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SUSTAINABLE INCENTIVES IN MARKETING AND STRATEGIC GREENING: THE CASES OF LITHUANIA AND ROMANIA

Dainora Grundey[1], Rodica Milena Zaharia[2]

[1]Kaunas Faculty of Humanities, Vilnius University,
Muitinės g. 8, LT-44280 Kaunas, Lithuania,
e-mail: dainora.grundey@vukhf.lt

[2]Faculty of International Business and Economics,
Academy of Economic Studies Bucharest,
Str. Mihai Eminescu 13-15, Sector 1, Bucharest, Romania,
e-mail: milena_zaharia@yahoo.com

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Abstract. This paper focuses on a growing interest in green marketing and its sustainable incentives via greening strategy and ecological labelling practices, especially in Europe and with a separate case in Lithuania. The article deals with the issues of environmental (eco-) marketing and ecological labelling to ensure that consumers have access to ecological products and services and they might adjust their preferences towards environmentally-friendly business practices. For business world-wide, ecological marketing and its applications in practice have become a competitive prerogative for modern business performance.

Keywords: sustainability, green marketing, ecological labelling, strategic greening, Europe, Lithuania, Romania.

1. Introduction: state of art in green marketing

Unfortunately, a majority of people believe that ecological (green) marketing refers solely to the promotion or advertising the products with environmental characteristics. Terms like *Phosphate Free*, *Recyclable*, *Refillable*, *Ozone Friendly*, and *Environmentally Friendly* are some of the things consumers most often associate with green marketing. While these terms are green marketing claims, in general green marketing is a much broader concept, one that can be applied to consumer goods, industrial goods and even services. For example, around the world there are resorts that are beginning to promote themselves as "ecotourist" facilities, i.e., facilities that "specialize" in experiencing nature or operating in a fashion that minimizes their environmental impact.

Thus, green marketing incorporates a broad range of activities, including product modification, changes of the production process, packaging changes, as well as modifying advertising. Yet defining green marketing is not a simple task. Indeed the terminology used in

this area has varied, it includes: **Sustainable Marketing, Green Marketing, Environmental Marketing** and **Ecological Marketing**. While green marketing came into prominence in the late 1980s and early 1990s, it was first discussed much earlier. The American Marketing Association (AMA) held the first workshop on "*Ecological Marketing*" in 1975 (Henion and Kinnear 1976). The proceedings of this workshop resulted in one of the first books on green marketing entitled "*Ecological Marketing*". Since that time a number of other books on the topic have been published.

The article deals with the issues of environmental (eco-) marketing and ecological labelling to ensure that consumers have access to ecological products and services and they might adjust their preferences towards environmentally friendly business practices. For business worldwide, ecological marketing and its applications in practice have become a competitive prerogative for modern business performance through greening strategies and ecological implications.

The AMA workshop attempted to bring together academics, practitioners, and public policy makers to examine marketing's impact on the natural environment. At this workshop ecological marketing was defined as: ***the study of the positive and negative aspects of marketing activities on pollution, energy depletion and non-energy resource depletion*** (Henion, Kinnear 1976).

This early definition has three key components:

1) it is a subset of the overall marketing activity;
2) it examines both the positive and negative activities; and
3) a narrow range of environmental issues are examined.

While this definition is a useful starting point, to be comprehensive green marketing needs to be more broadly defined. Before providing an alternative definition it should be noted that no one definition or terminology has been universally accepted. This lack of consistency is a large part of the problem, for how can this issue be evaluated if all researchers have a different perception of what they are researching. The following definition is much broader than those of other researchers and it encompasses all major components of other definitions. Our definition is as follows: ***Green*** *or* ***Environmental Marketing*** *consists of all activities designed to generate and facilitate any exchanges intended to satisfy human needs or wants, such that the satisfaction of these needs and wants occurs, with minimal detrimental impact on the natural environment.*

This definition incorporates much of the traditional components of the marketing definition that is "all activities designed to generate and facilitate any exchanges intended to satisfy human needs or wants" (Stanton and Futrell 1987). Therefore, it ensures that the interests of the organization and all its consumers are protected, as voluntary exchange will not take place unless both the buyer and seller mutually benefit. The above definition also includes the protection of the natural environment, by attempting to minimize the detrimental impact this exchange has on the environment (Baumol and Oates 1989). This second point is important, for human consumption by its very nature is destructive to the natural environment. (To be accurate, products making green claims should state they are "*less environmentally harmful*" rather than "*Environmentally Friendly*"). Thus green marketing should look at minimizing environmental harm, not necessarily eliminating it.

