JYVÄSKYLÄ STUDIES IN BUSINESS AND ECONOMICS
188

Kukka-Maaria Ulvila

"Good for Nature – Good for You"?

Values and Sustainable Food Consumption – Promoting Sustainably Produced Food Products to Finnish Consumers

JYVÄSKYLÄN YLIOPISTO

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Esitetään Jyväskylän yliopiston kauppakorkeakoulun suostumuksella
julkisesti tarkastettavaksi yliopiston Agora-rakennuksen Lea Pulkkisen salissa
toukokuun 25. päivänä 2018 kello 12.

Academic dissertation to be publicly discussed, by permission of
the Jyväskylä University School of Business and Economics,
in building Agora, Lea Pulkkinen hall, on May 25, 2018 at 12 o'clock noon.

UNIVERSITY OF JYVÄSKYLÄ

JYVÄSKYLÄ 2018

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Permanent link to this publication: http://urn.fi/URN:ISBN:978-951-39-7432-9

URN:ISBN:978-951-39-7432-9
ISBN 978-951-39-7432-9 (PDF)

ISBN 978-951-39-7431-2 (print)
ISSN 1457-1986

Jyväskylä University Printing House, Jyväskylä 2018

ABSTRACT

Ulvila, Kukka-Maaria
"Good for Nature – Good for You"? Values and Sustainable Food Consumption – Promoting Sustainably Produced Food Products to Finnish Consumers
Jyväskylä: University of Jyväskylä, 2018, 210 p.
(Studies in Business and Economics
ISSN 1457-1986; 188)
ISBN 978-951-39-7431-2 (print)
ISBN 978-951-39-7432-9 (PDF)

Food consumption and food choices are a vital part of humans' lifestyles. In addition, it is widely acknowledged that food is one of the key consumption contexts for environmental and social impacts around the world. The purpose of this study is to contribute to the discussion on promoting sustainable food consumption. More specifically, this study provides insights into the promotion of sustainably produced food to consumers as well as into the value orientations linked with sustainable food consumption. This dissertation contributes to the existing literature on sustainable food consumption by showing that such consumption may be motivated by a plethora of value orientations – and their combinations – and that it is not only pro-environmental or green consumption. The first aim of this study is to understand and describe what the values associated with sustainably produced food are. The second aim is to provide information on consumers' perceptions of the importance of the different dimensions of corporate responsibility (CR) in the Finnish food sector and what food chain CR dimensions consumers want to be informed about. Finally, the third aim is to provide insight into consumers' perceptions of the communication channels used to promote sustainably produced food to consumers. In order to accomplish these aims, a mixed-methods research approach is used. The main result of this study suggests that different value orientations are not necessarily mutually exclusive when considering sustainable consumption. In addition, this research shows that sustainable food consumption decisions are very much guided by habits and convenience, and motivated by a plethora of value orientations and their combinations. Consumers, furthermore, are interested in sustainability and the different dimensions of food chain CR, and they want clear, reliable and conveniently available information about these issues. The study also offers insight on which communication channels could be effective when communicating about the responsibility and sustainability of the food chain to consumers. In addition to yielding new information about the barriers and motivational factors regarding sustainable food consumption as well as the values associated with sustainably produced food, the research results can help to plan more effective promotion of sustainably produced food in the future.

Keywords: sustainable consumption, food, values, corporate responsibility, food chain, communications

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The author T. S. Eliot once said "The journey, not the destination matters". Now as I am finally reaching the destination of this long process of completing my doctoral dissertation, I can agree whole-heartedly with Mr. Eliot. Writing this doctoral dissertation has been an eventful journey with its ups and downs, and it has offered me the possibility to contemplate, not only research and methodological choices, but also my life and my life choices.

Like on any journey, good travelling companions can make the journey more enjoyable and less taxing. I have been extremely lucky to have had excellent travelling companions who have supported me during this journey. I would like to thank my supervisor Professor Hanna-Leena Pesonen for guidance and words of advice as well as for giving me the opportunity to pursue my doctoral studies. In addition, I would like to thank my second supervisor Senior Researcher Marjo Siltaoja for her invaluable advice and support especially during the final stages of my research process.

I would also like to thank my opponent Assistant Professor Hanna Leipämaa-Leskinen and my external reviewer Associate Professor Jessica Aschemann-Witzel for their valuable comments and the time and effort they have given to review my dissertation. I also want to thank Assistant Professor Hanna Leipämaa-Leskinen for accepting the invitation to serve as the opponent in the public defence of my dissertation. Moreover, I would like to thank Senior University Lecturer Leena Lankoski for her helpful comments that helped me improve my dissertation.

I am extremely grateful for financial support that I have received from the Jenny and Antti Wihuri Foundation, the Foundation for Economic Education, OLVI-Säätiö Foundation and the Jyväskylä University School of Business and Economics. I have also had the pleasure to work in two research projects: Bridging the Value-Action Gap – Combining Producers, Consumers and Expert Perspectives for Sustainable Food Consumption (BRIGADE) funded by the Academy of Finland and Developing Food Chain Responsibility into Business Opportunities (FoodChainCR) funded by Tekes. This financial support as well as the support from the research groups is also highly appreciated.

For all the invaluable peer-support in both scientific as well as in everyday situations, I would like to thank all my fellow Ph. D. candidates who have been my travelling companions during this long journey: Kristiina Joensuu, Stefan Baumeister, Susanna Horn, Angelina Korsunova, Taneli Vaskelainen and Suvi Heikkinen as well as all my other colleagues on the Corporate Environmental Management research team and in the Jyväskylä University School of Business and Economics. In addition, I would like to express my deepest gratitude to Senior Researcher Tiina Onkila for the encouragement, advice and inspiration and for being the best colleague one could ever hope for. I also want to thank Senior Researcher Ari Paloviita for support and advice particularly in the beginning of my doctoral studies.

Finally my deepest gratitude goes to my family. I thank my mother Tarja and my father Heikki for their endless support, encouragement and always being there for me and believing in me. It really means the world to me! Last but definitely not least, Simo kiitos tuestasi kaikkien näiden vuosien aikana. Kiitos, että olet jaksanut olla matkakumppaninani ja muistuttaa minua siitä, mikä elämässä oikeasti on tärkeää ja merkityksellistä.

Jyväskylä, April 2018
Kukka-Maaria Ulvila

FIGURE

TABLE

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1 INTRODUCTION

1.1 Motivation to study sustainable food consumption, values and communication

Currently, we have virtually unlimited possibilities to purchase any kind of food we wish from super- and hypermarkets. We are, for instance, accustomed to having the opportunity to buy exotic fruits and berries in the middle of winter, and we can choose from a plethora of different foods that best suit our lifestyle choices – from disciplined, health-consciousness to the most indulgent hedonism. At the same time, however, consumers are bombarded with information about how their food choices contribute to complex issues such as climate change, the exploitation of workers in less developed countries, and the various health and animal welfare issues related to industrial animal agriculture.

It is widely agreed that consumers' consumption choices contribute to ecological and social problems both directly, in the form of emissions from the consumption of goods and services, and indirectly, in the form of demand for products and services that cause adverse impacts along the value chain (Jackson & Michaelis, 2003; Jackson, 2005; Belz & Peattie, 2009; Banterle et al., 2013). For example, food production and consumption cause significant environmental impacts, such as emissions of greenhouse gases, erosion, eutrophication and waste (Tanner & Kast, 2003; Seppälä et al., 2009).

Although research has shown that consumers are increasingly aware of sustainability-related issues such as environmental degradation, climate change and the power of multinational corporations (Auger et al., 2007), it has also been shown that consumers do not necessarily equate their consumption choices with the environmental crisis or see them as something that has a negative impact on sustainability (Connolly & Prothero, 2003). Moreover, the environmental or social impacts of one's consumption choices may still be unknown to the consumer (Stern, 2000; Jackson, 2005; Moisander, 2007), and

consumers often have limited knowledge of agriculture, food production processes and their implications for environmental and social sustainability (Vermeir & Verbeke, 2006). Despite the fact that there still is no common understanding on what sustainable consumption is, it cannot be denied that the negative impacts of excessive consumption in the affluent countries needs to be reduced in order to strive towards sustainability (Schrader & Thøgersen, 2011). Moreover, voluntary sustainable consumption is encouraged by, for instance, educating consumers on desirable behaviour and allowing them to make choices in the marketplace.

Nowadays, it is essential that actors in the food supply chain, such as food producers and retailers, offer more sustainable food products to consumers and actively inform consumers about the more sustainable alternatives. In addition, motivating sustainable consumption can be viewed as a part of the corporate responsibility (CR) of different food chain actors. In this study, the food supply chain comprises the following actors: agricultural producers, the food processing industry, food wholesalers, food retailers and consumers. Consumers are seen as active actors in the food supply chain. Particularly in so-called alternative food chains, such as organic chains, the relationship between consumers and food producers is of greater importance than it is in the conventional, industrialised food chains, since clear signals of the origin of the food and the method of production are given from the producers to the consumers (Marsden et al., 2000).

This thesis contributes to the discussion on how sustainable food products are promoted to consumers. Food consumption and food choices are a vital part of humans' lifestyles. In addition, food is one of the key consumption contexts in terms of environmental and social impacts in the world. Thus, sustainable food consumption and sustainably produced food products are something that should be promoted actively to consumers. Moreover, promotion plays a key role when informing consumers about the environmental and social impacts of their food and other consumption choices (Belz & Peattie, 2009). Food is also a basic need that cannot be substituted or renounced (Tobler et al., 2011). Consumers' food choice is a complex phenomenon and consumers have to make multiple choices on a daily basis (Luomala et al., 2004 ; Leipämaa-Leskinen, 2009). Consumers associate various values with food and seek enjoyment, health, convenience, emotional experiences, familiarity, novelty and ways of impressing others from their food choices (Martins & Pilner, 1998; Leipämaa-Leskinen, 2009). Previous research has indicated that humans do not eat only to get the necessary nutrients in order to stay alive. Food also has the power to bring up memories and evoke feelings, and our food choices tell something about us, our values, personal identity and status to other consumers (Dolan, 2002; Hansen, 2010; Yeoman, 2011; Cronin et al., 2014; Emontspool & Georgi, 2016).

Previous research has also acknowledged that a number of social and individual factors and issues have influence on how sustainable food consumption is perceived. The starting point of this research is that values are a

central context that combines these social and individual perspectives. More specifically, values are inherently individual, but they are learned in a socialisation process (Schwartz, 1992). Consumers' values influence and guide their behaviour and responses during purchasing as well as how consumers perceive and react to communication campaigns (Belz & Peattie, 2009). Moreover, values may play an important role in consumer decision-making processes when choosing a sustainable product or brand (Vermeir & Verbeke, 2006), since connecting product features related to sustainability to consumer values may help consumers identify the benefits of the products (Ottman et al., 2006).

