.19	0.57	0.27	0.49
Intention → Behavior	0.10	0.21	0.11	0.30	0.06	0.12	0.12	0.28	0.13	0.47
Attitude → Behavior	0.14	0.25	0.19	0.26	0.14	0.42	0.08	0.36	0.14	0.21
Behavior → well-being	0.17	0.38	0.25	0.33	0.60	0.74	0.23	0.33	0.11	0.38

Note: All beta values are significant @  $p < 0.05$ .



studies conducted in developing countries ( $\beta^1_{\text{Ecological concerns} \rightarrow \text{Attitude}} = 0.55$ ;  $\beta^1_{\text{Perceived behavioral control} \rightarrow \text{Attitude}} = 0.57$ ;  $\beta^1_{\text{Mortality salience} \rightarrow \text{Attitude}} = -0.46$ ;  $\beta^1_{\text{Ecological concerns} \rightarrow \text{Intention}} = 0.30$ ;  $\beta^1_{\text{Perceived behavioral control} \rightarrow \text{Intention}} = 0.46$ ;  $\beta^1_{\text{Mortality salience} \rightarrow \text{Intention}} = -0.64$ ;  $\beta^1_{\text{Attitude} \rightarrow \text{Intention}} = 0.38$ ;  $\beta^1_{\text{Intention} \rightarrow \text{Behavior}} = 0.21$ ;  $\beta^1_{\text{Attitude} \rightarrow \text{Behavior}} = 0.25$ ;  $\beta^1_{\text{Behavior} \rightarrow \text{well-being}} = 0.38$ ). Interestingly, the impact of religiosity on both attitude and intention is stronger in the studies conducted in developing countries than in the studies conducted in developed countries ( $\beta^0_{\text{Religiosity} \rightarrow \text{Attitude}} = 0.92$ ;  $\beta^0_{\text{Religiosity} \rightarrow \text{Intention}} = 0.59$ ). Thus, the findings partially<sup>9</sup> support H10 and suggest that country of the study causes a significant variance in the effect sizes between study constructs.

Concerning the results of H11, that is, the moderating effects of product type on the associations between study constructs, Table 6 shows that the relationship between contextual and attitudinal variables, attitude, intention, behavior around anti-consumption and consumer well-being is significantly stronger in the studies conducted on food products than in the studies conducted on other products ( $\beta^1_{\text{Ecological concerns} \rightarrow \text{Attitude}} = 0.44$ ;  $\beta^1_{\text{Religiosity} \rightarrow \text{Attitude}} = 0.65$ ;  $\beta^1_{\text{Perceived behavioral control} \rightarrow \text{Attitude}} = 0.45$ ;  $\beta^1_{\text{Mortality salience} \rightarrow \text{Attitude}} = -0.41$ ;  $\beta^1_{\text{Ecological concerns} \rightarrow \text{Intention}} = 0.29$ ;  $\beta^1_{\text{Religiosity} \rightarrow \text{Intention}} = 0.45$ ;  $\beta^1_{\text{Perceived behavioral control} \rightarrow \text{Intention}} = 0.36$ ;  $\beta^1_{\text{Mortality salience} \rightarrow \text{Intention}} = -0.67$ ;  $\beta^1_{\text{Attitude} \rightarrow \text{Intention}} = 0.28$ ;  $\beta^1_{\text{Intention} \rightarrow \text{Behavior}} = 0.30$ ;  $\beta^1_{\text{Attitude} \rightarrow \text{Behavior}} = 0.26$ ;  $\beta^1_{\text{Behavior} \rightarrow \text{well-being}} = 0.33$ ). Accordingly, H11 is partially<sup>9</sup> supported, thereby suggesting that product type causes a significant variance in the effect sizes between study constructs.

