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Using individual householder survey responses to predict household environmental
outcomes: The cases of recycling and water conservation

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Abstract

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Although individuals' self-reports of behaviour are often used as a proxy for household environmental outcomes, little is known about how accurate they are or what factors might moderate accuracy. The current research investigated this question in relation to household recycling and water use. Results of Study 1 showed a significant, albeit weak, relationship between self-reported household recycling and objective measure of recycling that was not moderated by the number of people in the household. There was some evidence though that the relationship between self-reported and objective household recycling was stronger when respondents perceived more supportive community norms for recycling. The results of Study 2 supported Study 1 in showing a significant but weak relationship between self-reported water conservation behaviour and objective household water use that was again not moderated by the number of people in the house. Similar to Study 1, Study 2 showed that there was a stronger relationship between self-reported and objective behaviour when respondents had more favourable attitudes, more supportive subjective norms, and greater self-efficacy in relation to water conservation. Taken together the research suggests that psychological variables that orient householders to environmental behaviour are more important influences on aligning self-reported behaviour with objective outcomes than knowledge about the behaviour of others in the household.

23 **1. Introduction**

24 Households are significant producers of waste and high consumers of resources
25 through their use of energy and water in the home and indirectly through their broader
26 consumption. Households are therefore an important site for waste recovery and
27 conservation. In light of this, the research focus on understanding and promoting
28 household recycling and resource conservation is not surprising. What is surprising though
29 is that where studies have addressed these issues, they often rely on one individual in the
30 household to provide data on behalf of the household. For example, individual
31 householders often respond to surveys that ask about the amount of household waste that
32 is recycled, (e.g., Barr & Gilg, 2005; Hage, Söderholm, & Berglund, 2009; Halvorsen,
33 2012; López-Mosquera, Lera-López, & Sánchez, 2015; Robinson & Read, 2005; Saphores
34 & Nixon, 2014), or the number of conservation actions performed by household members
35 (Barr, Gilg, & Ford, 2005; Corral-Verdugo, Carrus, Bonnes, Moser, & Sinha, 2008;
36 Sarabia-Sánchez, Rodríguez-Sánchez, & Hyder, 2014). Although this is no doubt due to
37 the difficulty of obtaining responses from multiple householders, it nevertheless raises the
38 critical question of whether and to what extent individual members of a household can
39 represent the collective household experience. Given that ‘household’ survey responses
40 are not randomly selected from the household (i.e., the most environmentally-interested or
41 time-rich person may respond), the use of individual responses may be far from accurate.

42 In the current paper we present two studies that address the question of how well
43 individual householders’ self-reported behaviour reflects household environmental
44 outcomes. We focus on two important household environmental domains: waste recycling
45 and water conservation. Recycling is a crucial response to rising levels of consumer waste
46 (Hoorweg & Bhada-Tata, 2012) and with water resources placed under increasing
47 pressure in coming decades (Vörösmarty, Green, Salisbury, & Lammers, 2000) water
48 conservation is an essential component to securing long-term water sustainability (Arbués,

49 Garcia-Valiñas, & Martinez-Espiñeira, 2003). We test the sufficiency of individual
50 household responses by examining the relationship between individuals' self-reports of
51 household recycling and water conservation and objective measures of outcomes in these
52 domains. We also explore whether there are variables that moderate this relationship, for
53 example, the number of people in the household, or psychological factors that may
54 influence the alignment between self-reported behaviour and household outcomes.

55 1.1 Disparities between self-report and objective measures of behaviour

56 Previous researchers have drawn attention to the potential disconnection between
57 self-reported and observed behaviour. For example, studies have shown disparities
58 between self-reported and observed recycling and re-use behaviour (Corral-Verdugo,
59 1997; Corral-Verdugo & Figueredo, 1999; McGuire, 1984; Porter, Leeming, & Dwyer,
60 1995), water conservation behaviour (Hamilton, 1985) and energy use (Warriner,
61 McDougall, & Claxton, 1984). Recently, Chao and Lam (2011) explored the validity of
62 self-reported environmental behaviour by comparing them with reports of the same
63 behaviour by observers. They showed significant and moderate correlations between self-
64 reported and observer-reported behaviour. Similarly, Corral-Verdugo and Figueredo
65 (1999) also showed low to moderate correlations between self-reports and observations of
66 householders' re-use of glass, clothing and metal. A meta-analysis of the relationship
67 between self-reported and objective measures of pro-environmental behaviour showed a
68 strong and positive relationship between the measures, although the authors also
69 concluded that 79% of the association in the relationship between self-report and objective
70 measures was unexplained (Kormos & Gifford, 2014).

71 The focus of previous research comparing self-report and objective measures of
72 environmental behaviour, has predominantly been on individuals' behaviour rather than
73 on the relationship between self-reports and household outcomes. Although one might
74 question the appropriateness of using individual's responses as proxies for overall

75 household behaviour or sentiment, in practice this approach is not uncommon. For
76 example, many studies have relied on the responses of individual householders to examine
77 the predictors of household recycling and resource conservation (e.g., Barr, 2007; Barr &
78 Gilg, 2005; Barr et al., 2005; Hage et al., 2009; Halvorsen, 2012; López-Mosquera et al.,
79 2015; Robinson & Read, 2005; Saphores & Nixon, 2014; Sarabia-Sánchez et al., 2014;
80 Wan, Qiping Shen, & Yu, 2014) and these studies seem to implicitly suggest that the
81 individual is able to provide accurate and meaningful responses on behalf of the
82 household. As noted above though, past studies suggest a mismatch between self-reported
83 and objective behaviour of individuals, with low to moderate correlations at best.