The importance of both human values as well as knowledge and information have been identified in consumer behaviour research to be among the prerequisites for and facilitating factors of consumer behaviour and sustainable consumption (Schwartz, 1992; Poortinga et al., 2004). Although research (see for example Kolmuss & Agyeman, 2002; Jackson, 2005; Pickett-Baker & Ozaki, 2008; Pepper, et al., 2009; Hassan, et al., 2016) has shown that values are fairly weakly related to actual consumer behaviour, various consumer behaviour models and conceptual frameworks do consider values and knowledge or information as the antecedents of pro-environmental behaviour (Ölander & Thøgersen, 1995; Guagnano et al., 1995; Zepeda & Deal, 2009; Jager, 2000; Vermeir & Verbeke, 2006). Values may play an important role in issues that are related to sustainability, such as environmental problems originating from a conflict between collective and individual interests (Stern & Dietz, 1994; Karp, 1996; Thøgersen, 2001; Pepper et al., 2009; Steg et al., 2012).

Research (see e.g. Kolmuss & Agyeman, 2002) has shown that the amount of information does not necessarily correlate with the consumers' willingness to purchase sustainably produced food. Information does, however, unquestionably provide the prerequisites for consumer choice, consequently facilitating sustainable consumption by functioning as a means of raising consumer awareness about different alternatives (Thøgersen, 2005; Vermeir & Verbeke, 2006; Zepeda & Deal, 2009).

In the case of food consumption, the motives driving consumers' actions can be self-transcendent or egoistic and related to personal health, product safety and the quality or taste of the food (Magnusson et al., 2003; Poortinga, 2004; Young et al., 2010; Vega-Zamora et al., 2014). In addition, values can sometimes be overridden by habits, routines and preferences (Uusitalo & Oksanen, 2004; Thøgersen, 2001). This marked complexity of food consumption and the undeniable fact that food consumption and production contributes to a vast array of environmental and social problems served as the motivation for this study conducted in the Finnish context.

The Finnish context was chosen because it has been calculated that approximately one third of household environmental impacts in Finland are caused by food. In Finland, food contributes to nearly 30% of greenhouse gas emissions and to 50% of eutrophication of all household consumption (Seppälä et al., 2009). Despite this, the consumption of sustainable food has, until

recently, been somewhat of a niche phenomenon in Finland. In addition, the market share of and the demand for sustainably produced food products, such as organic food, has been, and still is, considerably smaller in Finland than in other Nordic or Northern European countries (ProLuomu, 2013). However, Finnish consumers' interest in sustainably produced food products is gradually increasing. In 2007 the market share of organic products in Finland was 0,8% and in 2012 it was 1,6%. The amount of organic products in the portfolio of supermarkets is between 1,500 and 2,000. Statistics are not compiled on the sales of organic products, but the size of the organic market has increased more than the sales of fast-moving consumer goods on average and consumers' interest in and their willingness to purchase organic food are on the increase (ProLuomu, 2013).

From 2011 to 2012 the sales of Fairtrade products increased by 48%. Fairtrade products have been available in Finland for 15 years, and their demand as well as product assortment have steadily grown (Fairtrade Finland, 2013). Although exact statistics are not available, it can be said that the demand for locally produced food has been on the rise in Finland in the past few years. It has been claimed that currently the demand for locally produced food is greater than its supply, since Finnish consumers are increasingly interested in the traceability of food as well as experiencing new foods and tastes (Kurunmäki et al., 2012; Ruokatieto, 2012). Furthermore, the assortment of sustainably produced food in conventional grocery stores and supermarkets has been rather limited until lately, but due to Finnish consumers' increasing interest in sustainably produced food, the assortment of these so-called alternative food products is on the rise in retail stores that are the largest distribution channel of sustainably produced food (Maa- ja metsätalous-ministeriö, 2016).

This increase in sales of sustainably produced food in Finland can be explained by the fact that sustainable consumption and sustainable food consumption have been identified as global trends. Peoples' consumption choices are being increasingly influenced by health problems and worries about environmental degradation. It has been predicted that in the future consumers will take into account sustainable development and sustainable production. This is said to be true for consumer goods in general, but especially for food. It has been forecasted that the market for organic products will grow in all developed countries. In addition, organic products are trendy, at least for certain sustainably –or health-oriented consumer segments, as are locally produced and Fairtrade food products. Increasing the production and consumption of sustainably produced food is also a central idea in the future vision of Finnish food consumption, since it has been stated that in 2030 Finnish consumers will be eating sustainably and domestic food that is tasty, healthy and safe (Kehittyvä elintarvike, 2010; Maa- ja metsätalousministeriö, 2016).

Although sustainably produced food is gaining more popularity among Finnish consumers, still according to research done by the National Consumer Research Center (NCRC) in 2011, Finnish consumers' food choice is mostly

influenced by the good taste of the food as well as its healthiness and price (Peltoniemi & Yrjölä, 2012). Previous research on factors affecting the food choices of Finnish consumers points out that the healthiness of food is the most important factor followed by product safety, animal welfare and the use of local raw materials and regard the environmental impacts of food production among the least important dimensions (Kotro et al., 2011). However, the results of the 2011 survey show a marked increase in consumer's interests towards sustainability issues related to food (see section 3.3).

In addition, the Finnish food markets are heavily centralised since four big retail stores have upped their market share to over 95 % and in the wholesale sector three biggest companies hold the total sales volume of 80 %. In addition, the big retail store chains have increased their power in the food chain by increasing the amount of private label products in their assortment. The food industry is a so-called mature industry meaning that the a few big players have a dominant position and market entry for new players is therefore challenging. The Finnish food markets can be described as an oligopoly where the leading players in the industry have a substantial market share. Moreover, the procurement of products is centralised and only fresh produce is locally sourced and the product assortment in the stores belonging to a specific retail store chain is similar throughout the whole country. This may have an impact on the availability of sustainably produced food products, since it can be very challenging for the small scale producers or producers of locally produced food products to get their products to the shelves of the retail stores. (Arovuori, et al., 2011)

Concerning the Finnish consumers' perceptions of the dimensions of CR in the food chain, previous research has shown that consumers viewed product safety and nutritional responsibility as the most important dimensions and communication about them was perceived as both important as well as interesting (Forsman-Hugg et al., 2009).

The Finnish consumers' orientation to safety may be explained by the values that are found to be popularly held by Finnish people. Findings of research carried out on the values of Finnish people indicate that, although values such as benevolence are valued in Finland as much as all around the world, there are some unique features in the value profile of Finns. Finns value universalism and want to especially protect nature more than people in other European countries do. However, Finns tend to also value tradition and conformity (i.e. always doing things the same way and complying with rules), which are among those values that are usually not seen as motivators to sustainable consumer behaviour (Helkama, 2015). This interesting cocktail of Finnish values, universalism combined with tradition and conformity, serves as an interesting starting point for this research examining the value orientations in sustainable food consumption.

Next, the study aim, the research questions and the specific research gaps that this thesis aims to address shall be described and identified. These research

gaps are (1) value orientations in sustainable food consumption; and (2) value-related appeals used to promote sustainably produced food.

1.2 Study aim and research questions

This research seeks to contribute to the discussion on the promotion of sustainably produced food by examining the value orientations linked with sustainable food consumption. Previous research has indicated that values are relevant to the research of sustainable food consumption, since most basic human values can be, to a certain extent, related to the direction of the food choice motives (Baker et al., 2004; de Boer et al., 2007). The study therefore seeks to enforce this argumentation through three specific aims. More specifically, the first aim is to understand and describe what are the values associated with sustainably produced food. The second aim is to provide information on consumers' perceptions of the importance of the different dimensions of CR in the Finnish food sector and what food chain CR dimensions consumers want to be informed about. Finally, the third aim is to provide insight into consumers' perceptions of the communication channels used to promote sustainably produced food to consumers.

These aims arise from two main research gaps identified in the previous literature. More specifically, even though a considerable amount of literature has been published on marketing sustainably produced food and values influencing consumer behaviour, these studies have focused almost exclusively on the environmental aspect of sustainability and the values related to that (Stern, 2000; Thøgersen & Ölander 2002; De Groot & Steg, 2007; Buenstorf & Cordes, 2008; Verain et al., 2012), on (eco)labels as a means of informing consumers (Kollmuss & Agyeman, 2002; De Pelsmacker et al., 2003; D'Souza et al., 2006; Karstens & Belz, 2006) or on values motivating, for example, organic food consumption (Davies et al., 1995; Zanoli & Naspetti, 2002; Chinnici et al., 2002; Magnusson et al., 2003; Hughner et al., 2007; Cottingham & Winkler 2007; Zepeda & Deal, 2009 Artsens et al., 2009; Young et al., 2010; Vega-Zamora et al., 2014). This current study aims to bring a more comprehensive perspective to the discussion around sustainable food consumption by not focusing only on the environmental dimension of sustainable consumption, but taking a more holistic approach.

The second research gap that this study sets out to bridge is related to informing consumers about sustainably produced food products. The importance of communicating about more sustainable consumption patterns to consumers has been identified in various studies (see for example: Honkanen et al., 2006; Vermeir & Verbeke, 2006; Collins et al., 2007; McDonald et al., 2009; Zepeda & Deal, 2009; Thøgersen, 2010; Grunert, 2011; Campbell-Arvai et al., 2012; Caeiro et al., 2012; Boomsma & Steg, 2014; Hepting et al., 2014). Since the sustainability of, for example, an organic food product is for the consumer essentially a credence characteristic that cannot be seen or tasted, it is of the

utmost importance that the sustainability of the said product is clearly and understandably communicated to the consumer (Grunert, 2011). Moreover, access to clear and reliable information can be an important factor when making a purchase decision, since credible information about the product can help increase consumers' trust in the credence attributes of the product (Karstens & Belz, 2006; Belz & Schmidt-Riediger, 2010).

For marketers, finding a way to prove the sustainability benefits of a product to consumers is challenging. Consumers may not be willing to rely on the sustainability claims made about a product and they may not even see the added value of the superior sustainability performance of a product compared with the conventional alternatives. When communicating the sustainability of a product, not only environmental or sustainability claims should be made. Instead, the products should also meet consumer expectations on other, more tangible attributes, such as taste and quality, in order to enhance consumer trust in the intangible, credence attributes of the product (Gershoff & Irwin, 2012). In addition, to communicate the sustainability of products effectively, marketers should use communication channels that consumers trust and find appealing.