For H12, as expected, the findings show that the relationship between contextual and attitudinal variables, attitude, intention, behavior around anti-consumption and consumer well-being is significantly stronger in the studies conducted during and post 2010 than the studies conducted before 2010 ( $\beta^1_{\text{Ecological concerns} \rightarrow \text{Attitude}} = 0.40$ ;  $\beta^1_{\text{Religiosity} \rightarrow \text{Attitude}} = 0.72$ ;  $\beta^1_{\text{Perceived behavioral control} \rightarrow \text{Attitude}} = 0.57$ ;  $\beta^1_{\text{Mortality salience} \rightarrow \text{Attitude}} = -0.36$ ;  $\beta^1_{\text{Ecological concerns} \rightarrow \text{Intention}} = 0.27$ ;  $\beta^1_{\text{Religiosity} \rightarrow \text{Intention}} = 0.37$ ;  $\beta^1_{\text{Perceived behavioral control} \rightarrow \text{Intention}} = 0.39$ ;  $\beta^1_{\text{Mortality salience} \rightarrow \text{Intention}} = -0.87$ ;  $\beta^1_{\text{Attitude} \rightarrow \text{Intention}} = 0.58$ ;  $\beta^1_{\text{Intention} \rightarrow \text{Behavior}} = 0.12$ ;  $\beta^1_{\text{Attitude} \rightarrow \text{Behavior}} = 0.42$ ;  $\beta^1_{\text{Behavior} \rightarrow \text{well-being}} = 0.74$ ). Thus, the findings partially<sup>9</sup> support H12 and suggest that data collection period causes a significant variance in the effect sizes between study constructs.

Regarding the results of H13, that is, the moderation effects of research methods on the relationships between study constructs, as expected, the relationship between contextual and attitudinal variables, attitude, intention, behavior around anti-consumption and consumer well-being is significantly stronger in the studies using experimental methods than in the studies using survey methods ( $\beta^1_{\text{Ecological concerns} \rightarrow \text{Attitude}} = 0.37$ ;  $\beta^1_{\text{Religiosity} \rightarrow \text{Attitude}} = 0.97$ ;  $\beta^1_{\text{Perceived behavioral control} \rightarrow \text{Attitude}} = 0.44$ ;  $\beta^1_{\text{Mortality salience} \rightarrow \text{Attitude}} = -0.39$ ;  $\beta^1_{\text{Ecological concerns} \rightarrow \text{Intention}} = 0.33$ ;  $\beta^1_{\text{Religiosity} \rightarrow \text{Intention}} = 0.54$ ;  $\beta^1_{\text{Perceived behavioral control} \rightarrow \text{Intention}} = 0.56$ ;  $\beta^1_{\text{Mortality salience} \rightarrow \text{Intention}} = -0.85$ ;  $\beta^1_{\text{Attitude} \rightarrow \text{Intention}} = 0.57$ ;  $\beta^1_{\text{Intention} \rightarrow \text{Behavior}} = 0.28$ ;  $\beta^1_{\text{Attitude} \rightarrow \text{Behavior}} = 0.36$ ;  $\beta^1_{\text{Behavior} \rightarrow \text{well-being}} = 0.33$ ). Thus, the findings partially<sup>9</sup> support H13 and suggest that research methods cause a significant variance in the effect sizes between study constructs.

Concerning the results of H14, as expected, most of the proposed relationships between the study constructs is significantly stronger in the studies based on nonstudent samples than the studies based on student samples ( $\beta^1_{\text{Ecological concerns} \rightarrow \text{Attitude}} = 0.54$ ;  $\beta^1_{\text{Religiosity} \rightarrow \text{Attitude}} = 0.63$ ;  $\beta^1_{\text{Perceived behavioral control} \rightarrow \text{Attitude}} = 0.39$ ;  $\beta^1_{\text{Ecological concerns} \rightarrow \text{Intention}} = 0.28$ ;  $\beta^1_{\text{Religiosity} \rightarrow \text{Intention}} = 0.42$ ;  $\beta^1_{\text{Perceived behavioral control} \rightarrow \text{Intention}} = 0.41$ ;  $\beta^1_{\text{Attitude} \rightarrow \text{Intention}} = 0.49$ ;  $\beta^1_{\text{Intention} \rightarrow \text{Behavior}} = 0.47$ ;  $\beta^1_{\text{Attitude} \rightarrow \text{Behavior}} = 0.21$ ;  $\beta^1_{\text{Behavior} \rightarrow \text{well-being}} = 0.38$ ). However, the impact of mortality salience on attitude and intention is stronger in the studies based on student samples than in the studies based on nonstudent samples ( $\beta^0_{\text{Mortality salience} \rightarrow \text{Attitude}} = -0.35$ ;  $\beta^0_{\text{Mortality salience} \rightarrow \text{Intention}} = -0.63$ ). Accordingly, the findings partially<sup>9</sup> support H14 and suggest that sample type causes a significant variance in the effect sizes between study constructs.