84 There are at least two reasons why this mismatch may emerge. One reason
85 advanced by researchers is that self-reports reflect a different perceptual reality to
86 objective measures of behaviour (Corral-Verdugo, 1997; McGuire, 1984). According to
87 McGuire (1984) self-report surveys assess attitudes, ideas, and beliefs about behaviour,
88 and, as such, self-reports may be more reflective of these psychological variables than
89 actual behavioural performance. In support of this notion Gatersleben, Steg and Vlek
90 (2002) showed that attitudinal variables were more closely related to self-reported pro-
91 environmental behaviour than actual household energy use.

92 A second reason is the ability of an individual to provide accurate data on behalf of
93 the household. If there is low correspondence between self-reported household behaviour
94 and objective household outcomes, a relatively straightforward reason might be that,
95 because individuals do not necessarily have access to the behaviour of all householders,
96 they cannot provide accurate estimates of behaviour on behalf of the household. If this
97 were the case, then the number of people in the household should moderate the
98 relationship between self-reported behaviour and objective household outcomes with a
99 stronger relationship in households with fewer people than in households with more
100 people.

101 On the other hand, if self-reports of behaviour more accurately reflect a
102 ‘psychological’ reality that does not necessarily reflect behavioural performance, then the
103 number of people in the household will have little impact on self-reported behaviour.
104 Instead, it may be psychological variables that influence the relationship. In particular, the
105 theory of planned behaviour (Ajzen, 1991) suggests that when people hold more
106 favourable attitudes, perceive more supportive norms, and feel a greater sense of control in
107 relation to a behaviour, this will translate into stronger intentions and subsequent
108 behaviour. Based on this reasoning, it is possible that these three variables may moderate
109 the relationship between self-reported behaviour and household outcomes with a stronger
110 relationship emerging when people have more favourable attitudes, perceive more
111 supportive norms, or have greater perceived control over the behaviour. This moderating
112 effect may emerge because the positive psychological stance toward the behaviour may
113 attune individual householders more to the behaviour of the household and make their
114 judgements of the household’s behaviour more accurate. Another possibility is that
115 because householders who report positive attitudes, supportive norms, or higher control in
116 relation to the behaviour will likely have greater commitment to the behaviour, the link
117 between self-reported behaviour and household outcomes will be closer; this may be
118 because either they are the driving force behind the behaviour in the household and/or
119 because they motivate others in the household to engage in the behaviour.

120 1.2 The current research

121 In the current research we test two hypotheses based on the reasoning we advance
122 above in the context of household recycling and water conservation behaviours.

123 Hypothesis 1: Household size will moderate the relationship between self-reported
124 and objective measures of household recycling and water conservation with a stronger
125 relationship between self-reported and objective behaviour in households with fewer
126 rather than more people.

127 Hypothesis 2: Attitudes, perceived norms, and perceptions of control in relation to
128 household recycling and household water conservation will moderate the relationship
129 between self-reported and objective household recycling and water conservation.

130 Specifically, the relationship will be stronger when respondents have more positive
131 attitudes, perceive more normative support, and/or have greater perceived control.

132 The current research makes an important contribution to the research by moving
133 beyond the focus on individual behaviour to examine pro-environmental behaviour within
134 households, a significant site of environmental impacts. The meta-analysis by Kormos and
135 Gifford (2014) included studies of both individual and household pro-environmental
136 behaviours and explored a set of socio-demographic and methodological variables as
137 potential moderators of the self-report – objective behaviour relationship. Our differs from
138 that in focusing specifically on household environmental outcomes and the utility of using
139 individual self-reports as proxies for these outcomes. Moreover, it investigates whether the
140 number of people in the household, attitudes, norms, and control moderate the relationship
141 between self-reported and objective household recycling and water conservation. To our
142 knowledge, these hypotheses have not been tested previously.

143 **2. Study 1**

144 The focus of Study 1 is household recycling. In Australia, kerbside recycling has
145 been in place for well over ten years and is a widely accepted practice with 98% of
146 Australian households participating in the program (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2006).
147 However, there is also evidence that the amount of recyclable materials put out for
148 collection is less than optimal (Nolan-ITU Pty Ltd, 2002). In addition to measures of
149 attitudes, norms, and perceived behavioural control (measured through perceived ease),
150 Study 1 also included a measure of objective recycling knowledge as we reason that this
151 variable may also relate to actual control in that it is more difficult for people to recycle if
152 they do not know what they can or cannot recycle. Past research has also shown that

153 knowledge is positively associated with greater recycling (Hornik, Cherian, Madansky, &
154 Marauama, 1995; Schultz, Oskamp, & Mainieri, 1995).

155 **2.1 Method**

156 2.1.1 Participants and procedure

157 Participants were recruited to take part in a larger study investigating ways to
158 improve kerbside recycling. The broader research program involved households
159 committing to completing multiple questionnaire surveys administered over time, taking
160 part in an intervention study, and providing permission to audit the household's bins. The
161 current study focused specifically on responses to the initial questionnaire and the bin
162 audits that took place concurrently. We only include data for households who completed a
163 questionnaire and had their bins audited. The final sample for analysis was 115. The age
164 of participants ranged from 15 – 19 to 75 and over with 48% in the 30 to 39 and 40 to 49
165 age groups, and 37% evenly spread across the 25 to 29, 50 to 59 and 60 to 64 age groups.
166 Of the respondents who completed the questionnaire, 34% were males and 66% were
167 females and two did not indicate their gender. In terms of education, the highest level of
168 household education was relatively evenly spread across secondary school (28%),
169 technical or trade qualifications (26%), and university (28%). The number of people in the
170 household ranged from one to eight with a mean number of 3.00 (SD = 1.51).