Certain product features can be addressed when informing consumers, for example, by advertising.[1] These features can be purely functional or utilitarian or related to the values and the more abstract need-satisfying capacity of sustainably produced products (Vermeir & Verbeke, 2008). When providing information about the products to consumers, certain product features can be highlighted. Moreover, the functional benefits as well as the emotional benefits or values linked with sustainable products can be communicated (Hartmann et al., 2006; Vermeir & Verbeke, 2008).

By arguing that sustainable food consumption is linked with value orientations, this study seeks to contribute to and address the acknowledged gaps as follows: the first research gap is addressed by empirically examining the values portrayed in the appeals used to advertise environmentally and socially sustainably produced food products to Finnish consumers. Researching the values portrayed in the advertisements for sustainably produced food advertising is justified, since advertising does have a role in informing consumers and moulding consumer behaviour by influencing attitudes and beliefs. Advertising has also been said to appeal to consumers' values, and values can be manifested in advertising appeals (Vinson et al., 1977; Gutman, 1982; Golob et al., 2008; Belz & Peattie, 2009; Gordon et al., 2011).

According to Belz and Peattie (2009), there are several theoretical perspectives, such as rational, psychological or sociological perspectives, from which sustainable consumption can be considered. This study relies on the assumption that sustainable consumption can, to some extent, be motivated by informing consumers about both the consequences of their consumption choice as well as about available more sustainable product alternatives. This means

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[1] Advertising is defined as "paid, non-personal communication from an identified sponsor using mass media to persuade or influence and audience" (Wells et al., 2000, p. 6).

that information can be used to raise awareness and guide consumer behaviour towards more sustainable choices. This approach is often referred to as the cognitive information processing approach and it is an approach that has been widely used in marketing research and especially in the research on marketing communications (Vakratsas and Ambler, 1999). This approach relies heavily on the assumption that consumers are rational decision makers who are willing and able to process information and make informed decisions, although this ideal of the rational consumer who makes informed decisions may not be true in many cases. (Moisander, 2007; Verbeke, 2008)

Still, it can be argued that communication and informing consumers can make a change in consumers' knowledge, and thus shape their attitudes and possibly even their behaviour redirecting their decision making. This is especially the case when the products with so-called credence attributes are concerned (Weatherell et al., 2003; Karstens & Belz, 2006; Vermeir & Verbeke, 2006; Buenstorf & Cordes, 2008; Zepeda & Deal, 2009; Grunert, 2011).

Although consumer behaviour is also influenced by personal and socio-cultural factors, and not merely by information, there is indeed evidence that consumer choice can be affected by information. Consumers may need and want information to help them get more pleasure from food, to avoid allergens and other health risks, to achieve a better diet and even to know the ethical and environmental conditions where the food has been produced and processed. (Thøgersen, 2005; Verbeke, 2005; Vermeir & Verbeke, 2006; Honkanen et al., 2006; Collins et al., 2007; Verbeke, 2008; McDonald et al., 2009; Zepeda & Deal, 2009; Hepting et al., 2014) In the context of promoting sustainably produced food to consumers, access to reliable and understandable information may be a means to increase consumers trust in the credence attributes of the product (i.e. the sustainability that cannot be seen, felt or tasted) thus perhaps influencing consumers decision making. (Ottman, 2006; Vermeir & Verbeke, 2006; Karstens & Belz, 2006; Belz & Peattie, 2009; Belz & Schmidt-Riediger, 2010; Emery, 2012; Lewis & Stanley, 2012).

In addition to product-specific characteristics there are plenty of individual characteristics that have an influence on consumers' information needs and their response to (marketing) communications. These individual characteristics include for example involvement and knowledge, lifestyles, socio-demographics and attitudes. Moreover, the effectiveness of communication and information efforts can seldom be taken for granted due to the fact that the information processing of the receiving audience is influenced by a plethora of different factors that are impossible to take into consideration by the information provider. (Verbeke, 2008) In addition, consumer perceptions of information and marketing communication efforts are not straightforward, since consumer perceptions of the information as well as their reactions to it not only depend on the amount of information provided but also on the emotional content of the message. (Rosa et al., 2006) In addition, information is only likely to be effective when it taps into consumers' deeply held values and addresses their needs and can be processed and used by its target audience (Verbeke,

2005; Boomsma & Steg, 2014, Martin & Schouten, 2014; Graham & Abrahamse, 2017).

This research adopts the cognitive information processing view despite its weaknesses, since the aim of this research is to contribute to the discussion on the promotion of sustainably produced food and provide insights into values linked with sustainable food consumption. This is done by examining the value orientations used in advertising appeals and the value orientations that consumers associate with sustainably produced food products. It is worth noting that the influence of consumers' personal value orientations on sustainable food consumption and the actual consumer behaviour (i.e. what consumers do with the information they receive) are not the main foci of this research. Previous research findings on human value orientations and their connection to sustainable food consumption are merely utilised as the theoretical background in order to illustrate the value orientations used in the promotion of sustainably produced food as well as to map out consumer perceptions of the values linked with sustainably produced food. The effectiveness of information in influencing consumer behaviour is also not the focus of this research.

The use of the cognitive information processing approach in this research is also justified by the fact that the main aims of marketing communication are indeed to educate a selected target group of consumers or customers and inform or remind them about the product, brand or the company as well as to create awareness of the product or service and to persuade potential customers to try the product or brand (Belz & Peattie, 2009; Kotler & Armstrong, 2012; Martin & Schouten, 2014).

The second research gap is addressed by empirically examining consumer perceptions[2] of sustainably produced food products as well as the communication channels that consumers find reliable and appealing. As mentioned earlier in this chapter, the sustainability of sustainably produced products is often very much a credence attribute of the product. It is therefore pertinent to research consumer perceptions of sustainable products, such as food, as well as consumers' perceptions of the various communication channels used to inform the about these products. Since, as has been mentioned already in this chapter, clear and reliable information can be an important factor when making a purchase decision.

This research is positioned within three different theoretical frameworks which are used to examine the promotion of sustainably produced food and the values linked with sustainable food consumption. Figure 1 illustrates the three theoretical frameworks of this study and their connections to this research and more specifically to the aim of this research that is to contribute to the

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2 In this research, the term *perception* is used to refer to the process by which one selects, organises, and interprets physical sensations in order to make sense of them (Solomon et al., 2002). In this research, perception is used as a synonym for *conception*, which refers to the views and opinions consumers have regarding a sustainably produced food, the meanings it has for them, and the attributes they associate with it.

discussion on the promotion of sustainably produced food and provide insights into values linked with sustainable food consumption. This research seeks therefore to contribute to the marketing communication and CR literatures by bringing forth that sustainable consumption is not only about altruistic value orientations and consuming "green" or pro-environmental products and that the corporate image and engaging in corporate responsibility endeavours and communicating about them to consumers can also be used in the promotion of sustainably produced food to consumers.

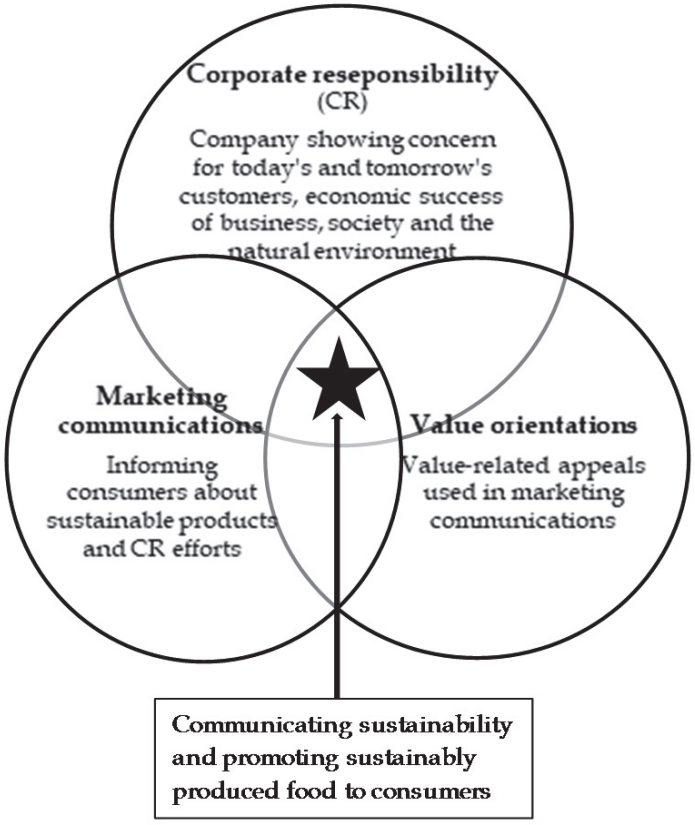

FIGURE 1 Theoretical frameworks used in this research

The research questions that this research sets out to answer, the sources of empirical data and analysis methods are presented in Figure 2. The results of this research shall provide empirical insight into what means of communication could be used when informing consumers about sustainably produced food and what values are used in the marketing of sustainably produced food. In order to achieve the aim of this research, four research questions were developed. As often happens, particularly in the qualitative research tradition, the research questions were revised numerous times during the research phase (Eriksson & Kovalainen, 2008; Creswell, 2009). This was also the case during

this research project, which started with some preliminary research questions that were then refined and re-formulated several times as the aim and the focus of the research was narrowed down and the researcher became more familiar with the phenomenon of interest as well as with the empirical data. The research questions were shaped during the research process in dialogue with the empirical data. Figure 2 depicts the iterative nature of the qualitative research process.