2. Green marketing and the strategic greening concept

A classical marketing, being an integrated set of four instruments (4Ps), is a managerial process in which a firm is an object influencing the market (Kotler, Keller 2007). In other words, we may treat marketing as a system of management of the market. An enterprise is, at the same time, the market participant. Now we should consider the firm as an element of the environment. This time, the natural environment becomes a crucial component of the firm's marketing surroundings.

So, modern marketing must be environment-oriented. It should be understood as an element of a system of the environment management.

Such marketing has received various names: new marketing, ecological marketing, eco-marketing and even green marketing (McDaniel, Rylander 1993). However, a name is here minor; the essence is important. A concept of environment-friendly marketing fulfills the criteria of a Kotler's model of societal marketing.

The societal marketing concept holds that the organization's task is to determine the needs, wants, and interests of target markets and to deliver the desired satisfactions more effectively and efficiently than competitors in a way that preserves or enhances the consumer's and the society's well-being. The concept calls upon marketers to balance three considerations in setting their marketing policies, namely, company profits, consumer want satisfaction, and public interest (Kotler, Keller 2007: 26). Nowadays, a state of the environment is obviously of public interest and has a big influence on the society's well-being.

Castenow (1993) in his "*New Marketing*" describes a global trend named: the natural environment and its consequences for a future marketing. The symptoms of this trend are as follows:

- a care of a clean air, soil and water tanks,
- a protection of the nature against the devastation,
- a rational turnover and use of natural resources; a stress on the significance of recycling,
- an aspiration for minimization of the use of natural raw materials; a growing interest in the use of production wastes in producing new products,
- a popularization of ecological orientation and of healthy style of life,
- an awareness of interdependencies within a chain: environment - hunger - overpopulation.

The following consequences of this trend can appear for marketing:

- a better knowledge on consumer priorities,
- the natural environment as a criterion in processes of product decisions,
- a firm's orientation towards the environment,
- a domination of ecological and energy-saving products,
- the natural environment as an integral part of all fields of the firm's activity,
- an impact on assessment criteria of brand-name products.

On the basis of this, an idea of a new (ecological) marketing is being developed, e.g. (Castenow 1993, Bergen 1990). Shortly speaking, modern marketing is such a way of thinking, which should take into consideration, among other things, that:

- *firstly*, a post-consumption phase is equally important for a product user like a purchase phase,
- *secondly*, the natural environment is a kind of public good,
- *thirdly*, there exist close inter-relations between a marketing orientation and an environmental orientation.

A model of a green marketing-mix should, of course, contain all 4P's:

1. A producer should offer ecological products which not only must not contaminate the environment but should protect it and even liquidate existing environmental damages.
2. Prices for such products may be a little higher.
3. A distribution logistics is of crucial importance; here I mean mainly ecological packaging.
4. A communication with the market should put stress on environmental aspects, for instance: a) a possessed CP certificate or ISO 14000 may be publicized to improve a firm's image, b) the fact that a company spends expenditures on the environment protection should be advertised, c) sponsoring the natural environment is also very important, d) ecological products will probably require special sales promotions.

The level of **greening-strategic, quasi-strategic, or tactical** dictates exactly what activities should be under-taken (Table 1) on the organizational level. Strategic greening in one area may or may not be leveraged effectively in others. A firm could make substantial changes in production processes but opt not to leverage them by positioning itself as an environmental leader. So although strategic greening is not necessarily strategically integrated into all marketing activities, it is nevertheless strategic in the product area.

Alternatively, tactical greening in promotions might involve minimal, if any, greening of other areas; rather, it might be used simply to exploit a short-term opportunity. A company might simply choose to sponsor a local environmental program without modifying its other activities. This may seem to be an "effective" strategy from a broader business perspective, but not necessarily from a green marketing perspective, especially if the firm is seeking to achieve sustainable broader objectives. If consumers are skeptical of its motives, this opportunistic sponsorship could actually backfire. The publicity generated could even make consumers more critical of the firm's other, less eco-friendly activities.