171 Participants were residents of a regional Australian city who lived in free-standing
172 houses. Interviewers approached every second household within the study areas, selecting
173 the house on either side if no one was at home in the first-selected household. To obtain a
174 valid measure of objective household recycling, residents were approached as close to bin
175 collection days as possible (bin audits were conducted within two to three days of signing
176 up to the study). The study was introduced to participants as research that sought to
177 increase household recycling in the region. To be eligible to participate, residents needed
178 to be 18 years or over and willing to take part in all aspects of the research. Interviewers

179 left a questionnaire with the resident to complete, and arranged to collect the questionnaire
180 at a later time point (usually within 24 hours).

181 2.1.2 Measures

182 The term ‘kerbside recycling’ was defined for participants at the beginning of the
183 questionnaire (i.e., waste that is recycled by putting it in a yellow-lidded wheelie bin that
184 is put out for collection). Attitudes to kerbside recycling were measured with six semantic
185 differential items (e.g., bad/good, inconvenient/convenient, unfavourable/favourable)
186 drawn from previous research (e.g., Fielding et al., 2008). Participants responded on
187 bipolar 7-point scales that ranged from -3 to +3 (e.g., -3 extremely bad, -2 quite bad, -1
188 slightly bad, 0 neither, +1 slightly good, +2 quite good, +3 extremely good). The mean of
189 the six items formed a reliable scale ($\alpha = .90$) with higher values indicating more positive
190 attitudes to household recycling. Perceived community recycling norms were assessed
191 with three items: “Most members of my community currently recycle” (1 strongly
192 disagree, 7 strongly agree), “Most members of my community would think that my
193 recycling my waste is: (1 undesirable, 7 desirable)”, and “How much agreement is there
194 amongst members of your community that recycling is a good thing? (1 very little
195 agreement, 7 a great deal of agreement)”. The mean of the three items formed a reliable
196 scale ($\alpha = .70$) with higher values indicating more supportive community recycling norms.
197 Perceived control was measured in two ways: Ease of recycling was measured by asking
198 how easy it is for the household to separate their waste into recyclable and non-recyclable
199 items, measured on a 7-point scale (1 = very difficult, 7 = very easy). Objective recycling
200 knowledge was measured through presenting respondents with a list of 18 items and
201 asking them to indicate whether they could be recycled or not (yes, no, not sure).
202 Responses were coded 1 for a correct answer (e.g., correctly identifying that paper,
203 newspaper and magazines can be recycled) and 0 for incorrect (e.g., incorrectly saying that

204 light bulbs can be recycled). Responses to each of the 18 items were summed to form an
205 index of recycling knowledge, with higher scores representing greater knowledge.

206 Self-reported recycling was measured with one item: “How much of your total
207 household waste do you think you recycle?” (1, none at all, 2 a little, 3 a medium amount,
208 4 quite a lot, 5 all that can be recycled). Participants also reported their gender and age
209 category (e.g., 30 - 39) as well as the number of people in the household. The highest level
210 of education of the respondents as well as the highest level in the household was assessed
211 (e.g., primary school, secondary school, trade/technical qualification, university).

212 Objective household recycling was assessed with bin audits that were conducted by a
213 professional waste audit company who were blind to the aims of the research. Both the
214 recycling and ordinary waste bin for each household were audited to assess the amount (in
215 kilograms) of materials put in the recycling bin, the amount of recyclable material put in
216 the ordinary waste bin, and the amount of recyclable material put in plastic bags in the
217 recycling bin (note that in the area studied, recyclables in plastic bags could not be
218 recycled at the time). We computed a proportional measure of recycling that represents the
219 amount of materials that were accurately recycled of all possible materials that could be
220 recycled. We did this by dividing the amount of recyclable materials correctly put in the
221 recycling bin by the total of recyclable materials (materials that were correctly put in the
222 recycling bin + recyclable materials put in the normal rubbish bin + recyclable materials
223 put in plastic bags). Thus, the measure could range from 0 indicating that none of the
224 recyclable materials were correctly recycled to 1 indicating that all recyclable materials
225 were correctly recycled.

226 **2.2 Results and discussion**

227 The means, standard deviations and correlations amongst variables are shown in
228 Table 1. On average, respondents reported recycling between “quite a lot” and “all that
229 can be recycled”. Mean objective recycling levels were .70 indicating that households

230 correctly recycled 70% of all materials that could be recycled. Mean levels of recycling
 231 attitudes, norms, and ease of sorting were all relatively high. Objective recycling
 232 knowledge was relatively high with respondents on average identifying correctly whether
 233 or not 14 of the 18 materials could be recycled. The focal correlation between self-
 234 reported and objective recycling was positive and significant but weak indicating that the
 235 more householders reported that they recycled, the more the household objectively
 236 recycled. Inspection of Table 1 also shows that self-reported recycling had stronger
 237 relationships with community recycling norms and ease of sorting than objective
 238 recycling, a pattern that is consistent with the notion that self-reports reflect a
 239 psychological reality rather than ‘actual’ reality (Corral-Verdugo, 1997). It is also evident
 240 that objective recycling is significantly and weakly negatively related to the number of
 241 people in the house and significantly and weakly positively related to recycling
 242 knowledge.