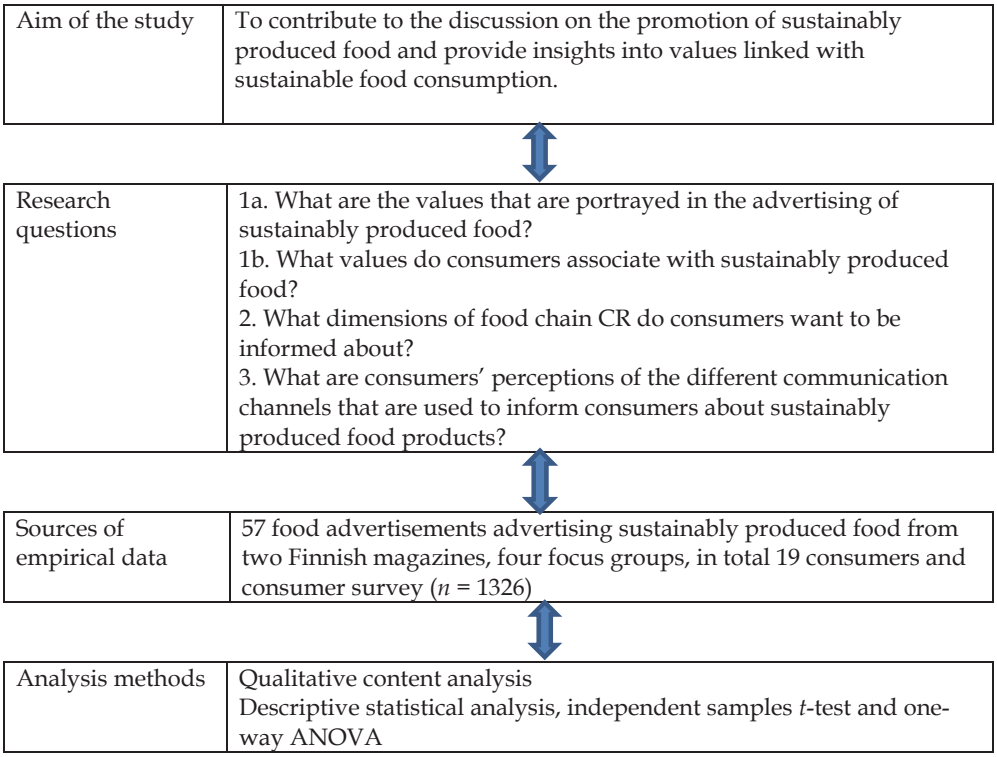

FIGURE 2 Setting of the study

Three different sets of data and a mixed method approach are used. The purpose of the qualitative content analysis of the magazine advertisements is to study how food advertisers try to appeal to consumers' underlying value orientations in the advertisements. Data obtained from focus group discussions are utilised to examine consumer associations and value orientations linked with organic, locally produced and Fairtrade foods. In addition, the focus group data are used to examine consumer perceptions of the different communication channels used to inform consumers about sustainably produced food. The third set of data is an online survey used to analyse consumer views on the importance of different dimensions of corporate responsibility in the Finnish food chain and their information needs about these dimensions. Moreover, the survey data is used to research what communication channels are considered

appealing and reliable. A more detailed description of the data used and the analysis processes will be provided in Chapter 5.

1.3 Sustainability and sustainable food consumption

1.3.1 Sustainability

In order to understand what sustainable consumption and sustainable food consumption are, the origins and definitions of sustainability and sustainable development, which are the basis for the definitions of sustainable consumption, should be examined. The definitions of sustainable consumption, presented later in this chapter, are based on the concept of sustainability, a blend of concepts first brought into discussion in 1972 during the United Nations (UN) Conference on the Human Environment, which was the first UN conference focusing on international environmental issues. In the final declaration of this conference, a powerful statement was made about the need to preserve and enhance the human environment as well as to acknowledge the need to safeguard the Earth's finite resources (Declaration of the United Nations Conference on the Human Environment, 1972). The UN declaration definition of sustainability was very much focused on the ecological or environmental dimension of sustainability. After the 1972 UN Conference on Human Development, it was soon noticed that discussing safeguarding natural resources and the human environment was not enough, and that a broader concept, including social issues as well as the idea of enhancing human wellbeing, should be created.

In the 1987 report *Our Common Future*, by the Brundtlandland Commission, sustainable development is defined as follows: "Development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs" (World Commission on Environment and Development, 1987). This concept of sustainable development was further elaborated on in 1992 at the UN Conference on Environment and Development. The declaration of this conference reiterated the economic and environmental concerns that had been the primary focus of sustainability previously, but also included social topics such as poverty, peace and the rights of women (Rio Declaration on Environment and Development, 1992). Today the established idea of sustainability is that it consists of social, environmental and economic elements.

When considering the sustainability of business operations, the triple bottom line (TBL) concept, introduced in 1997 by John Elkington, is the classic understanding of the application of the three pillars of sustainability to the business context. The TBL and its relation to sustainability and corporate responsibility will be further elaborated on in Chapter 3.

1.3.2 Sustainable consumption and sustainable food consumption

The concept of sustainable consumption was first presented in 1994 at the Oslo Roundtable on Sustainable Production and Consumption symposium. According to this definition, sustainable consumption is:

> The use of goods and services that respond to basic needs and bring a better quality of life, while minimising the use of natural resources, toxic materials and emissions of waste and pollutants over the life cycle, so as not to jeopardise the needs of future generations (UN Sustainable Consumption Knowledge Platform, n.d.)

Like the definitions of sustainability and sustainable development, this definition of sustainable consumption contains the same central ideas about meeting basic needs but at the same time safeguarding the Earth's resources, minimising the creation of pollution and waste as well as keeping in mind the possibilities for future generations to fulfil their basic needs.

However, the definition of sustainable consumption developed in the Oslo Symposium is somewhat more detailed than the definition of sustainability and sustainable development, since it mentions concrete environmental issues that should be taken into account in sustainable consumption and production, such as enhancing the quality of life, efficient use of resources and taking a life-cycle perspective on production and consumption. The goal of sustainable production and consumption can therefore be said to provide the same or even better products and services while at the same time reducing the adverse environmental impacts of production and consumption, leading to an enhanced quality of life for both this generation as well as for future ones (UN Sustainable Consumption Knowledge Platform, n.d.).

According to sustainable consumption scholars (see e.g. Princen, 2003; Spangenberg & Lorek, 2002), the necessary requirement for achieving sustainable consumption is improving the efficiency of consumption for example with the help of technical improvements, reducing the resources needed for production processes or by designing more efficient products. Thus, sustainable consumption does not mean consuming less but rather consuming efficiently (Jackson & Michaelis, 2003). However, this idea of sustainable consumption being more efficient consumption is not without its controversies and problems. The Earth's resources and its carrying capacity for pollution and waste is limited and attempts to achieve consumption through increasing efficiency are often cancelled out by the growth in consumption volumes, since the trend in the industrialised and developing countries is that consumption is still increasing (Dolan, 2002; Akenji, 2014).

According to scholars, in order to create favourable conditions for sustainable consumption, consumption patterns should be changed and consumption levels should be reduced, especially in the industrialised countries. This requires changes in the infrastructure, for example, making more sustainable product alternatives more conveniently available, making sustainable alternative more appealing to consumers by using financial and policy incentives or using policy measures to limit consumption. Moreover,

sustainable consumption is not something that should be the responsibility of consumers alone, since consumers' consumption decisions are not completely in their power but are influenced by factors beyond their immediate control, such as the social and physical infrastructure. Businesses, governments and civil society should therefore support consumers in order to facilitate sustainable consumption (Sanné, 2002; Fuchs & Lorek, 2005; Akenji, 2014).

There are various definitions of sustainable food consumption and most of them are based on the definitions of sustainability and sustainable development. The most basic definitions state that sustainable food consumption means food consumption patterns that, in addition to consumers' individual wants and needs, take into account the economic, environmental and social impacts of food production and consumption (Meulenberg, 2003 in Vermeir & Verbeke, 2006).

Reisch (2010) has introduced a definition of sustainable food consumption that is also based on the aforementioned definitions of sustainable development and sustainable consumption, but including the idea of cultural sustainability to the definition. This definition outlines that, in order for food consumption to be sustainable, it should be safe and healthy in both amount and quality. Furthermore, it should be realised in a way that is economically, socially, environmentally and culturally sustainable so that production of pollution and waste are minimised and the ability for others to fulfil their needs is taken into account. According to Reisch (2010), sustainable food consumption is essentially consuming such food products that are beneficial and enhance the quality of life for individuals, society and the planet. Sustainable food consumption should also fit into the everyday lifestyles of people, meaning that sustainable food products should be available, affordable and accessible (Reisch, Eberle & Lorek, 2013).

In this research, Reisch's definition is used to refer to sustainable food consumption, since this definition includes the three dimensions of sustainability and the idea of sustainable development. However, nutritional responsibility and cultural sustainability are also taken into account. Yet the idea of sustainable food being accessible and conveniently fitting into peoples' lifestyles is also central to the concept of sustainable food consumption used in this research.

According to the UK Sustainable Development Commission (2005, 2009), sustainable food is safe, nutritious and healthy, and it is available for consumers in both shops as well as in restaurants and catering. Sustainable food should, on the global scale, also meet the needs of the less well-off and provide a viable livelihood for farmers as well as for food processors and retailers and their employees whose working environment should be safe. In addition, sustainable food should be produced so that the natural environment and its limits are respected by, for example, reducing energy consumption and ensuring high standards of animal health and welfare. Yet at the same time, sustainable food should be affordable for everyone in society and support rural culture and

economies by encouraging local food production and the reduction of food miles.

In this research, the term *sustainably produced food* is used to refer to organic food, locally produced food and food produced in line with the principles of Fairtrade. These three types of so-called alternative foods can be considered sustainably produced, since in their supply chain the social and/or ecological aspects of production are taken into account more so than in the case of conventional products (D'Souza et al., 2006). In addition, these three types of sustainably produced food were chosen because these are the ones that are most overtly marketed by food producers as well as by non-governmental organisations to consumers as the sustainable foods (Tobler et al., 2011; Gjerris et al., 2016). For example, on its website the World Wildlife Fund explicitly advises that, among the things that can be done in order to reduce the environmental and social impacts of the food they eat, consumers should buy Fairtrade, Marine Stewardship Council (MSC) or Rainforest Alliance certified food products. Consumers should also purchase locally produced food as well as buy organic, since "Organic food is good for many reasons, including local biodiversity and reduced reliance on fossil fuel-based fertilisers and pesticides" (World Wildlife Fund, n.d.).

Organic food is food grown without most artificial fertilisers or pesticides, in a way that emphasises crop rotation, makes the most of natural fertilisers and ensures that the life of the soil is maintained. Animals are fed with organic feed and kept in ways that minimise the need for medicines and other chemical treatments (Directorate General for Agriculture and Rural Development of the European Commission, 2009).

The European Fairtrade Association (EFTA) defines Fairtrade as a trading partnership based on dialogue, transparency and respect. This partnership seeks greater equity in international trade and contributes to sustainable development by securing the rights of and offering better trading conditions to producers and workers, especially in the developing countries (European Fairtrade Association, 2006).

Locally produced food, though not an unambiguous concept, can be briefly defined as the local food systems or short food chains in which food is produced near the consumer (Urban-Rural Interaction, 2001). In terms of the sustainability of locally produced food, the main rationale is an environmental one, since local food supply chains reduce the impacts of the distance food travels between being produced and being consumed (i.e. food miles), thus decreasing the energy and pollution associated with transporting food around the world (Seyfang, 2006).