The overriding implication is that the firm needs to ensure that green marketing activities are integrated holistically, especially if they are used in positioning or promotional activities. That way it does not overemphasize corporate actions, with unanticipated negative consequences. However, it is not necessary for the firm to actively promote all green marketing activities. This may seem to be ignoring opportunities from a strategic perspective, but careful evaluation of overall corporate activities might identify that such opportunities are illusory – not all of them support the same environmental focus – and may help avoid potential problems.

Table 1 presents a number of examples to illustrate how tactical, quasi-strategic, and strategic green marketing activities might be undertaken in each of the functional marketing areas.

Tactical actions typically involve limited change and limited coordination across multiple functions. Quasi-strategic actions normally require more substantive changes in marketing activities, as well as broad-based coordination among several non-marketing activities.

Table 1. Green marketing activities at the three levels (with some business examples)

	Tactical greening	Quasi-strategic greening	Strategic greening
Targeting	Ads mentioning green features are run in green-focused media.	A firm develops a green brand in addition to its other brands.	A firm launches a new Strategic Business Unit (SBU) aimed at the green market.
Green design	A firm switches from one raw material supplier to another with more eco-friendly processes.	Life-cycle analysis is incorporated into the eco-design process to minimize eco-harm.	e.g **FUJI XEROX** develops its Green Wrap paper to be more eco-friendly from the ground up.
Green positioning	E.g. a mining company runs a Public Relations (PR) campaign to highlight its green aspects and practices.	e.g. **BP (British Petroleum) AMOCO** redesigns its logo to a sun-based emblem to reflect its view to a hydrogen/solar-based future for the energy industry.	e.g. the **BODY SHOP** pursues environmental and social change improvements and encourages its consumers to do so as well.
Green pricing	Cost savings due to existing energy-efficiency features are highlighted for a product.	E.g. a water company shifts its pricing policy from a flat monthly rate to a per-unit-of-water-used basis.	A company rents its products rather than selling; consumers now pay only for use of the products.
Green logistics	A firm changes to a more concentrated detergent, which.	Packaging minimization is incorporated as part of a firm's manufacturing review process.	A reverse logistics system is put into place by **FUJI XEROX** to reprocess and remanufacture photocopiers.
Marketing waste	A firm improves the efficiency of its manufacturing process, which lowers its waste output.	E.g. **TELSTRA** (a phone company) has internal processes so that old telephone directories (waste) are collected and turned into cat litter products by other companies.	E.g. A **Queensland** sugar-cane facility is rebuilt to be cogeneration-based, using sugarcane waste to power the operation.
Green promotion	An oil company runs a PR campaign to highlight its green practices in order to counter an oil spill getting bad press coverage.	A company sets a policy that realistic product eco-benefits should always be mentioned in promotional materials.	As part of its philosophy, the **BODY SHOP** co-promotes one or more social/eco campaigns each year with in-shop and promotional materials.
Green alliance	A company funds a competition (one-off basis) run by an environmental group to heighten community awareness on storm water quality issues.	E.g. **SOUTHCORP** (a wine producer) forms a long-term alliance with the Australian Conservation Foundation to help combat land-salinity issues.	A company invites a representative of an environmental group to join its board of directors.

Source: compiled after (Polonsky, Rosenberger 2001; Дпicke, Дцrgens 2000).

Strategic greening requires a holistic approach, with all actions of the firm coordinated to integrate environmental issues across all functional areas.

The need for a holistic approach cannot be overemphasized, considering the frequent problems associated with non-integrated green marketing.

3. Product management and green strategies

A green marketing approach in the product area promotes the integration of environmental issues into all aspects of the company's activities, from strategy formulation, planning, construction through production and into dealings with consumers. Czinkota and Ronkainen (1992: 39) propose that "corporations will have to find solutions to environmental challenges through marketing strategies, products, and services in order to remain competitive". These include Czinkota and Ronkainen (1992):

1) new technologies for handling waste, sewage and air pollution;
2) product standardization to ensure environmentally safe products;
3) providing "truly" natural products; and
4) products oriented toward resource conservation and greater occupant health.

These solutions assure the company of a legitimate role in providing society's needs as well as the opportunity to achieve industry pre-eminence (Murray and Montanari 1986). They also underscore potential opportunities for the development of products/services (Murray and Montanari 1986), for example, refurbished office equipment has entered the market with the backing of a powerful name (Xerox's Eco-series and Renaissance copiers). Although some would look at these changes as threats and/or added expense, visionaries within business firms are realizing that there are also real opportunities in environmental developments for those ready to recognize and capitalize on them.