243 Table 1. Means, standard deviations and bivariate correlations between variables

Variable	M (SD)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Self-reported recycling	3.65 (.95)	-						
2. Objective recycling	.70 (.26)	.26**						
3. No in the house	3.00 (1.51)	-.13	-.21*					
4. Attitude	2.23 (.94)	.12	.06	.08				
5. Community norm	5.19 (1.05)	.38**	-.03	-.19	.21*			
6. Ease of sorting	5.93 (1.21)	.48**	.18	-.11	.25**	.26**		
7. Recycling knowledge	14.25 (2.19)	.24*	.29**	-.12	.11	.28**	.25*	-

244 * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

245 2.2.1 Hypothesis testing

246 To address Hypothesis 1 and 2, we ran a series of moderated regression analyses
 247 using Hayes (2013) Process macro, testing number of people in the household, attitudes,

248 perceived community norms, ease, and recycling knowledge as potential moderators.
249 Continuous predictor variables were centred prior to being included in the model. Note
250 that the Process macro provides unstandardized regression coefficients for the main effects
251 and interaction terms. Although two outliers were identified on the variable, the number of
252 people in the household, excluding these cases did not influence the results, and therefore
253 they were retained for analysis. As preliminary analyses controlling for demographic
254 variables (age, gender, household education) did not influence the findings, these variables
255 were not included in the focal analyses.

256 Hypothesis 1 predicted that there would be a stronger relationship between self-
257 reported recycling and objective measures of household recycling in households with
258 fewer people rather than more people. Consistent with the correlations in Table 1, Table 2
259 shows that there was a significant negative relationship between number of people in the
260 house and objective recycling, and a significant positive relationship between self-reported
261 recycling and objective household recycling outcomes. The interaction between the
262 number of people in the household and self-reported recycling, however, was not
263 significant and therefore Hypothesis 1 was not supported.

264

265

266 Table 2. Regression analysis testing moderators of the relationship between self-reported
 267 household recycling and objective household recycling

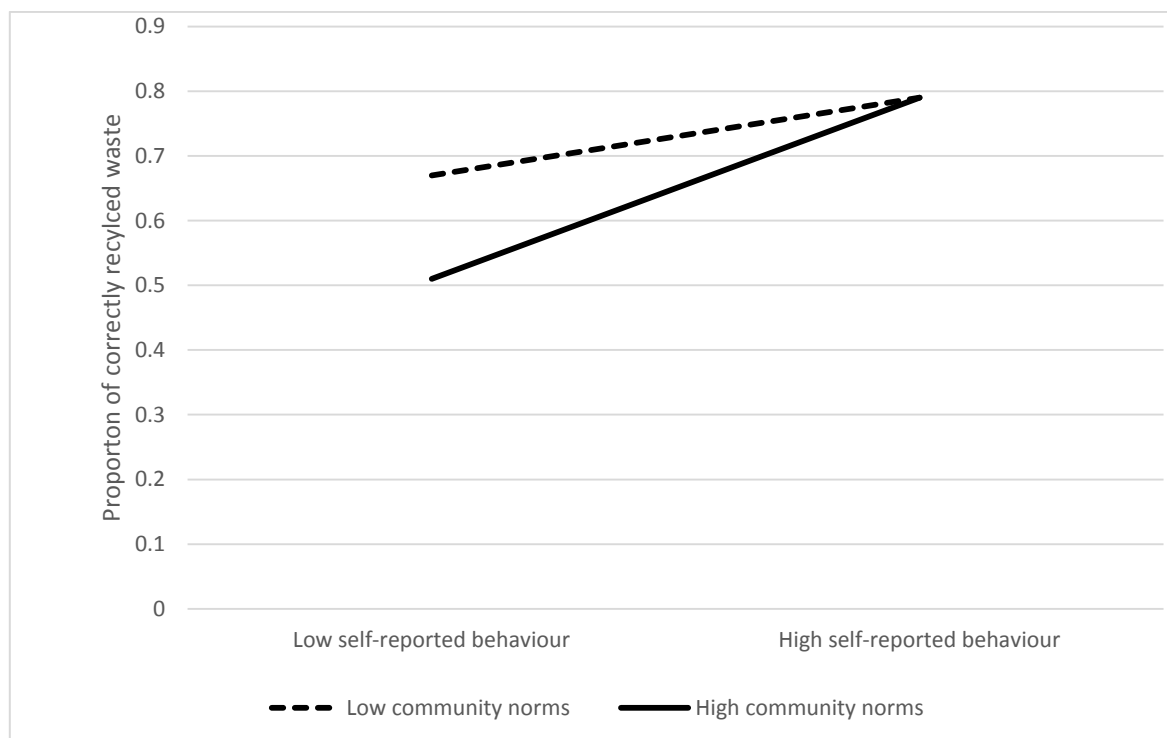
	B	se	t	p
Model 1 $R=.33$, $R^2=.11$, $F(3,99) = 4.10$, $p=.009$				
No in house	-.035	.017	-2.05	.043
Self-reported recycling	.064	.026	2.44	.017
No in house x self-reported recycling	-.019	.017	-1.10	.274
Model 2 $R=.26$, $R^2=.07$, $F(3,111) = 2.68$, $p=.05$				
Attitude	.001	.026	.367	.714
Self-reported recycling	.070	.026	2.72	.019
Attitude x self-reported recycling	.008	.030	.281	.779
Model 3 $R=.35$, $R^2=.12$, $F(3,105) = 4.92$, $p=.003$				
Community norms	-.038	.025	-1.54	.126
Self-reported recycling	.104	.028	3.69	.048
Community norms x self-reported recycling	.041	.023	1.80	.074
Model 4 $R=.29$, $R^2=.08$, $F(3,110) = 3.34$, $p=.022$				
Ease	.031	.026	1.18	.242
Self-reported recycling	.056	.030	1.91	.059
Ease x Self-reported recycling	.026	.022	1.18	.242
Model 5 $R=.35$, $R^2=.13$, $F(3,102) = 4.90$, $p=.003$				
Recycling knowledge	.032	.012	2.75	.007
Self-reported recycling	.046	.026	1.75	.084
Recycling knowledge x self-reported recycling	.012	.011	1.07	.288