These three types of sustainable foods all have their problems and cannot be equated as being the most sustainable food options (Forsell & Lankoski, 2015; Gjerris et al., 2016). However, this study aims to contribute to the discussion on the promotion of sustainably produced food and provide insights into the values linked with sustainable food consumption. Since this is done very much from the consumer perspective and the phenomena of interest are

consumer perceptions and the promotion of sustainably produced food, the sustainability of these sustainable food types shall not be speculated on. Instead, this research examines the promotion of these products and how consumers perceive these three types of foods that are being marketed to them as sustainable alternatives.

By simultaneously examining all these three types of sustainably produced foods, it is possible to look at the three different dimensions of sustainability associated with the three different types of sustainably produced food. Social sustainability is related to Fairtrade products in the sense of helping those in need. Both environmental and social sustainability can be associated with locally produced food, in the form of short transportation times and social relationships. Similarly, both environmental and social sustainability can be linked with organic food in the form of health and safety issues, animal welfare, and environmental benefits. Economic sustainability is associated, in one way, with a willingness to pay the higher price for organic food, locally produced food and Fairtrade products. In another, economic sustainability is related to Fairtrade products because purchasing Fairtrade products is said to be a way to improve the economic situation of the farmers and food producers in less developed countries.

1.4 Structure of the report

This research report consists of seven chapters. The first chapter introduces the background and the motivation of the study as well as the Finnish context related to sustainable food consumption. The second chapter presents the framework of human values and their influence on sustainable food consumption. The third chapter reviews previous research concerning corporate responsibility in the food chain and introduces the seven dimensions of this responsibility. The focus of the fourth chapter is the previous research related to the communication channels that are used to inform consumers about sustainably produced food products. The methodologies used and the research design are described in the fifth chapter, and in the sixth chapter the results of the research are presented and discussed. The conclusions of the research, the key findings of the study and its limitations are then compiled in the seventh chapter.

2 VALUES AND SUSTAINABLE FOOD CONSUMPTION

The human values and their influence on sustainable consumer behaviour and the use of value-related appeals in advertising are presented in this chapter. The communication channels and informing consumers is introduced in Chapter 4. As this research seeks to contribute to the discussion on the promotion of sustainably produced food by building on argumentation that sustainable food consumption is linked with values, previous research into the relevance of value research for understanding sustainable food consumption and the connection of human values to it is presented in this chapter (for a more detailed review of value research, see e.g. Hitlin & Piliavin, 2004, and for an overview of values and environmental concern literature, see Dietz, Fitzgerald & Shwom, 2005).

2.1 Values and sustainable consumption

Value as a term is used widely in marketing research and discussion. Yet one should keep in mind that the term *value* can have different meanings. Value can mean monetary worth or customer value, that is, the benefit that a customer gets from the product related to the cost of the product (Holbrook & Morris, 1996). In this research, however, the focus of interest is the human values which can be defined as important life goals that serve as guiding principles in life (Rokeach, 1973). Values can therefore serve as the basis for attitude formation and act as guidelines for human behaviour, meaning that people often consider the implications of their behavioural choices for the things they value (Stern & Dietz, 1994; Poortinga et al., 2004). Thus, values may play an important role in issues that are related to sustainability, such as environmental problems, since these often originate from a conflict between collective and individual interests (Stern & Dietz, 1994; Karp, 1996; Thøgersen, 2001; Steg et al., 2012).

Schwartz (1992, p. 21) defines a value as "a desirable transsituational goal varying in importance, which serves as a guiding principle in the life of a person or other social entity". Values can also be perceived as meanings that are related to the real world, guide actions and are visible in human attitudes, opinions and actions and are related to emotions and information (Puohiniemi, 2003). Values reflect the desirable end-states of existence, they are abstract and transcend specific situations, and values serve also as a guiding principle and are grouped in a system of value priorities (De Groot & Steg, 2007). Values are relatively stable constructs that do not easily change, for example, under the influence of new information or a new social circle. Values are claimed to affect individual beliefs and different behaviours. Beliefs refer usually to specific areas of life and may be more easily changed compared to values (Collins et al., 2007).

Although values are said to transcendent specific situations and values may guide behaviour (Rockeach, 1973), values that transcend self-interest may influence voluntary choice, particularly if the values are activated by a set of altruistic concerns (Schwartz, 1992). People can, therefore, be said to behave, for example, pro-environmentally if doing so benefits the things, such as all humans and the environment, they value.

Values function as criteria to evaluate people and events as well as to select and justify actions (Baker et al., 2004). Values are also said to stimulate motivation for behavioural response (Vinson et al., 1977). In addition, values provide a basis for personal choices (De Groot & Thøgersen, 2013). Consumption is an activity that is related to the set of values a person possesses, since people purchase products in order to achieve goals related to their values (Solomon et al., 2006).

Values are used in marketing, and in advertising in particular, to promote pro-environmental behaviour but also to communicate pro-environmental or sustainable images (Leonidou et al., 2011; De Groot & Thøgersen, 2013). Moreover, values are one of the psychographic variables that companies utilise to identify the ecological consumer segment (Fraj & Martinez, 2006). In addition, numerous previous studies have linked values with sustainable consumption (Thøgersen, 2001; Thøgersen & Ölander, 2002; De Pelsmacker et al., 2003). Though most of the previous research has focused on factors influencing pro-environmental behaviour, research has also been done on human values and their influence on sustainable consumption patterns (Thøgersen & Ölander, 2002; Jackson, 2005; Pepper, Jackson & Uzzell, 2009) and on values as guiding principles in ethical consumption (Shaw et al., 2005).

In terms of sustainable consumption, it is important to make a distinction between pro-social and pro-environmental values. People may be pro-social – caring for others and their welfare – but not pro-environmental, that is valuing sustainability and conservation of environmental resources. The reverse also applies. However, usually a pro-environmental position does include pro-social values, such as the willingness to sacrifice one's personal gain, convenience and success in order to promote sustainability, and the idea of using only one's fair

share of resources while allowing the others to use their share of resources as well (Brown & Cameron, 2000).

Consumers' preference for certain values is said to be expressed through consumers' interests and finally their consumption choices (Hansen, 2010). Personal values have been linked with sustainable lifestyles (Gatersleben et al., 2010) and sustainable consumer behaviour in many previous studies (Thøgersen, 2001; Thøgersen & Ölander, 2002; Poortinga et al., 2004; Pepper et al., 2009; Young et al., 2010) as well as to pro-environmental consumer behaviour (Stern & Dietz, 1994; Karp, 1996; Stern, 2000; Fraj & Martinez, 2006; De Groot & Steg, 2008; Steg et al., 2012) and ethical consumer behaviour (Shaw et al., 2005; Honkanen et al., 2006; Wheale & Hinton, 2007; Freestone & McGoldrick, 2008). A considerable amount of research has also focused on the role of personal values in sustainable food consumption and more sustainable food choices (Vermeir & Verbeke, 2006; de Boer et al., 2007; Vermeir & Verbeke, 2008; Cambell-Arvai et al., 2012) and a plethora of research has focused on the role of personal values in consumption of organic food (Grunert & Juhl, 1995; Makatouni, 2002; Zanoli & Naspetti, 2002; Magnusson et al., 2003; Aertsens et al., 2009; Zepeda & Deal, 2009). The role of personal values and the consumption of Fairtrade products has also been researched (Loureiro & Lotade, 2005; De Pelsmacker et al., 2005a; De Pelsmacker et al., 2005b; Doran, 2009; Grankvist et al., 2009) as have personal values and their impact relation to the consumption of locally produced food (Seyfang, 2006; Hughner et al., 2007; Vermeir & Verbeke, 2008; Zepeda & Deal, 2009).

In consumer behaviour research it is assumed that consumer motivations and behaviour are often driven by underlying values through attitudes, beliefs and intentions (Solomon et al., 2006; De Groot & Steg, 2007; De Groot & Steg, 2008). However, research (see for example Kolmuss & Agyeman, 2002; Jackson, 2005; Pickett-Baker & Ozaki, 2008; Pepper, et al., 2009; Hassan, et al., 2016) has also shown that values are fairly weakly related to actual consumer behaviour. Still, research has also pointed out that the relationship of values and behaviour is indirect, functioning through beliefs and both personal and societal norms (Stern et al., 1999; Stern, 2000) as well as an individual's ability and opportunity to take specific action (Ölander and Thøgersen, 1995).

Values do, therefore, influence individual beliefs, which then determine an individual's (pro-environmental or sustainable) behaviour. The relationship between values, beliefs and behaviour in terms of sustainable consumer behaviour has been researched in the field of environmental psychology. The usual finding of this research has been that those individuals who hold collective values are more likely to engage in sustainable behaviour than those who hold more individualistic values (Collins et al., 2007; Thøgersen, 2011.)

It can be therefore claimed that values do contribute to explaining consumer attitudes towards and behaviour related to sustainable consumption. The value scales by Rokeach (1973) and Schwartz (1992) have been widely and successfully used to explain the different dimensions of sustainable consumption. The undeniable advantage of using values when doing research

on sustainable consumer behaviour is that the number of values is relatively small compared with the innumerable amount of behaviour-specific attitudes, norms and beliefs. Values do, therefore, provide a usable framework describing and explaining differences and similarities among nations, cultures, groups and persons. In addition, values can be used to predict attitudes and behaviour, which is important in the case of new or emerging attitude objects, such as sustainable (food) consumption or pro-environmental behaviour, as values provide a stable basis for attitudes and behaviour (De Groot & Thøgersen, 2012; Stern et al., 1995). Moreover, values have been shown to influence sustainable behaviour (Thøgersen & Ölander, 2002). Thus, values can be used as a starting point for changing behaviours, as a range of beliefs, norms, intentions and behaviours specific to pro-environmental behaviour and sustainable consumption can be influenced or activated through the activation of certain values (Thøgersen & Ölander, 2006).

Even the earliest models attempting to describe pro-environmental consumer behaviour and environmental values have advanced the idea that specific value orientations are the prerequisites for pro-environmental behaviour. For instance, the ecological value theory suggests that values belonging to the realm of self-transcendent values are more likely to motivate pro-environmental behaviour than values belonging to the self-enhancement orientation (Jackson, 2005). In Schwartz's value survey (1992), values that are determined as antecedents of pro-environmental or sustainable behaviour are placed in the category of self-transcendent values. Out of the values in this category, the most significant one is the value of universalism. In addition, the value of benevolence is at times associated with pro-environmental behaviour (Hansla et al., 2008).