## 5 | DISCUSSION

Our study offers several insights into the associations between the contextual and attitudinal variables, anti-consumption behavior and consumers' subjective well-being. First, consistent with the literature (Hutter & Hoffmann, 2013; Kaynak & Eksi, 2011; Yuksel et al., 2020), the findings of MASEM suggest that contextual variables; ecological concerns and religiosity and attitudinal variables; perceived behavior control are positively associated with attitude and intention surrounding anti-consumption behavior. However, perceived risk was found to have nonsignificant impact on both attitude and intention surrounding anti-consumption. The literature reports inconsistent findings regarding the relationship of perceived risk with anti-consumption attitude and intention. For example, a few studies (e.g., Khan & Lee, 2014; Yarimoglu et al., 2019) found that when consumers perceive risk in using any products or services, they tend to hold attitudes toward avoiding those products. However, some studies, such as that by Ansari et al. (2017) and Chen (2017), found that perceived risk did not significantly affect anti-consumption intention. Thus, a comprehensive meta-analysis was needed to better understand the association between these constructs. Using the data from several anti-consumption studies, the current meta-analysis found that the relationship of perceived risk with anti-consumption attitude and intention became nonsignificant in path analysis. The findings of the meta-analysis also show a negative impact of mortality salience on anti-consumption attitude and intention. This negative relationship is consistent with the literature (Nepomuceno & Laroche, 2016), which suggests that when the awareness of mortality salience increases among consumers, they become interested in materialism, and as a result, their attitudes and intention relating to anti-consumption decline.

Second, consistent with the literature (Chen, 2017; Riebl et al., 2015), the meta-analytic path analysis suggests that anti-consumption attitude is significantly and positively associated with anti-consumption intention. Moreover, both anti-consumption attitude and intention were found to positively affect anti-consumption behavior. The findings further suggest that consumers' anti-

consumption behavior has a positive effect on their well-being. Although the relationship between anti-consumption behavior and subjective well-being has been examined in the past (Lee & Ahn, 2016; Seegebarth et al., 2016), the current study provides generalizable findings using the synthesis of the extant literature.

Finally, in addition to providing generalizable findings across the contextual and attitudinal variables, anti-consumption behavior, and subjective well-being, this study conducted moderation analysis considering country of study (developing vs. developed), product type (food products vs. other products), data collection period (before 2010 vs. during and after 2010), research methods (survey vs. experiment), and sample type (student vs. nonstudent) as moderators to identify the reasons for inconsistent findings reported in the literature. These moderating variables possibly moderate the relationship between contextual variables and anti-consumption outcome variables and that between anti-consumption behavior and consumers' well-being. For example, the findings of the current meta-analysis suggest that the positive impact of ecological concerns on anti-consumption attitude and intention and subsequently that of anti-consumption attitude and intention on anti-consumption behavior are stronger in developed countries than in developing countries. This indicates that consumers in developed countries adopt anti-consumption behavior relatively faster than those in developing countries due to their ecological concerns. Moreover, anti-consumption behavior is found to have a stronger impact on consumers' subjective well-being in developed countries. This suggests that not only do consumers in developed countries adopt anti-consumption practices much faster, but they are also relatively more satisfied with the role that these practices play in the well-being of society. However, contradicting proposed hypothesis, the findings of the moderation analysis suggest that the effect of religiosity on anti-consumption attitude and intention is stronger in developing countries than in developed countries. This may be because, in developing countries, anti-consumption studies have been mainly carried out in Asian countries, such as Turkey (Kaynak & Eksi, 2011) and India (Kuanr et al., 2020), where the predominant religion is Islam or Hinduism. These religions tend to impose stricter rules and restrictions on over-consumption (Chowdhury, 2018; Makri et al., 2020), thereby facilitating stronger adoption of anti-consumption behavior in developing countries than in developed countries.