268 Note. Degrees of freedom vary due to missing values on some variables.

269

270 To test Hypothesis 2 that attitudes, community norms, behavioural control
 271 (assessed in this study as ease and knowledge) may moderate the relationship between
 272 self-reported and objective recycling, four regression analyses were run each including
 273 one of the variables as a potential moderator. Note that inclusion of the other potential

274 moderators as covariates (e.g., when testing the interaction with community norms,
275 attitudes, ease, and knowledge were included as covariates) did not change the
276 significance of the interactions and for simplicity they are not included in the model. Table
277 2 shows that the interaction between perceived community recycling norms and self-
278 reported recycling approached significance ($p = .074$), but none of the other interactions
279 was significant. We followed up this marginal interaction by conducting simple slopes
280 examining the relationship between self-reported recycling and objective recycling at
281 higher perceived community recycling norms (i.e., one standard deviation above the
282 mean) and at lower perceived community recycling norms (i.e., one standard deviation
283 below the mean). The simple slopes analysis revealed that self-reported behaviour was
284 only marginally significantly related to objective recycling when respondents perceived
285 less support for recycling in the community ($\beta = .22$, $t = 1.85$, $p = .068$), but there was a
286 significant and positive relationship when respondents perceived more recycling in the
287 community ($\beta = .523$, $t = 3.61$, $p < .001$) (see Figure 1).



288

289 Figure 1. Perceived community norm x self-reported behaviour interaction on objective
290 recycling (i.e., proportion of correctly recycled waste)

291 In summary, results of Study 1 demonstrated a significant but weak positive
292 relationship between individual self-reports of how much waste a household recycles and
293 objective measures of household recycling. The number of people in the house did not
294 moderate the relationship between self-reported recycling and objective household
295 recycling. However, there was some indication that the relationship was stronger when
296 respondents had greater perception that others in the community are recycling. Although
297 this finding must be treated with caution as it did not reach conventional levels of
298 significance, it nevertheless suggests that there might be a stronger alignment between
299 what householders say their household does and what they actually do when there are
300 stronger perceptions that others in the community are participating in the behavior: that is,
301 when there is greater normative support for the behaviour.

302 **3. Study 2**

303 In the second study we test the hypotheses in the context of household water
304 conservation. Like recycling, household water conservation is the outcome of accumulated
305 actions on the part of (sometimes) multiple household members. Study 2 allows a more
306 rigorous test of the hypotheses in that we collected a larger sample and were able to access
307 household water use for the six months preceding the survey. The second study also
308 allowed us to test the hypotheses in a different, and potentially more complex, behavioural
309 domain. In Study 2, norms were measured as subjective norms, that is, perceived support
310 from important others to engage in a behaviour; perceived behavioural control was
311 assessed through self-efficacy in relation to water conservation.

312 **3.1 Method**

313 **3.1.1 Participants and Procedure**

314 Participants were recruited via an online panel and through direct mail from four
315 local government areas in the South East Queensland Region of Australia. The survey,
316 part of a larger project focused on household water conservation, was conducted in

317 September 2009 and household water use was collected for the 6 months preceding the
318 survey. The research was presented as a study about household water use in South East
319 Queensland. Direct mail participants were sent a small incentive (tea bag and pen) with
320 the questionnaire and online panel participants were provided a small financial incentive
321 (AUD 10) for their participation. Because of the need to obtain objective measures of
322 water use, participants were homeowners of a free-standing dwelling who were not
323 intending to move residence in the next 12 months and who provided consent to access
324 their household water use data from the appropriate water utility. Only households who
325 completed a survey and for whom water data could be accessed were included in the
326 analysis for this study.

327 In total, 1179 surveys were returned via the direct mail recruitment method (27%
328 response rate) while 570 households completed the online survey (79% response rate).
329 The final sample of households for whom objective water use data was available (i.e., who
330 provided consent to access their data) was 1008: 868 households recruited via direct mail
331 and 140 recruited via online panel. The mean age of the sample was 54.67 (SD = 14.73)
332 with a range of 18 to 95 years. There were 43.2% males and 56.6% females, and the mean
333 household size was 2.70 (SD = 1.31) with a range of 1 to 10. Household income was
334 relatively evenly spread with the majority of households (61%) earning under \$90,000 per
335 annum (18% <\$30,000, 21% \$30,000 – 59,999, 23% \$60,000 – 89,999) and 24% over
336 \$90,000; 15% did not report their income.

337 3.1.2 Measures

338 At the beginning of the questionnaire, water conservation was defined for
339 participants as everyday actions to save water around the house and garden, and a list of
340 these actions was provided (i.e., those behaviours that were asked about in the
341 questionnaire). Attitudes were measured with five of the six items from Study 1 (excluding
342 the favourable/unfavourable item). The mean of the five items formed a reliable scale with

343 higher values indicating more positive attitudes ($\alpha = .73$). Subjective norms were measured
344 with three items, such as, “People who are important to me want me to save water around
345 the house and garden”, and “It is expected of me that I save water around the house and
346 garden” (1 = Strongly disagree, 7 = Strongly agree). The mean of the three items formed a
347 reasonably reliable scale with higher values indicating more supportive subjective norms
348 ($\alpha = .61$). Self-efficacy was assessed with the item: “How confident do you feel in general
349 about your ability to save water? (1 = not at all confident, 7 = very confident).
350 Demographic variables included age, gender, household gross annual income,
351 respondents’ highest level of education as well as the focal variable, number of people
352 who live in the household. Water efficient infrastructure was assessed by asking
353 respondents to indicate whether they had installed each of ten water efficient appliances
354 (e.g., low flow taps and/or shower heads on all fittings, water-wise plants and/or gardens,
355 dual-flush or composting toilet, shower timer, rainwater tank plumbed into the house,
356 water-wise washing machine, water efficient dishwasher). A water efficient appliance
357 index was computed that reflected the number of appliances installed with values that
358 could range from 0 to 10.