It is commonly assumed that people behaving in a pro-environmental or sustainable way have at least some moral or altruistic reasons for doing so. Those individuals who strongly value self-transcendence values and disfavour self-enhancement values are more likely to engage in sustainable consumer behaviour (Pepper et al., 2009). Following the value typology by Schwartz (1992), the values of universalism, benevolence, self-direction, honesty, idealism, equality, freedom and responsibility have been linked with sustainable consumption. The values associated to less sustainable consumption behaviour were power, hedonism, tradition, security, conformity and ambition (Schultz & Zelezny, 1999; Vermeir & Verbeke, 2006). A more detailed explanation of Schwartz's value typology is presented in the following chapter.

There is, indeed, a confirmed causal relationship between certain values, such as universalism, and sustainable consumption. According to Thøgersen (2011), the positive relationship between self-enhancement values and pro-environmental behaviour does not exist, but there is a link between self-transcendence values and pro-environmental behaviour. This suggests that promoting the right values may gradually facilitate the motivation of sustainable consumption. However, there are other factors that, especially in the short run, influence sustainable behaviour more than values do. These

factors include habits, attitudes, preferences and opportunities to behave in a sustainable way (Thøgersen, 2001). Moreover, sustainable behaviour is not always motivated by altruistic or moral reasons, but at times even sustainable behaviour can be prompted by self-serving interests (Jackson, 2005).

2.1.1 Schwartz's value theory

According to Schwartz (1994) only a limited set of human values exists and these values are, to a great extent, shared in various cultures around the world. Our value priorities determine our individual behaviour, including our pro-environmental or sustainable behaviour (Thøgersen & Ölander, 2002). The value typology developed by Schwartz (1992, 1994) has been one of the dominant and most used value typologies for decades and it has been extensively used to classify human values in various fields of research including research on consumer behaviour, environmental psychology and sustainable consumption.

The Schwartz value typology consists of 57 values. These 57 values can be grouped into clusters of 10 values which help describe individual differences in values. The ten value clusters are conformity, tradition, universalism, benevolence, power, achievement, hedonism, stimulation, self-direction, and security. Of these ten values, conformity, tradition, universalism and benevolence are social values and the remaining six represent individualistic values (Schwartz, 1992, 1994). These 10 values are traditionally illustrated by the value circumplex (Figure 3).

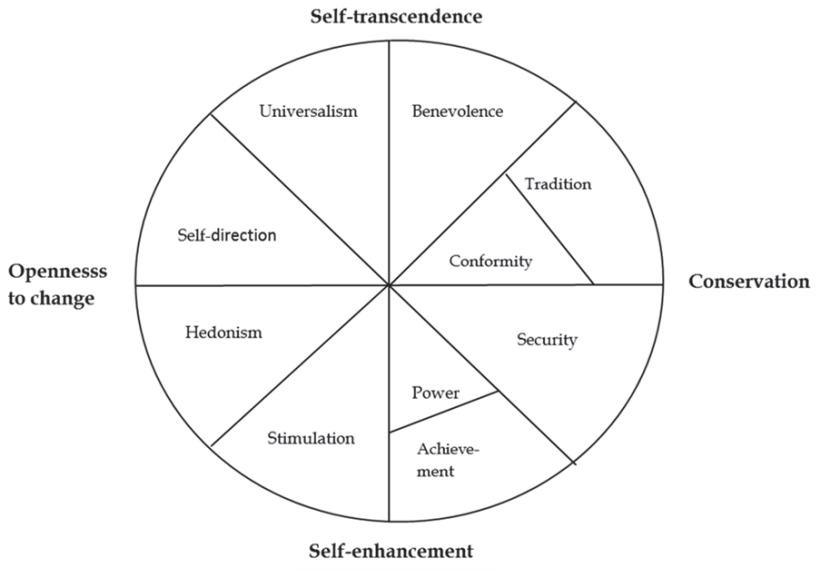

FIGURE 3 Schwartz's value circumplex: 10 value domains (Schwartz, 1992)

The values in the Schwartz value system are arranged along two higher-order value dimensions. The first dimension, from self-enhancement to self-transcendence, presents the contrast between values related to the concern for the welfare of others. The second value dimension ranges from openness to change to conservation. This value dimension illustrates the contrasting values that, on the one hand, motivate individuals to independent action and endeavours to challenge themselves both emotionally and intellectually, and on the other hand, values that are related to keeping things as they are, preserving traditional practices and protecting stability. Adjacent values in the circumplex are compatible and similar in terms of motivation. For instance, universalism and benevolence both emphasise the welfare of others. Whereas the values opposite each other in the circumplex are in conflict with each other and rarely held strongly by the same person. For example, hedonism and achievement focus on self-centred satisfaction and can therefore be seen as values opposite to or conflicting with universalism and benevolence (Schwartz, 1992, 1994; Thøgersen, 2010; Hitilin & Piliavin, 2004). Each of the ten values has central motivational goals that are presented in Table 1.

TABLE 1 The ten value types and their motivational goals (Schwartz 1992)

Value	Central motivational goal
1. Self-Direction	Independent thought and action; choosing, creating, exploring
2. Stimulation	Excitement, novelty and challenge in life, risk-taking and adventure
3. Hedonism	Self-centered sensual gratification and pleasure
4. Achievement	Competitive personal success
5. Power	Social status and prestige, control of people and resources
6. Security	Stability, safety, and harmony of society, of relationship, and self
7. Conformity	Self-restraint of actions, inclinations and impulses, conforming to the expectations of others
8. Tradition	Respect, commitment and acceptance of the customs and ideas that traditional culture or religion provide the self
9. Benevolence	Preserving and enhancing the welfare of those with whom one is in frequent personal contact
10. Universalism	Tolerance and concern for welfare of others, protection of all other people and nature

The Schwartz value system has been used in research to link environmental concern and behaviour to human values. The majority of this research focuses on the environmental dimension of sustainability, and the findings have indicated that concern for the environment and, to some extent even pro-environmental behaviour, is related to the self-transcendence values – benevolence, universalism in particular – and openness to change that focus more on the welfare of others rather than on the individual's wellbeing and

success (e.g. Stern & Dietz, 1994; Karp, 1996; Schultz & Zelezny, 1999; Dietz et al., 2005; Shultz et al., 2005; De Groot & Steg, 2008). Respectively, self-enhancement and conservation values have been shown to have a negative correlation with environmental concern, preferences and behaviour (De Groot & Steg, 2008; Steg et al., 2005; Karp, 1996; Stern et al., 1995) and those with strong, conservative values have the tendency not to engage in pro-environmental behaviour, since environmentalism is seen as moving away from the traditional ways and patterns of behaviour (Dietz et al., 2005). Moreover, previous research has shown that individuals with social value orientations tend to exhibit greater environmental concern than individuals with more individualistic or competitive value orientations (Joireman et al., 2001; Dietz et al., 2005).

This stands to reason: those people who greatly value all humans, animals and the environment are likely to behave pro-environmentally, thus benefitting the things they value. Those motivated by power and other self-enhancement values might not regard the environment as important as their own personal advancement and convenience. Those motivated by tradition will, in turn, have conservative values, such as placing a higher priority on human economic interest rather than on the environment (Collins et al., 2007).

The Schwartz value typology has also been used in research on sustainable consumption. Previous research indicates that of the ten universal value types introduced by Schwartz (1994), self-transcendence values, particularly universalism (Thøgersen, 2001; Thøgersen & Ölander, 2002; Pepper et al., 2009) and benevolence (Thøgersen & Ölander, 2002; Vermeir & Verbeke, 2008), were associated with sustainable consumption and sustainable behaviour. The central motivational goal of universalism is tolerance and concern for the welfare of others, protection of all other people and nature. The central motivational goal of benevolence is preserving and enhancing the welfare of those with whom one is in frequent personal contact. Universalism and benevolence focus on different aspects of altruism. Benevolence focuses the concern for the welfare of people close to oneself in everyday interaction, whereas universalism focuses on what is good for all people and nature (Thøgersen & Ölander, 2002).

However, self-enhancement values or egoistic value orientations – such as achievement, power and hedonism – are negatively related to beliefs, attitudes, preferences and behaviours related to sustainable consumption (Stern, 2000; Thøgersen & Ölander, 2002; Steg et al., 2012). Both the value of universalism as well as the value of benevolence conflict directly with the self-enhancement values power, achievement and stimulation. It is therefore no wonder that in the Schwartz value typology the self-enhancement values create barriers to pro-environmental behaviour. Nevertheless, both individual and collective values are claimed to be important in influencing sustainable consumer behaviour (Verain et al., 2012).

In Schwartz's value typology, pro-environmental behaviour and concern for the environment are related to the self-transcendence values, in particular

universalism, characterised by understanding, appreciation, tolerance and protection regarding the welfare of all people and nature. The values belonging to the universalism cluster are equality, a world at peace, unity with nature, wisdom, a beautiful world, social justice, broadmindedness, and protecting the environment (Schwartz 1992).

However, environmental values are more complex than the somewhat singular meaning of universalistic values motivating understanding, tolerance and protection of nature and all people (Onkila, 2009). Moreover, pro-environmental or sustainable consumption can be motivated by other values than self-transcendence values such as universalism, or self-serving interests (Pepper et al., 2009). The self-enhancement value dimension does capture the differences between self-interest and altruism but not the distinction between humanistic and biospheric altruism (Dietz et al., 2005). Stern, Dietz, Kalof and Guagnano (1995) have modified the original Schwartz value items in order to describe the distinction between biospheric and altruistic values. The three value orientations shall be presented in more detail in the following chapter.

2.1.2 Egoistic, altruistic and biospheric value orientations

In addition to the aforementioned, traditional value types introduced by Schwartz, a framework consisting of three value orientations has been created. This framework has been used in environmental psychology to explain beliefs and intentions related to environmentally significant behaviour. It has been argued that in addition to the self-transcendent and self-enhancement value orientations, a third value orientation emphasizing the value of nature should be included. To answer this demand, Stern and his colleagues (Stern & Dietz, 1994; Stern et al., 1998; Stern et al., 1999; Stern, 2000) developed a brief value instrument comprising those values that are most significant to understanding environmentally significant behaviour.

These value orientations were named egoistic, altruistic and biospheric value orientations, and they may co-exist in an individual influencing behaviour (Stern, 2000; Dietz et al., 2005; Jackson, 2005; De Groot & Steg, 2008), the biospheric value being the one emphasizing the fundamental value of nature. Dunlap and Van Liere first researched the biospheric value orientation in 1978 in the context of the New Environmental Paradigm they developed. Dunlap and Van Liere, like many earlier researchers, suggested that the values, attitudes and beliefs that are prevalent in society are, at least partly, the cause of environmental problems (Jackson, 2005). Stern and his colleagues did not, however, only recognise the intrinsic value of the natural environment, but the three value orientations connecting environmental values to personal benefit.