3.1. The greening of product life stages

Green marketing forwards the notion that companies should be concerned with what happens to a product during and after its useful life. Companies may manifest this concern through experimentation with ways to reassess and redesign the product life stages. Life cycle reassessment focuses on environmental considerations in product development and design, including energy and material inputs and outputs in production, consumption, and disposal of products (NCC 1996).

We would then manage the life stages of a product in an environment-friendly and eco-efficient manner. *Eco-efficiency* refers to the proper timing for the use or consumption of natural (and oftentimes scarce) resources so that nature is afforded an opportunity to renew itself. The life stages of products would include the description, presented in Table 2.

3.2. Design for the environment

Coddington (1993) asserts that *Design for the Environment* (DFE) has emerged as a philosophy of integrating environmental considerations into the design process of both product and packaging. There are two basic tenets: 1) the firm engaged in DFE must internalize environmental considerations and constraints, and 2) the firm must evaluate environmental issues

Table 2. Greening of product life-cycle stages

Stage 1	Development stage. Traditionally characterized as the acquisition of raw materials, component parts, and subassemblies. The alternative approach advocated here encourages manufacturers 1) to check the environmental programs of suppliers, 2) to require minimal packaging of inputs, and 3) to consider sources of materials that could be easily replenished or that are recyclable.
Stage 2	Production stage. Manufacturing companies are encouraged to reduce emissions, toxicity, and waste, and to conserve water and energy. Companies are also encouraged to seek and develop alternative uses for waste products (i.e., waste recovery process), to revise the manufacturing process(es) to minimize waste generation, to minimize energy use, and/or to attempt to find alternative sources of energy.
Stage 3	Consumption/Usage stage. Minimization of packaging, conservation of energy, and minimization of waste from product maintenance and service are strongly urged. Additionally, companies should promote energy conservation and should provide information on recyclability or reuse of the package or "dead" product.
Stage 4	The final stage of a product is its disposal, Green marketing introduces the concepts of reuse and recyclability, in addition to the concept of waste reduction.

Source: compiled after (NCC 1996; Rubik, Scholl 2002; Frause, Colehour 1994; Frankel 1992).

systemically, in conjunction with associated manufacturing, economic, regulatory, social, and political factors (Rubik 2003a, 2003b). Additional considerations inherent in DFE as applied to product and package design are designing for disposal, designing for non-disposal (recycling), designing for pollution prevention, and designing for resource conservation. DFE strongly encourages the development of ideas that would incorporate waste reduction into production processes, recycling products and/or packaging, that would make products compostable, or that would help facilitate changes in the process of design while adding more benefits than costs to the organization (Andersen and Liefferink 1997).

3.3. Total quality management (TQM) for the environment

Friedman (1992) advocates that Total Quality Management (TQM), an increasingly popular concept related to the management of both the product and the production processes, needs to integrate environmental management issues. Commitment to quality now refers not only to the traditional production concept, but to environmental quality as well. Currently, our concern is with the total yield of the production and product marketing processes, including waste and pollution.

Recycling. Regulatory pressures may account for some of the most creative ideas that have been brought to market. For example, batteries of all kinds contain hazardous heavy metals such as silver, mercury, nickel, cadmium and lead that can threaten underground water supplies. The potential for increased regulatory pressures always faces these manufacturers, including legal requirements to reformulate products or setting up collection programs for the "dead" product. In 1990, Eveready reformulated their batteries to reduce mercury content, meeting regulatory standards two years ahead of schedule and stealing an edge on competitors through trade advertising (Ottman 1998). In 1991, *Sanyo* introduced rechargeable batteries packed in a container that doubled as a mail-back pack for recycling. When consumers return the batteries, they receive a $3 coupon good on their next purchase. This action came as a

result of focus groups in which they found that consumers consistently told the company that it should recycle, and that their efforts would be rewarded (Grundey 2003).