359 Self-reported water conservation behaviour was measured by asking householders
360 how often in the last six months they had engaged in six water conservation actions (check
361 and fix leaks, have shorter showers, use half flush or don’t flush every time, only do full
362 loads of washing, use minimal water in kitchen, turn off taps when brushing teeth).
363 Responses were measured on a 5-point scale (1 = Never, 5 = Always). A self-reported
364 behaviour index was created by adding participants’ responses for each of the behaviours.
365 The index could range from 6 to 30 with higher values representing greater reported
366 engagement in water conservation habits. Note that we included only indoor water using
367 behaviours in the self-report index, as outdoor behaviours did not apply to all households.

368 This introduces a methodological reason for lower correspondence between self-report and
369 objective outcomes, which we return to in the discussion.

370 Objective household water use was assessed by accessing the average daily water
371 use for each household for the six months preceding the survey from the appropriate water
372 utility. Household water use was positively skewed; therefore, consistent with past
373 research (Campbell, Johnson, & Larson, 2004), it was log transformed.

374 **3.2 Results and discussion**

375 3.2.1 Overview of analyses

376 Table 3 shows the means, standard deviations and the bivariate correlations among
377 the focal variables. On average, respondents reported high levels of water conservation
378 behaviours and very positive attitudes towards engaging in water conservation behaviours.
379 Subjective norms and self-efficacy were also relatively high, and respondents had installed
380 an average of 5 out of a possible 10 water efficient appliances in their home. The focal
381 correlation between self-reported behaviour and objective household water use was
382 negative and significant, albeit weak. This demonstrates that the more water conservation
383 behaviours that respondents said their household engages in, the less water they had used.
384 Further inspection of the correlations shows that self-reported behaviour was most
385 strongly correlated with self-efficacy, and to a lesser degree with attitudes, subjective
386 norms, and water efficient appliances. Not surprisingly, objective water use was positively
387 and strongly correlated with the number of people in the household. To a lesser degree,
388 objective water use was negatively and significantly correlated with self-efficacy, and
389 positively and significantly correlated with water efficient appliances, although the latter
390 correlation is weak. The correlation between efficient appliances and water use is
391 surprising in that it suggests that the more of these that households have, the more water
392 they use.

393

394 Table 3. Means, standard deviations, and bivariate correlations for Study focal variables

Variable	M SD	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.
1. Self-reported behavior	26.72 (2.84)	-						
2. Objective water use	388.50 (254.74)	.17**						
3. No. in home	2.69 (1.30)	-.08*	.50**					
4. Efficient appliances	5.17 (2.10)	.24**	.10**	.16**				
5. Attitudes	6.28 (.63)	.29**	-.07*	.04	.14**			
6. Subjective norms	5.75 (.85)	.27**	.01	-.01	.09**	.31**		
7. Self-efficacy	5.78 (1.08)	.43**	-.16**	-.02	.22**	.35**	.24**	-

395 Note. * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; water use is in litres per household per day; self-reported
396 behaviour could range from 6 – 30; efficient appliances could range from 0 – 10; attitudes,
397 subjective norms, and self-efficacy were all measured on 7-point scales
398

399 3.2.2 Hypothesis testing

400 The same analytic approach was taken in Study 2 as in Study 1 except that in
401 Study 2, the water efficient appliance index was included as a control variable. As in
402 Study 1, all continuous predictor variables were centred prior to analysis.

403 The first model tested Hypothesis 1 that the relationship between self-reported
404 water conservation and objective water use would be moderated by the number of people
405 in the house. Consistent with the correlations shown in Table 3, the number of people in
406 the house emerged as a significant positive predictor of household water use, and self-
407 reported water conservation behaviour emerged as a significant negative predictor. The
408 interaction term, however, was not significant indicating that the relationship between
409 self-reported behaviour and objective behaviour was not moderated by the number of

410 people in the household. This finding is consistent with the results of Study 1 that also
411 found no moderating effect of the number of people in the household.

412 Models 2 to 4 tested the hypothesis that attitudes, subjective norms, and self-
413 efficacy would moderate the relationship between self-reported behaviour and objective
414 household outcomes. Note that preliminary analyses controlling for the other potential
415 moderators in each analysis (e.g., when testing the interaction with attitudes we controlled
416 for subjective norms and self-efficacy) showed that inclusion of these covariates did not
417 change the significance of the interactions. For simplicity we therefore only include the
418 focal moderator in each model. As Table 4 shows, there was a significant interaction
419 between attitudes and self-reported water conservation behaviour, subjective norms and
420 self-reported behaviour, and self-efficacy and self-reported behaviour. We conducted
421 simple slopes to follow up these interactions. As Figure 2 shows, the relationship between
422 self-reported water conservation behaviour and objective household water use was
423 stronger when respondents reported more favourable attitudes ($\beta = -.31, t = -6.34, p < .001$)
424 than when they reported less favourable attitudes to water conservation ($\beta = -.13, t = -3.18,$
425 $p = .002$). The pattern was the same for the other two interactions: the relationship between
426 self-reported water conservation and objective household water use was stronger when
427 respondents reported more supportive subjective norms ($\beta = -.32, t = -6.57, p < .001$) than
428 when they reported less supportive subjective norms ($\beta = -.17, t = -4.23, p < .001$) and there
429 was a stronger relationship between self-reported behaviour and objective water use when
430 self-efficacy was higher ($\beta = -.29, t = -5.77, p < .001$) than lower ($\beta = -.09, t = -2.40,$
431 $p = .017$).