Egoistic, altruistic and biospheric value orientations are in a key role in the value-belief-norm (VBN) theory of environmental concern. Although values do not alone influence decisions, there is a link between values and environmentally significant behaviour. The VBN theory postulates that values have an influence on our worldview and general beliefs about the environment. Values therefore influence our beliefs about the consequences of environmental

changes on things we hold in high regard as well as our perceptions of our ability to protect the things we value, and this influences our norms about taking action. The VBN theory is based on the assumption that egoistic, altruistic and biospheric values are the most essential determinants of environmental concern and that the link between values and environmental concern is the awareness of the harmful consequences one's behaviour can bring to valued objects (Stern et al., 1999: Stern, 2000: Schultz, 2001; Dietz et al., 2005). These value orientations influence environmentally significant behaviour in different ways. Egoistic values focus on maximising individual outcomes and benefits, altruistic values reflect concern for the welfare of others and the biospheric value orientation consists of value orientations that emphasise the perceived costs and benefits to the environment and the biosphere as a whole. The biospheric value orientation is also related to unity with nature, respecting the environment and protecting the Earth (Stern & Dietz, 1994; Stern et al., 1998; Stern, 2000; Schultz, 2001; Kollmuss & Agyemann, 2002; Schultz et al., 2005: de Groot & Steg, 2008; Steg et al, 2012; Emery, 2012).

People with an egoistic value orientation consider the benefits and costs of environmentally significant behaviour to themselves whereas people with an altruistic value orientation will consider the consequences of their behaviour to other people. Those with a biospheric value orientation will take into account the consequences their behaviour will have on plants and animals, that is, on the ecosystem and the biosphere (Stern, 2000; De Groot & Steg, 2008). The egoistic value orientation can manifest itself as, for example, concern one's health, future, lifestyle. The altruistic value orientation indicates concern for, among other things, other people: the people in one's community, one's children, all people and all children. The biospheric value orientation may be visible as concern for plants, birds, animals and marine life (Schultz, 2001). Table 2 shows some indication of the influence of the three value orientations on behaviour.

TABLE 2 The influence of values on behaviour (Emery, 2012)

ALTRUISTIC VALUES →	Humanity
In the best interest of others	People in the community
	Future generations
	Children
EGOISITC VALUES →	Me
In my own best interest	My future
	My lifestyle
	My health
	My prosperity
BIOSPHERIC VALUES →	The planet
In the best interest of the planet	Marine life
	Animals
	Plants/trees
	Air/water

According to previous studies (Heberlein, 1972; Stern et al., 1995; Karp, 1996: Stern, 2000; de Groot & Steg, 2008; Thøgersen, 2011; Steg et al., 2012; Emery, 2012), the altruistic values are the most strongly related to pro-environmental behaviour, since pro-environmental behaviour is seen to be for the benefit of the common good, whereas the impact of egoistic values is negative. It has even been claimed that there is no clear correspondence between biospheric values and pro-environmental behaviour, as pro-environmental and sustainable behaviours can be motivated at times by self-interest and at other times by altruistic or biospheric values (Jackson, 2005). Moreover, the precise role of biospheric values in consumer behaviour is still being debated.

Since Dunlap and Van Liere introduced the concept of biospheric value orientation in 1978, researchers have tried to confirm the existence of the three distinct value orientations and their relation to pro-environmental behaviour. However, the clear correspondence between biospheric values and pro-environmental behaviour has not been observed in some of the previous research (Stern et al., 1995). Theoretically, the distinction between altruistic and biospheric value orientations exists although it has not been clearly shown in empirical studies. It has been claimed that there is no uniform value basis that would explain the motivation for pro-environmental behaviour or even the intention to act pro-environmentally, since behaviour can be motivated by a myriad of value orientations, where some behaviours are driven by self-interest, some by biospheric values and other by altruistic value orientations (Jackson, 2005). Pro-environmental behaviour can, therefore, be motivated by both egoistic and altruistic value orientations (Zavestoski, 2002).

However, there is some recent empirical evidence that there is, indeed, a distinction between altruistic and biospheric value orientations and that there is a biospheric value domain that is separate from the altruistic values (Schultz, 2001; Collins et al., 2007; De Groot & Steg, 2008). According to Schultz (2001), although the distinction between the egoistic, altruistic and biospheric value orientation has not yet been explicitly identified, it may still be possible to organise more specific attitudes of environmental concern around separate value orientations, even if the underlying values are similar, as the different value orientations may predict a general concern for the adverse consequences of environmental problems.

Despite the fact that the precise role, and even the existence, of a separate biospheric value orientation in consumer behaviour is still being debated, in this study the framework of egoistic, altruistic and biospheric value orientations is used to analyse the advertisements of sustainably produced food in order to analyse the value types associated with sustainably produced food in its promotion. In addition, this framework is applied to the analysis of consumers' perceptions of sustainably produced food. This framework was chosen because the aim of this study is to focus on sustainable consumption. Sustainable consumption is not only pro-environmental consumption that can be explained by universalist values, but it also contains, in line with the definition of sustainable development presented in section 1.3.1, an economic dimension as

well as the separate social and environmental dimensions. Thus, the framework of egoistic, altruistic and biospheric values, where the environment is separated from the altruistic or universalistic values, is better suited to the purpose of this research, that is, for describing the values that are portrayed in the advertisements and the values that consumers associate with sustainably produced food. Because the biospheric value orientation has been identified in previous research, in this research one of the goals is to examine whether this value orientation is or is not visible in the advertisements or consumers' perceptions. In addition, the framework for food chain CR, described in Chapter 3, contains a separate environmental dimension in addition to the economic dimension and the several dimensions that can be grouped under social responsibility and altruistic value orientation.

The value orientations relate to informing consumers because certain product features can be addressed when informing consumers by, for example, advertising. These features can be purely functional or utilitarian, but the values and the more abstract need-satisfying capacity of sustainably produced products can also be communicated (Vermeir & Verbeke, 2008). When providing information about products to consumers, certain product features can be highlighted and the functional benefits as well as the emotional benefits or values linked with sustainable products can be communicated (Hartmann et al., 2006; Vermeir & Verbeke, 2008). Moreover, the attributes of sustainably produced food products can be linked with more abstract values such as security, hedonism, universalism or benevolence, or with value orientations such as egoistic, altruistic or biospheric. Appealing to these values, for instance in advertising or through other means of informing consumers, may positively influence attitudes towards sustainable food consumption (Aertsens et al., 2009).

2.2 Factors motivating sustainable consumption

In addition to values, sustainable consumer behaviour can be influenced by a number of other factors. These factors have been studied from various theoretical perspectives (see e.g. Vining & Ebreo, 2002). The first group of factors is motivational factors where, according to Steg and Vlek (2009), three lines of research are identified. These are (1) consumers making rational choices and weighing the costs and benefits of their consumption decisions (Ajzen, 1991; Kaiser et al., 1999); (2) the role of moral and normative concerns influencing environmental behaviour examined from different theoretical perspectives such as the role of values in pro-environmental or sustainable behaviour (Karp, 1996; Stern & Dietz, 1994; Stern, 2000; De Groot & Steg, 2007; Thøgersen & Ölander, 2002; Fraj & Martinez, 2006; Steg et al., 2012) which is also the focus of this research; and (3) the role of affect in relation to pro-environmental behaviour. Although the focus of this line of research has been on the role of affect in car use (Gatersleben, 2007; Steg, 2005), there is indeed an

affective or emotional dimension to decision-making (Jackson, 2005). Consumer behaviour can also be influenced by personal health concerns and hedonism (Vermeir & Verbeke, 2008).

However, the short-term changes in consumer behaviour depend on specific factors such as habits, specific attitudes, preferences and opportunities to engage in sustainable consumption (Thøgersen, 2001). Habits are, for instance, identified as one of the factors that may facilitate or hinder pro-environmental or sustainable behaviour (Ölander & Thøgersen, 1995; Jackson, 2005; Thøgersen, 2010; Maréchal, 2010; Klöckner & Verplanken, 2013; Umpfenbach et al., 2014). Habits can be regarded as cognitive scripts whose role is to reduce the cognitive effort required to make routine decisions whose rationality has already been determined. Habits are often unconscious and their importance as potential hindrances to change of behaviour is often underestimated, although habits can be a strong predictor of behaviour. In addition, people with strong habits tend to favour and seek out information that confirms their views, beliefs and behaviours (Jackson, 2005; Maréchal, 2010). In many situations, human behaviour is neither rational nor the choices made reasoned, since in many cases human behaviour is habitual rather than based on weighing costs and benefits (Steg & Vlek, 2009).

Much of environmentally significant behaviours, such as food choice, are habitual and routine in nature and people do not necessarily understand the environmental or social consequences that may result from these decisions (Maréchal 2010; Polonsky, 2011). It is therefore of the utmost importance that this habitual behaviour is addressed and possibly renegotiated when motivating sustainable consumption (Jackson, 2005). Habits have been found to play a particularly significant role in food shopping decisions (Zepeda & Deal, 2009; Röös & Tjärnemo, 2011), since consumers tend to routinely purchase the same food products week after week. Moreover, purchasing sustainably produced products or shopping ethically is usually considered to be time consuming and requiring more cognitive effort in the form of information search than purchasing conventionally produced food products. Sustainability is therefore often abandoned in favour of habit and purchasing the same brands and products as always or in favour of convenience (McDonald & Oates, 2006; Vermeir & Verbeke, 2006; McDonald et al., 2009). Values and worldview can therefore be considered as factors playing an indirect and supporting role in decision-making, especially if the decisions are usually dominated by habits, routines and convenience (McDonald et al., 2009; Campbell-Arvai et al., 2012).

In addition to the aforementioned factors, Kolmuss and Agyeman (2002) have listed more internal factors influencing pro-environmental behaviour, and these factors can also be extended to influence sustainable consumption. In addition to values, attitudes and motivation, consumer's awareness of environmental or social issues is an internal factor influencing behaviour. The limitation here is that environmental or social problems are often distant and complex issues, ecological destruction is slow and the information and awareness-raising campaigns can be overwhelming for consumers and, at

times, provide conflicting information, therefore making them untrustworthy (Moisander, 2007; Polonsky, 2011; Röös & Tjärnemo, 2011).

Moreover, emotional involvement is also a factor in pro-environmental or sustainable consumption, since the stronger the emotional reaction, the more likely a person is to engage in sustainable behaviour. This is one of the reasons for the use of emotional claims in advertising and information campaigns. The consumer's conception of his/her locus of control influences also pro-environmental and sustainable consumer behaviour. The locus of control means the individual's perception of his/her ability to bring about change through his/her behaviour. The locus of control then influences the feelings of responsibility and priority that are, in turn, shaped by our values and attitudes (Kolmuss & Agyeman, 2002).