Waste Reduction, Pollution Prevention. In addition to the concept of eco-efficiency mentioned previously, *manufacturing for disassembly* has also gained momentum as the recycling of materials and energy and resource conservation are more plausible thanks to technological change. Additionally, since all natural and industrial processes generate waste, and waste becomes pollution, when it exceeds the carrying capacity of the environment (Schmidheiny 1992), finding ways to prevent pollution before it has become critical. To a large extent, companies are realizing that pollution is a sign of inefficiency and added cost, and that waste represents raw materials not sold in final products. Schmidheiny (1992) contends that the combination of the above with mounting public expectations, increasing regulatory pressures, and the tightening of competitive conditions may account for the adoption of the logic of pollution prevention by a significant number of companies worldwide. For 3M, the Pollution Prevention Pays (3P) program, in place since 1975, is being hailed for having saved over $500 million by eliminating or reducing capital expenditures and operational expenses (Frause, Colehour 1994). Additionally, regulatory actions like the 45 product disposal bans enacted in 1991 by 12 states have persuaded manufacturers to design their products for remanufacture, recycling, and repair (Ottman 1998). New designs that would allow for easier disassembly and recycling of parts, and minimization or elimination of non-recyclable parts/materials have already entered the market.

3.4. Strategic implications for modern businesses

Implementing a philosophy of sustainability in the practice of marketing would require businesses to become more sensitive to the efficient use of all resources over a longer period. In particular, the loss of natural resources may significantly affect a company's product line and overall production process(es) (Grundey 2003). This change in orientation, from short- to long-term, would be part of any requisite structural changes (e.g., changes in corporate culture and communication and information systems). Perhaps the most persuasive argument is that waste represents costs to organizations, therefore waste reduction, reuse of materials, and recyclability are important cost savings activities in the long-run. Marketers should be encouraged to assess the cost of new laws and regulations, the cost of endless litigation, and the potential loss of competitive position(s) as integral and critical components of an ecological approach (Grundey *et al.* 2004). Additionally, firms should thoroughly consider the implications of a potential loss of corporate and product credibility due to perceptions of inaction (i.e., totally bypassing any environmental initiative) or forced compliance (i.e., environmental actions are pursued only when mandated by regulations).

Kleiner (1991) asserts that people who try to radically change corporations from within are often stymied. "Corporate culture and political pressures provide almost insurmountable resistance against any sudden and even enlightened change" (Frause, Colehour 1994: 110). Cohen (1991) advocate that perhaps the solution to this dilemma lies between "saving it all" (limits to growth environmentalism) and "using it all" (unbridled capitalism). The issue then becomes on of educating managers along the lines of cost-benefit on the one hand, and along the lines of social responsibility or the role and obligations that organizations have as active participants of the social system within which they operate.

While a significant number of American consumers could be considered as potentially "green", marketers are still cautious in approaching this segment. In 1991, a Wall Street Journal/NBC News survey reported that 46 % of American consumers bought products based on the manufacturer's or product's environmental reputation within the last six months (Frankel 1992). Likewise, Gallup surveys conclude that more than 75 % of American consumers factor in environmentalism 'in buying' decisions (Kleiner 1991). More recently, however, the 1996 Green Gauge Report released by Roper Starch Worldwide (US) showed that the percentage of Americans willing to pay more for environmental products has declined from 11 % in 1986 to 5 %. As Ottman and Terry (1998) point out that "marketing greener products will have to entail more than attaching a green label or featuring images of wildlife in media advertisements!". In developing value-added on ecological bases, organizational leaders would have to establish a level of environmental commitment that is most suitable and feasible given the conditions that the organization faces.

Companies that have adopted some type of environmental accountability have found some benefits in the adoption of an ecological approach. Some of the activities that have been implemented include: 1) building consumer demand for green products (e.g., Rubbermaid's litterless lunch box); 2) spending revenues to educate buyers (e.g., First Brands' informational brochures such as "*The Good Environment Guide*"); and 3) building new infrastructure to facilitate recycling (e.g., Kraft-General Foods' recycled plastic for its salad dressing) and prevent pollution (e.g., 3M's Pollution Prevention Pays program; the first eco-mall in Santa Monica). Being branded a green company can be potentially beneficial to business organizations. The green image generates a more positive public image which can, in turn, enhance sales, increase stock prices, and open access to public capital markets (Marshall, Mayer 1992). A green image may enhance the overall perception of product quality and when coupled with the environmental benefits inherent in a product and/or its use may provide the added value that consumers would favour (Ottman, Terry 1998). However, note that even seemingly "simple" things have a significant effect on the marketing of certain products. For example, product managers need to be aware that several states, including California, New York and Rhode Island, are controlling the use of environmental terms (e.g., "recyclable" and "recycled content") in product labels (Marshall, Mayer 1992). Changes in regulations will influence marketing decisions and strategies that an organization may pursue.