432

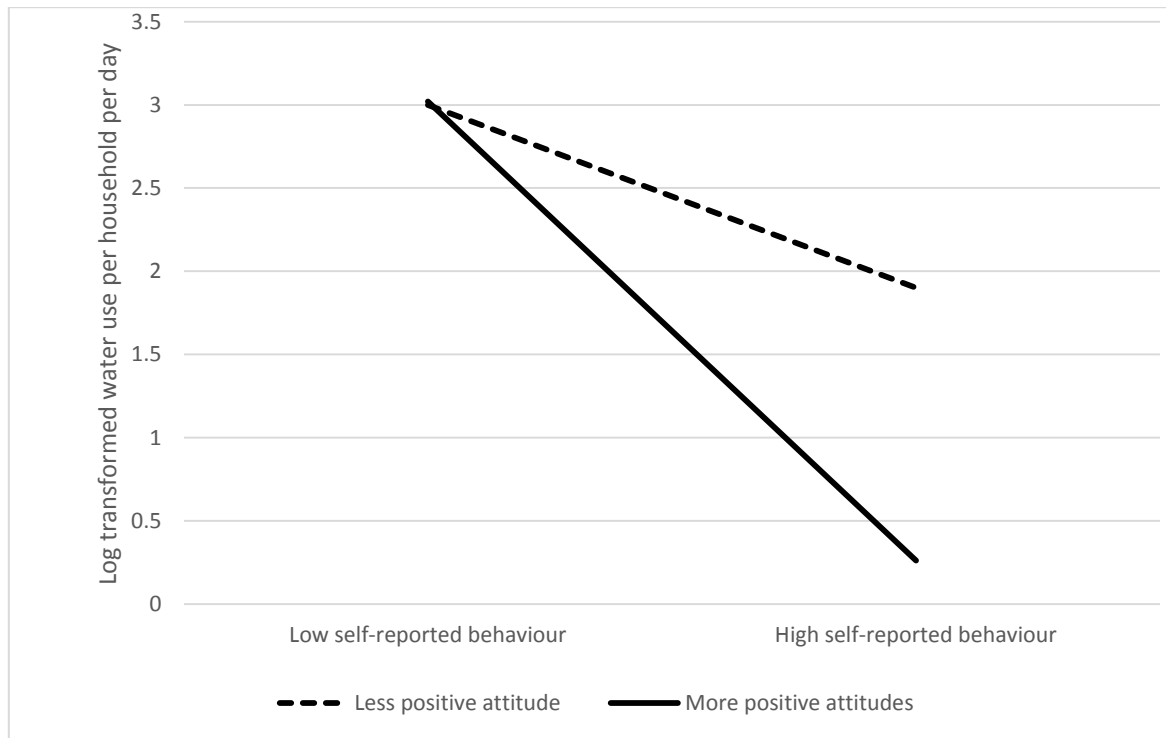
433 Table 4. Regression analysis testing moderators of the relationship between self-reported
 434 water conservation and objective household water use

	b	se	t	p
Model 1 $R=.52$, $R^2=.27$, $F(4,890) = 83.16$, $p<.001$				
No in house	.097	.006	16.58	.000
Self-reported water conservation	-.014	.003	-4.98	.000
No in house x self-reported water conservation	.001	.002	.540	.589
Water efficient appliances	.006	.004	1.57	.116
Model 2 $R=.24$, $R^2=.06$, $F(4, 894) = 14.04$, $p<.001$				
Attitude	-.017	.015	-1.18	.240
Self-reported recycling	-.021	.015	-6.31	.000
Attitude x self-reported recycling	-.014	.004	-3.21	.001
Water efficient appliances	.017	.004	4.03	.000
Model 3 $R=.24$, $R^2=.06$, $F(4, 892) = 13.80$, $p<.001$				
Subjective norms	.011	.011	1.01	.313
Self-reported recycling	-.023	.004	-6.80	.000
Subjective norms x self-reported recycling	-.008	.003	-2.91	.003
Water efficient appliances	.017	.004	4.17	.000
Model 4 $R=.28$, $R^2=.08$, $F(4,894) = 19.46$, $p<.001$				
Self-efficacy	-.042	.009	-4.69	.000
Self-reported recycling	-.018	.004	-5.07	.000
Self-efficacy x Self-reported recycling	-.009	.002	-4.19	.000
Water efficient appliances	.018	.004	4.44	.000

435 Note. Degrees of freedom vary due to missing values on some variables.

436

437



438

439 Figure 2. Attitude x self-reported behaviour interaction on objective household water use

440

441 In summary, Study 2 shows a significant, albeit weak negative relationship
 442 between self-reported household conservation behaviour and objective household water
 443 use: respondents who reported more household water conservation had lower household
 444 water use. There is no evidence that reporting on the behaviour of more people in the
 445 household undermines the correspondence between self-reported water conservation
 446 behaviour and objective household water use. Instead, the current findings suggest that it
 447 is the extent to which people feel more positive toward water conservation, perceive that
 448 important others support water conservation, and feel greater self-efficacy in relation to
 449 water conservation that guides the extent to which self-reported behaviour and objective
 450 outcomes are in alignment. Hence, the correspondence is lower when attitudes, subjective
 451 norms, or perceived control are more negative, and stronger when these variables are more
 452 pro-conservation.