The moderation analysis suggests that the choice of product in anti-consumption studies can cause significant variance in the findings. This meta-analysis found that studies done with food products have a stronger association between contextual and attitudinal variables, anti-consumption outcome variables, and consumer well-being than the studies carried out with other products. An explanation could be that since food products are directly related to consumers' health, they tend to adopt more control on their consumption (Farah & Shahzad, 2020; Suarez, 2014). Moreover, contextual variables like religiosity provide restrictions on consumers' food consumption habits (Tosun & Yanar Gürce, 2018), which can play a key role in adopting stronger anti-consumption practices.

The moderation analysis also shows that the findings across anti-consumption literature vary due to a difference in the data collection period (before 2010 vs. during and after 2010). For instance, the findings show that the associations between consumers' contextual and attitudinal factors and anti-consumption outcome variables, that is, attitude and intention, are stronger in studies published during and after 2010. This suggests the role of temporal effect in anti-consumption research. As indicated earlier, anti-consumption research increased significantly post-2010. As a result, the anti-consumption measurement scale and its relationship with other constructs might have become more refined. Further, the findings show that the association between anti-consumption behavior and consumer well-being is stronger for the studies during and after 2010. As anti-consumption practices and environmental sustainability have gained more attention among consumers in recent years, consumers feel satisfied with anti-consumption practices and believe that anti-consumption contributes to overall well-being. This explains the stronger association between anti-consumption behavior and consumer well-being for studies published after 2010 than those published before 2010.

Our moderation analysis also identified research methods as an important reason for inconsistent and mixed findings reported in the literature. Consistent with the previous meta-analytic studies, the current study found that experimental studies have larger effect sizes for the proposed hypotheses compared to survey-based studies. For example, adopting an experimental method, Yuksel et al. (2020) found a relatively stronger positive impact of perceived behavioral control (attitudinal variable) on anti-consumption behavior while Hoffmann et al. (2018) employed a survey method and found relatively weaker impact. Our moderation analysis suggests that the research method could contribute to this conflicting finding. That is, the studies might report conflicting findings depending on the choice of research methods, that is, surveys and experiments adopted by researchers. Our moderation analysis suggests that experimental studies tend to show stronger effects than survey-based studies.

Finally, moderation analysis suggests that the choice of sample can cause significant variance in the findings across studies. For instance, the findings show that the association of consumers' contextual and attitudinal factors with their anti-consumption attitude, intention, and behavior are weaker in a student sample than in a nonstudent sample. An explanation could be that being young, students enjoy buying something more than older people and hence are less interested in anti-consumption practices (Seegebarth et al., 2016). That is, students may be keener to engage in a materialistic lifestyle than in an anti-consumption lifestyle and have less faith in the belief that anti-consumption can satisfy consumers. However, the negative relationship of mortality salience with both anti-consumption attitudes and intention is much stronger for students than nonstudents. As previously indicated, when people become aware of their impending death, they become materialists and demonstrate a lack of interest in anti-consumption. Students, being young, demonstrate a materialistic lifestyle, and are reckless in their consumption practices. When they become aware of their

inevitable death, they become more materialistic and spend more on luxury items (Chen et al., 2020).

## 6 | ACADEMIC IMPLICATIONS

There are many theoretical contributions from this meta-analytic study. First, even though Makri et al. (2020) attempted to provide a synthesis of the anti-consumption literature in the form of a systematic literature review, they did not quantitatively synthesize the literature. Thus, a detailed examination of the literature on anti-consumption behavior remained limited. Furthermore, since a meta-analytic study on anti-consumption behavior has not yet been carried out, the contradictions in the findings have not been resolved. To the best of the researchers' knowledge, this meta-study is a pioneering attempt to quantitatively synthesize the findings reported in the anti-consumption literature. Accordingly, we provide reliable findings regarding the relationships between the variables studied in anti-consumption literature. This paper fills the gap in the literature and provides a meta-analytic synthesis of the quantitative findings of previous studies in this domain.