4. Eco-labelling in Lithuania and Romania – a path towards strategic greening

Eco-labelling can be defined as "the practice of labelling products based on a wide range of environmental considerations" in order to make relevant environmental information available to the consumers (EPA 1998: 5). Eco-labels enable consumers to include environmental aspects as criteria in their purchasing decisions. Indirectly, environmental labelling may also affect producers as they design products that have to compete not only with respect to price and quality, but also to some extent with respect to environmental attributes (EPA 1998: 5). Eco-labels can cover a range of environmental attributes, which may include health issues, atmospheric impacts or other environmental impacts, packaging and other industrial issues to name few. Labels allow consumers to make comparisons among products/services in the category and essentially vote their preferences in the market when making purchasing decisions.

Eco-labels are considered to be a strong and effective method to *market greener products and services*, thereby, making it easier for consumers to identify products and services that are kinder to the environment.

The international spread of eco-labelling programmes accelerated when in 1992 the Council of Ministers of the EU adopted a regulation introducing the "*European Flower*" as an EU-wide eco-label by Council Regulation (EEC) No 880/92) (Wynne 1993). The process leading to the development of the "European Flower" can be characterised as a vertical and "bottom-up"-driven diffusion mechanism (Kern *et al.* 2001). The European eco-label was strongly inspired by already existing European national eco-labelling programmes as, for example, the German, French (1991) and the Austrian (1991) eco-label as well as by the multi-national "*Nordic Swan*" (Knill and Lenschow 2000).

While most European countries refrained from introducing their own national eco-labels and limited themselves to implementing the European Council regulation, the development of national eco-labelling programmes proceeded worldwide. Outside the EU, national eco-label programmes were adopted in New Zealand (1990), Australia (1991), Korea (1992), Croatia, Czech Republic, Hungary (1993), Lithuania (1995), Slovakia (1996) and Latvia (1997). The EU Eco-label is a costly scheme (up to EUR 1,300 for registration and up to EUR 25,000/year for the use of the label, with a reduction of 25 % for SMEs) and has therefore not been widely used so far in some CEE countries especially in Romania (Romania: Country Commercial Guide 2004). The eco-label awarding national authority is the Romanian Ministry of Agriculture, Waters and Environmental Protection (MAAPM). However, the Eco-label can be a good marketing tool and, given the growing demand for green products in Europe, it is likely that the Eco-label will become more and more a reference for green consumers.

4.1. The Lithuanian experience

In 1995, the eco-labelling criteria were considered in Lithuania as a vital part of food-processing and labelling procedure. In 1996, according to the Order of the Ministry of Environment a new regulation of product environmental labelling was in power.

This Order was amended in 2001, according to which the EU-Flower eco-label was taken as a basis for eco-labelling in Lithuania. The eco-label can be certified to all products, except for drinks and medications.

The graphical symbol for ecologically-friendly labelling in Lithuania is the "lily under the roof" in green colours (Fig. 1). The designer of this label is Tadas Kosčiuška. The water lily

Label for Ecological Farming in Lithuania

Label for Certified Eco-products in Lithuania

National Eco-label for Lithuania

Label for Ecological Farming in Lithuania (the EU standard)

Fig. 1. Eco-labels in Lithuania, 2007

was chosen to represent its unique sensitivity to the environmental pollution. Unfortunately, over the past 5 years, we had no opportunity of witnessing the application of the national eco-label for Lithuania "lily under the roof" in practice.

4.2. The Romanian experience

In 2002, in Romania, the Government Decision No. 189/2002 establishes the eco-labelling awarding procedure for 21 groups of products (goods and services).

In order to make the criteria acceptable and feasible the differences that are evident for various conditions on food markets and retail trade businesses in Romania and throughout Europe has been taken into consideration during the elaboration of the eco-labelling criteria. The Bucharest Municipality was running (2003–2005) the ECOMARKET project (Ecomarket 2005). The objective of the project is to minimize the environmental impact of *food markets* (FM's) that permanently operate in open or partly open spaces, and to demonstrate how eco-labels can be an effective instrument towards environmental sustainability.