453 **4. General discussion**

454 The focus of the current research was to investigate how well individual self-
455 reports of household recycling and water conservation map on to actual household
456 environmental outcomes and also to explore whether there are moderators of this
457 relationship. The results were consistent across the two studies: in both studies there was a
458 significant but weak relationship between self-reported behaviour and objective measures
459 of behaviour, that is, proportion of materials correctly recycled in Study 1 and amount of
460 water used in Study 2. Past studies have shown stronger correlations between self-reported
461 and observed behavior (Corral-Verdugo, 1997; Corral-Verdugo & Figueredo, 1999;
462 Kormos & Gifford, 2014). Recycling and water conservation are environmental domains
463 that rely on a range of behaviours, and this complexity may make it more likely for self-
464 reports to be influenced by self-perceptual biases.

465 Our findings both support and qualify the use of self-reported household behaviour
466 by individuals as a proxy for objective household behaviour. We demonstrate a consistent
467 and significant relationship between the measures across the two studies, but the low
468 correlations also confirm the importance of trying to find ways to increase this
469 correspondence. The health literature has focused on the validity and accuracy of self-
470 reported behaviour and suggests that strategies that could improve self-report accuracy
471 include ensuring that respondents understand the questions, wording questions in ways
472 that reduce social desirability bias, ensuring response options are clear, exhaustive, and
473 mutually exclusive, and using a “bogus pipeline” approach whereby respondents believe
474 that their self-reports can be objectively verified (Newell, Girgis, Sanson-Fisher, &
475 Savolainen, 1999). In relation to self-reported pro-environmental behaviour, Kormos and
476 Gifford (2014) highlight the need for more precise and less vague response options (e.g.,
477 ‘sometimes’, ‘often’).

478 We reasoned that one barrier to greater correspondence between self-reported and
479 objective household behaviour might be that it is difficult for individuals to have access to

480 the behaviour of all householders. Therefore they might be more accurate in their reports
481 (and therefore there will be greater correspondence between measures) when they are
482 reporting only on their own behaviour or that of a small number of individuals rather than
483 a larger number of householders (Hypothesis 1). Across the two studies we did not find
484 any evidence for this hypothesis in that the number of people in the household did not
485 moderate the relationship between self-reported and objective behaviour. Instead, in
486 support of Hypothesis 2, the results of the two studies suggest that it is the extent to which
487 people have more positive attitudes to water conservation (Study 2) and perceive more
488 supportive norms (Study 1 & 2) or feel greater self-efficacy (Study 2) that influences the
489 correspondence between self-reports and objective behaviour.

490 These findings make sense from the perspective of the theory of planned behaviour
491 (Ajzen, 1991). According to this model, when people have more positive attitudes,
492 perceive more supportive norms, and have a sense that they can easily undertake the
493 behaviour, they have stronger intentions, which is considered a measure of their
494 motivation toward the behaviour. What our findings suggest is that holding more positive
495 attitudes, perceiving more normative support and having greater self-efficacy made it
496 more likely for respondents to give a more accurate account of household behaviour, one
497 where there was closer alignment between what respondents said the household does and
498 what they actually do. One way to think about this finding is that these psychological
499 variables attune people more to the reality of the household's behaviour. For example, if
500 you think recycling is important and a beneficial thing to do and/or if you think it is
501 something that others approve of and are engaging in, you may be more likely to notice
502 how well your household is performing on this dimension, and more accurate in your
503 reporting. Of course, whether this pattern extends beyond the household environmental
504 domains of recycling and water conservation remains a question for future research.

505 **5 Limitations and conclusions**

506 5.1 Limitations

507 In the current research we used environmental outcomes as the measure of
508 objective behaviour. Although this is relatively straightforward for recycling—the
509 proportion of recycling is made up of the individual recycling actions of household
510 members—water conservation is a more complex environmental domain. The amount of
511 water that is saved not only depends on the actions of household members but also the
512 number of water using appliances in the household and the water efficiency of those
513 appliances. For this reason we would expect to see lower correspondence between self-
514 reports of water conservation and objective water conservation than for some other
515 environmental domains because other factors influence overall household water use. As
516 noted earlier, we measured self-reported behaviour in relation to indoor water use whereas
517 objective water use reflects both indoor and outdoor uses. The relationship between self-
518 reported and objective water conservation behaviour could be diminished because of this.
519 It is important to note, though, that water end-use research conducted with a sample of
520 households from this study showed that less than 5% of household water use at the time of
521 the research was attributable to outdoor water use (Beal, Stewart & Fielding, 2011). Thus,
522 external water use alone cannot explain the magnitude of the discrepancies. Future
523 research might explore ways of attuning people to their water usage more closely, for
524 example by making usage more immediately visible to householders.

525 **5.2 Conclusion**

526 In conclusion, the current research goes beyond past studies that have examined
527 the correspondence between self-reported and objective measures of environmental
528 behaviour by examining this question in the context of complex household behaviours.
529 We show significant relationships between individuals' self-reports of household
530 behaviour and objective household outcomes, although the correspondence is relatively
531 weak. We also show that correspondence is greater when individual respondents report

532 more positive attitudes, perceive greater normative support, and feel more self-efficacy in
533 relation to the behaviour, suggesting that psychological variables influence the accuracy of
534 their reports. Not only are respondents who are less pro-environment in their attitudes,
535 norms, and control perceptions less likely to engage in pro-environmental behaviours,
536 their reports of environmental behaviour may also be less accurate than are more pro-
537 environment respondents' self-reports. These findings highlight the importance of
538 multiple modes of data collection and the importance of considering the collective nature
539 of environmental behaviour in future research. In light of the practical and financial
540 barriers to surveying multiple householders, they also highlight the need for future
541 research to find ways to improve the accuracy of individuals' responses.

542

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