Second, as discussed in the Section "*Development of a meta-analytic framework of anti-consumption behavior*," although ABC theory is appropriate for examining the pre-anti-consumption phenomenon, it provides limited support for studying post-anti-consumption phenomenon (Guagnano et al., 1995; Stern, 2000), such as consumers' well-being. Therefore, the current understanding of anti-consumption behavior remains limited without an integrative and more holistic view that considers both antecedents and outcome variables of anti-consumption behavior (Makri et al., 2020). However, the theory of well-being is well-equipped to examine post-anti-consumption phenomena (Lee & Ahn, 2016; Sirgy et al., 2007). As such, by combining the ABC theory and well-being theory, this study proposed a meta-analytic framework that explains the antecedents and the outcome variables of anti-consumption behavior.

The literature has suggested that anti-consumption behavior is influenced by ecological concerns (Hutter & Hoffmann, 2013; Tosun & Yanar Gürce, 2018), religiosity (Chowdhury, 2018; Ulusoy, 2015), mortality salience (Nepomuceno & Laroche, 2016), perceived risk (Yarimoglu et al., 2019), perceived behavioral control (Ashraf et al., 2018), and anti-consumption attitude and intention (Dursun & Tümer Kabadayı, 2013; Khan, 2017) while anti-consumption behavior impacts customers well-being (Balderjahn et al., 2020). We considered ecological concerns, religiosity, mortality salience, perceived risk, and perceived behavioral control as antecedents of anti-consumption attitude and intention, and consumers' well-being as the outcome variables of anti-consumption behavior. Accordingly, by integrating ABC theory with well-being theory, this meta-analysis proposed an overarching meta-analytic model of anti-consumption that integrates the key constructs of these theories.

Finally, meta-analyses help researchers examine the possible reasons for inconsistent findings in the literature by testing the moderation effects of various contextual and methodological factors

(Ashaduzzaman et al., 2022; Barari et al., 2022; Hunter & Schmidt, 2004; Maseeh et al., 2021a; Paul & Barari, 2022; Paul et al., 2021). The current study examined the moderating effects of various moderating variables, that is, country of study, product type, data collection period, research methods, and sample type that might moderate the relationships between attitudinal and contextual variables and behavioral outcomes (i.e., anti-consumption attitude, intention, and behavior) and that between anti-consumption behavior and consumers' subjective well-being. Based on the results of the moderation analysis, the reasons for inconsistent findings in the literature have been identified. For example, the findings reveal which conditions contribute to strengthening or weakening the relationships between the anti-consumption behavior and subjective well-being thereby providing possible reasons for contradictory findings reported in the literature. The relationship between anti-consumption behavior and subjective well-being is stronger in developed (vs. developing) countries, food (vs. other) products, nonstudent (vs. student) sample and experimental (vs. survey) research, therefore, the findings of empirical studies tend to vary across the studies depending on these factors. Accordingly, the findings of our moderation analysis explain why the relationships between the attitudinal and contextual variables, anti-consumption outcome variables (attitude, intention, and behavior), and consumer well-being vary within the anti-consumption literature, thereby attempting to resolve the inconsistencies in the literature. Overall, this meta-analysis contributes to the evolving anti-consumption literature.

## 7 | PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS

The findings of this meta-analysis are helpful to companies in overcoming anti-consumption of their products and services (consumers' avoidance of their products and services). Also, policymakers and societal organizations can use these findings to encourage anti-consumption practices among consumers.

Consistent with the literature (Craig-Lees & Hill, 2002; Hutter & Hoffmann, 2013; Khan, 2017; Portwood-Stacer, 2012; Shaw & Moraes, 2009; Tilikidou, 2013; Tosun & Yanar Gürce, 2018), our findings suggest that ecological concerns trigger anti-consumption attitude and intention; however, our moderation analysis reports that the impact of ecological concerns on anti-consumption attitude and intention is stronger in developed countries than in developing countries. This suggests that environmentally conscious consumers in developed countries are more likely to avoid the consumption of non-environmentally friendly products and services. Hence, it is recommended that companies, especially those in developed countries, give more importance to incorporating environmentally friendly initiatives into their operations and promote them via their marketing communication campaigns. Further, as the association of ecological concerns with anti-consumption attitudes and intention is stronger for food products, we recommend that food manufacturing and food marketing companies give more attention to

environmentally related initiatives and develop promotional campaigns highlighting their contribution to environmental conservation. Promoting these ecological claims to mature customers is ideal because compared to students, mature customers are more sensitive to ecological concerns driving stronger anti-consumption attitudes and intention among them. The above-indicated initiatives and promotions are likely to have a positive influence on ecologically concerned consumers, thereby resulting in favorable outcomes; reduction in anti-consumption. We recommend that authorities and societal organizations that are interested in reducing over-consumption develop their promotional and awareness campaigns pitching on environmental claims and especially focusing on food products, and appealing to mature customers and to customers in developed countries to optimize favorable results to their campaigns.