In relation to food markets the ECOMARKET project has the following specific objectives (2005):

1. To design, test and evaluate an *environmental assessment method* (EAM) for food markets and retail shops situated within food markets using sustainability parameters and indicators.
2. Based on the EAM, a *food market ecological model* (FMEM) for food markets and a *voluntary eco-labelling scheme* (VES) for the retail shops within the food markets is being developed and implemented, describing rules and criteria for becoming a certified Ecological Food Market or an Eco-labelled Shop.
3. Furthermore the Bucharest City Hall, who is going to administrate these criteria for the FMEM and the VES, is implementing an environmental management system (EMS) in conformance with the ISO 14001 in order to minimize the environmental impact from the largest local public administration in Romania.

The Voluntary Eco-labelling (VES) Scheme in Romania is implemented in **four pilot sites** (Ecomarket 2005): 1) Cristim, Domenii Food Market; 2) Kaviar House, Domenii Food Market; 3) GTR GROUP, Domenii Food Market; 4) MEDA PROD, Obor Food Market. The ECOMARKET project proposed two eco-labels for voluntary eco-labelling in Romania, as pictured in Fig. 2.

Fig. 2. Eco-labels in Romania, 2005 (for eco-foods and eco-retail centres)

5. Conclusions

Implementing a philosophy of sustainability in the practice of marketing would require businesses to become more sensitive to the efficient use of all resources over a longer period. Marketers should be encouraged to assess the cost of new laws and regulations, the cost of endless litigation, and the potential loss of competitive position(s) as integral and critical components of an ecological approach, which is broadly discussed and substantiated in this article.

The adoption of ISO standards in foodstuffs' production and farming practices is the code of good practice, which is world-wide acceptable in various business sectors, starting with food industry and finishing with services, such as hotel and tourism industry, etc. Mini cases of Lithuania and Romania also indicate that these countries have adopted the eco-labelling policy, following the EU directives and national voluntary initiatives.

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MARKETINGO IR ŽALIOSIOS STRATEGIJOS DARNUMO PASKATOS: LIETUVOS IR RUMUNIJOS ATVEJAI

D. Grundey, R. M. Zaharia

Santrauka

Šiame straipsnyje darnumo iniciatyvos nagrinėjamos per rinkodaros prizmę, pasitelkiant teorinius žaliosios strategijos ir ekologinio žymėjimo konceptus. Žalioji (ekologinė) rinkodara tampa vienu iš verslo konkurencinio pranašumo variklių, todėl jos teorinis ir praktinis nagrinėjimas tampa aktualia ir dėmesio verta tematika Europos Sąjungos (ES) vykdomos ekologinio ir darnaus vystymosi politikos kontekste. Straipsnyje pažymima, kad naujos ES narės, pvz., Rumunija, taip pat siekia įgyvendinti privalomus arba savanoriškus ekologinio žymėjimo standartus, juos kurdama ES fondų ir programų

finansuojamomis lėšomis. Lietuva, priėmusi ekologinio žymėjimo standartų įsipareigojimus dar 1995 metais, šiuo klausimu yra paženguси gerokai toliau.

Reikšminiai žodžiai: darnumas, ekologinė rinkodara, ekologinis žymėjimas, žalioji strategija, Europa, Lietuva, Rumunija.

Dainora GRUNDEY. Full-Professor (HP), PhD in Marketing at Department of Business Economics and Management, Kaunas Faculty of Humanities, Vilnius University (VU KHF), Lithuania. She is Vice-Dean for Scientific Research and International Relations at VU KHF. She is Editor-in-Chief of the Online International Scientific Journal *IJORTISS* (*http://ijortiss.vukhf.lt*) and Chief Coordinator of the International Network of Young Researchers in Social Sciences (*INYRSS, http://inyrss.vukhf.lt*). She is also Founding Editor and currently Deputy-Editor-in-Chief on the Editorial Board of International Scientific Journal "*Transformations in Business & Economics*" (*www.transformations.khf.vu.lt*). Author over 170 publications. Her scientific research interest cover cross-cultural management and marketing, brand management, integrated marketing communications, e-commerce, fund raising and project management, consumer behaviour, emotional marketing, sustainable education systems, tourism and marketing logistics.

Rodica Milena ZAHARIA. Full-Professor, PhD in International Economics at the Faculty of International Business and Economics, Academy of Economic Studies in Bucharest, Romania. She is the initiator of the forthcoming scientific journal *The Romanian Journal of Interdisciplinary Research*. Her fields of interests cover international business ad international economic relations, international marketing and strategic management, globalisation and internationalisation, interdisciplinary approach to university studies and scientific research.