Customers' religious beliefs significantly affect their consumption patterns (Minton & Kahle, 2013; Minton et al., 2018). That is, religious customers tend to consume only those products that their religion allows. For instance, religious Jews abstain from consuming pork because the Hebrew Bible states that Jews are forbidden to eat it (Rosenblum, 2010). Similarly, Michalak et al. (2007) indicate that Muslims and various denominations of Christians, that is, Pentecostal, Baptist, and Church of God abstain from drinking alcohol because of their religious beliefs. Our findings showed that religious beliefs enhance anti-consumption attitudes and intentions, and these effects are stronger in developing countries than in developed countries. Accordingly, as individuals in developing countries are comparatively stricter in following religious rules and regulations (Chowdhury, 2018), marketers in developing countries are recommended to design and promote their products and services aligning with consumers' religious beliefs to prevent anti-consumption. On the other hand, authorities and societal organizations that are interested in minimizing over-consumption are recommended to align their promotions with customers' religious beliefs. Specifically, this recommendation is more relevant when they promote anti-consumption to mature customers and customers in developing countries and when they promote anti-consumption around food products. For instance, societal organizations can use religious teachings in their promotions to teach a simple lifestyle among customers in developing countries and to enhance the anti-consumption of junk food, especially among mature consumers.

The literature has shown that mortality salience, that is, awareness of death, can increase consumers' purchases and consumption (Mandel & Smeesters, 2008). Unpleasant events, such as terrorist attacks or natural disasters, dramatically increase mortality salience (Pyszczynski et al., 2003). For example, after September 11, 2001, attacks in the United States, Americans wanted to engage in excessive consumption of various products (Cosgrove & Praso, 2001), ranging from luxury products (White & Leung, 2002) to sweets (Hubler, 2001). The findings of our meta-analysis show a negative effect of mortality salience on anti-consumption, thereby suggesting that individuals' recognition of inevitable death increases their materialism and desire for consumption. The moderation analysis further showed that this effect is stronger for students than

for nonstudents. Accordingly, we recommend that companies consider mortality salience while developing marketing strategies for younger customers. Such marketing strategies are expected to enhance young customers' intention for excessive consumption. On the other hand, it is advisable that authorities and societal organizations interested in inculcating anti-consumption practices do not pitch their promotional campaigns on inevitable death, especially while promoting anti-consumption to young customers and customers in developed countries or while promoting anti-consumption around food products. This is because the findings suggest that mortality salience has stronger negative effects on the attitudes and intentions around anti-consumption among young consumers, consumers in developing countries, and food products.

Finally, the current study found that anti-consumption behavior had a positive effect on subjective well-being; therefore, consumers practicing anti-consumption behavior did not suffer any loss of subjective well-being. This effect is stronger in developed countries and among mature customers. Hence, authorities and societal organizations promoting anti-consumption practices can pitch these findings and promote that reducing consumption contributes to consumers' well-being, satisfaction, and happiness. Such campaigns will more effectively reduce consumption among consumers in developed countries and mature consumers.

## 8 | LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH DIRECTIONS

Although this study provides several insights into the anti-consumption literature and suggests some useful implications for practice, it has some limitations that should be acknowledged. First, complying with an eligibility criterion, we included research papers written only in English. Hence, we might have excluded some relevant papers published in other languages. In future, researchers are recommended to include those studies written in other languages. Second, due to the nature of meta-analyses, we included only quantitative studies in this meta-analysis. As a result, some qualitative studies focusing on anti-consumption may have been excluded.

Ideally, a systematic literature review and/or a meta-analysis should provide insightful directions for future research (Paul et al., 2021). Beyond the future research directions arising from its limitations, the current meta-study suggests some additional future research directions. First, our meta-analytic review suggests that most anti-consumption research has focused on products, such as food and clothing. However, we could not find any study conducted in the context of services, such as hospitality and travel services. Therefore, extending anti-consumption research beyond products can provide insights into the factors influencing anti-consumption behavior in the context of services. Second, in this meta-analysis, we integrated ABC theory and well-being theory to understand the antecedents and consequences of anti-consumption behavior. However, some of the studies in the anti-consumption domain are

based on other theories, such as the TPB, Schwartz's (1992) value theory, and reasons theory. Future meta-analyses can integrate those theories to test their generalizability in the anti-consumption context.

Third, as mentioned above, we considered only quantitative studies in this meta-analysis. However, some of the anti-consumption studies have used qualitative methods, such as ethnographic, and narrative or interpretive approaches to understand anti-consumption behavior. Therefore, a qualitative synthesis (e.g., content analysis) of those qualitative studies can provide a better understanding of the various manifestations of anti-consumption behavior and its determinants. Fourth, most of the studies on anti-consumption have used cross-sectional data. Consumers' attitudes, intentions, and behaviors around anti-consumption may alter over time (Khan, 2017). Therefore, longitudinal data may provide interesting insights into how customers' attitudes, intentions, and behaviors around anti-consumption change over time.

Fifth, COVID-19 has resulted in a paradigm shift in consumer behavior (Gordon-Wilson, 2021; Kursan Milakovic, 2021; Nayal et al., 2022; Rayburn et al., 2021; Sheth, 2020; Yap et al., 2021). The lockdowns during the COVID-19 pandemic have caused a worldwide financial crisis; thousands of people have lost their jobs which has increased financial insecurity. Such financial insecurity might have triggered anti-consumption behavior for some products. That is, people have reduced the consumption of products that are not directly related to their basic needs. However, little is known about how COVID-19 has influenced people's anti-consumption behavior. Therefore, we recommend that future studies examine the impact of financial insecurity on anti-consumption behavior amidst the COVID-19 pandemic. Researchers can adopt qualitative research design to identify the product categories that may have been affected due to the financial crises/insecurity during COVID-19 and then use a quantitative research design to empirically examine the impact of financial crisis/insecurity on anti-consumption behavior of those product categories.

Finally, following the outbreak of COVID-19 pandemic, conspiracy theories emerged, holding China responsible for the global pandemic (Gøtzsche, 2021). These conspiracy theories may have changed customers' attitude toward Chinese manufactured products in the international market. That is, customers might have stopped purchasing/consuming Chinese manufactured products in some countries. However, little is known about how such conspiracy theories might have triggered anti-consumption behavior toward Chinese manufactured products. Accordingly, we recommend that researchers study the impact of conspiracy theories on the anti-consumption behavior of Chinese manufactured products and also whether the impact varies from country to country. That is, anti-consumption behavior toward Chinese manufactured products among customers in countries having friendly political/economic relationships with China might be different from that shown by customers in countries having unfriendly political/economic relationships with China. As such, a cross-country comparative study is recommended to examine such differences.

## 9 | CONCLUSION

This study synthesizes the literature on anti-consumption. In doing so, we have integrated the ABC and well-being theories to understand the antecedents and outcome variables of anti-consumption. The findings show that ecological concerns, religiosity, mortality salience, and perceived behavioral control significantly impact consumers' anti-consumption attitudes and intentions, which in turn influence anti-consumption behavior, thereby driving consumer well-being. Further, our moderation analysis shows that the findings tend to vary across studies depending on the country of the study (developing countries vs. developed countries), product type (food products vs. other products), data collection period (before 2010 vs. during and after 2010), research methods (survey vs. experiment) and sample type (students vs. non-students), thereby highlighting possible reasons for inconsistencies in the findings reported in the literature. We provide some insightful implications for theory and practice. Academically, this meta-analysis is a pioneering attempt to integrate ABC and well-being theories to investigate anti-consumption behavior. Practically, this study provides several insightful implications for policymakers and societal organizations that are interested in enhancing anti-consumption practices among consumers.

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