In addition to the aforementioned individual motivations that influence pro-environmental or sustainable behaviour, there are several contextual factors that influence human behaviour. These contextual factors can be for instance the convenient availability of sustainable food products, since the desired behaviour can only take place if the necessary infrastructure is provided (e.g. organic food is available in a conventional supermarket) (Ölander & Thøgersen, 1995; Kolmuss & Agyeman, 2002; Vermeir & Verbeke, 2006; Zepeda & Deal, 2009; Thøgersen, 2010). The contextual factors can also be policies, regulations, costs and other factors external to the consumer (Guagnano et al., 1995; Zepeda & Deal, 2009). Consumers can also be constrained by practical barriers, such as a lack of money, of time and of information (Blake, 1999). Research has shown that pro-environmental or sustainable consumer behaviour depends not only on the individual consumer and but also on the external context (Thøgersen, 2010). In addition, the emphasis on consumers' liberty to choose and the tendency to then blame the consumers for their unsustainable choices can also be a barrier to sustainable consumption, since consumers seldom have sufficient knowledge or information to make informed, sustainable choices (Moisander, 2007; Timmer et al., 2009).

The concrete product attributes also affect consumers' food choice and preference. When they purchase food, consumers take into account product attributes such as the price, the perceived quality and the convenient accessibility of products (Zanoli & Naspetti, 2002; Weatherell et al., 2003; Padel & Foster, 2005; Vermeir & Verbeke, 2006). Environmental or social responsibility is not usually the most dominant criterion when making purchase decisions (Boulstridge & Carrigan, 2000; Carrigan & Attalla, 2001). In the case of sustainably produced products such as food, the sustainability itself – whether the organic origin, locality of production or fairness of employee treatment – is a so-called credence feature of the product. These features are not directly visible or something that consumers can ascertain by themselves. Thus, they have to trust the information given by others (Grunert, 2002; Weatherell et al., 2003; Vermeir & Verbeke, 2006; Karstens & Belz, 2006; Buenstorf & Cordes, 2008).

As previous research carried out on consumer perceptions of organic food shows, consumers mainly buy organic food for health reasons: organic food is perceived as being a healthy choice, since it is thought to contain fewer pesticide and fertiliser residues. As mentioned in section 1.3, it has been claimed that health and taste may even be the main motives for purchasing organic (Davies et al., 1995; Zanoli & Naspetti, 2002; Chinnici et al., 2002; Hughner et al., 2007; Cottingham & Winkler, 2007; Zepeda & Deal, 2009). In addition, animal welfare, safety and environmental aspects also motivate consumers. The main barriers to organic food choice are high price, lack of trust and cynicism towards sustainability claims, limited availability, questionable appearance and the satisfaction with conventional food. In addition, some consumers do not want to purchase organic, since they feel that those who purchase organic are "hippies". In addition, the lack of information about the benefits of purchasing organic food is also a barrier (Davies et al., 1995; Harper & Makatouni, 2002; Zanoli & Naspetti, 2002; Aertsens et al., 2009; Radman, 2005; Zepeda & Deal, 2009).

Based on previous research on Fairtrade food consumption, consumers in general have been shown to perceive the purchasing of Fairtrade products as being a socially responsible choice (McCluskey & Loureiro, 2003; DePelsmaker & Jansen, 2007; Pepper et al., 2009; van Herpen et al., 2012). However, these products are also perceived to be expensive, difficult to find in standard retail outlets and there is not sufficient information available about them (Uusitalo & Oksanen, 2004; Loureiro & Lotade, 2005; Becchetti & Rosati, 2007).

When purchasing locally produced food, the importance of credence attributes, such as trust and environmental benefits, play an important role in local food choice (Zepeda & Deal, 2009; Meyer et al., 2012). However, consumers are not necessarily willing to pay a higher price for locally produced food (Weatherell et al., 2003). Locally produced food is perceived to be fresher and tastier than other foods. However, consumers felt that purchasing locally produced food can be inconvenient and time-consuming, since the availability of locally produced food can be limited in supermarkets where consumers mostly do their grocery shopping (Chambers et al., 2007; Peltoniemi & Yrjölä, 2012).

What is common to all of the sustainably produce food types that are the focus of this research is that the main barriers to purchase seem to be price, lack of availability and the lack of information but also the disbelief in green claims. These have been identified as the barriers to all kinds of sustainable consumption in general, not just food (De Pelsmaker et al., 2005). However, the premium price of sustainably produced food can also function as a signal of quality in the case of organic products, higher wages for the labourer in the case of Fairtrade products and better compensation for the farmer in the case of locally produced food (van Herpen et al., 2012).

2.3 Sustainable food consumption and values

Values are relevant to the research of sustainable food consumption, since most of the basic human values can be, to a certain extent, related to the direction of the food choice motives (Baker et al., 2004; de Boer et al., 2007). Some of the ten value types in Schwartz's value typology by Schwartz, introduced in section 2.1.1, cannot be directly associated with food consumption (e.g. power and achievement). However, some of the value categories can indeed be directly linked with food consumption and sustainable food consumption.

The self-transcendence values, in particular universalism and benevolence, are associated with sustainable or pro-environmental consumption. For instance, people for whom benevolence is of importance as a value may be concerned about the impacts their food consumption causes for the others, whereas those people for whom hedonism is an important value might care for the taste and the visual appearance of food, and those valuing security are not likely to consume foods that may be harmful and place importance on product safety (Lusk & Briggeman, 2009). The findings of previous research indicate that sustainable food consumption and sustainable food choice is motivated by altruistic values rather than by egoistic or individualistic values (De Groot & Steg, 2007; Aertsens et al., 2009; Röös & Tjärnemo, 2011; Thøgersen, 2011).

Considering the different sustainably produced food types that are the focus of this study, previous research has revealed that organic food consumption can be motivated by altruism (relationship with others), by universalism and benevolence as well as by biospheric value orientations (respecting nature and the environment), but also by hedonism, self-direction (independent thought and action) and conformity (Grunert & Juhl, 1995; Makatouni, 2002; Chinnici et al., 2002; Zanoli & Naspetti, 2002; Fotopoulos et al., 2003; Verain et al., 2012).

Previously, organic food consumption has been associated with an alternative lifestyle that is characterised by active environmentalism, vegetarianism and the use of alternative medicine (Cicia et al., 2002). However, more recent research has indicated that organic food consumption can be instigated by both self-transcendence values (protecting the environment) but also by self-enhancement values (personal health or superior taste). It has been claimed that the egoistic reasons such as superior taste, health and product safety influence organic food choice more than altruistic or biospheric value orientations (Magnusson et al., 2003; Hughner et al., 2007; Young et al., 2010; Vega-Zamora et al., 2014) and that health and taste would even be the main motives for purchasing organic (Davies et al., 1995; Zanoli & Naspetti, 2002; Chinnici et al., 2002; Hughner et al., 2007; Cottingham & Winkler, 2007; Zepeda & Deal, 2009). One explanation for this is that by justifying their purchase of sustainably produced food with egoistic reasons, consumers aim to rationalise their behaviour and justify the paying of a premium price without being certain

that their contribution has any effect on the actual cause, such as personal health or the natural environment. Consumers may therefore report that they purchase sustainably produced food for egoistic reasons such as health or superior taste because they want to appear as rational and competent consumers although the true underlying motivations would be related to altruistic or biospheric value orientations (Thøgersen, 2011).

For some consumers purchasing the so-called alternative food products, such as organic, locally produced or Fairtrade products, can be a status symbol, a luxury, a means to communicate their values to others or a way for consumers to seek self-fulfilment beyond materialistic pleasure, such as by caring for the natural environment or society. Sustainably produced products can be perceived as a luxury, since luxury can be connected to deeper issues, such as ethical lifestyles and sustainability. For some consumers the appeal of, for instance, organic, locally produced or Fairtrade food, is strong, since they associate these products with social values that are thought to be admirable and appealing (Yeoman & McMahon-Beattie, 2006; Yeoman, 2011; Wilska & Nyrhinen, 2013; Cronin et al., 2014; Emontspool & Georgi, 2016).

However, altruistic value orientations are not completely missing from the organic food choice. Organic food consumers are also motivated by animal welfare and want to support the local economy as well as to take into account the welfare of employees (Harper et al., 2002; Makatouni, 2002; Hughner et al., 2007; Peltoniemi & Yrjölä, 2012). In addition, concern for the environment guided by biospheric value orientations is said to motivate the consumption of organic products (Harper & Makatouni, 2002; Zepeda & Leviten-Reid, 2004) and those who regularly shop for organic food products are likely to believe that organic products are more nutritious, taste better or are of a higher quality than conventional food products (Zepeda & Deal, 2009).

There are differences in the values that motivate consumers to purchase Fairtrade products when compared with the values motivating organic food purchase. However, as in the case of all sustainable consumption, a certain degree of altruistic values, such as universalism or benevolence, may be present. Yet the purchase of Fairtrade food products is seldom related to egoistic values, such as health. Previous research has indicated that the primary motivation to purchase Fairtrade products is a truly altruistic idea of helping the poor of the world (Bowes & Croft, 2007). Universalism is, therefore, the value that is involved in Fairtrade grocery shopping (Doran, 2009; Pepper et al., 2009), but hedonism, equality and self-direction values may also guide Fairtrade consumption (Shaw et al., 2005; de Ferran & Grunert, 2007). Even though Fairtrade product purchase may be guided by egoistic value orientations like hedonism, the main drivers for Fairtrade consumption are based on altruistic value orientations.

According to previous research, the purchase of locally produced food is primarily motivated by biospheric values (e.g. no long transportation distances required) and altruistic values (doing good for society and the local economy; Zepeda & Leviten-Reid, 2004; Paloviita, 2010). However, the consumption of

locally produced food is not only guided by altruistic or biospheric value orientations, since egoistic or hedonistic value orientations can also have an influence. Locally produced food is often purchased because it is considered fresh, tasty and trustworthy, but also safe (Roininen et al., 2006; Grankvist et. al., 2007; Ansio et al., 2011). According to Zepeda and Deal (2009), local food is more desirable than organic food, since purchasing locally produced food can be considered an anti-corporate act and supporting the small-scale food production and family farms. Local food can also be purchased for cultural reasons such as cultural heritage and tradition, but also because local food producers are believed to treat their animals and workers better than the producers of conventional food (Pirog, 2003; Weatherell et al., 2003; Zepeda & Deal, 2009; Peltoniemi & Yrjölä, 2012; Autio et al., 2013).

As can be seen from previous research, the values associated with organic, locally produced and Fairtrade food products differ somewhat. The altruistic value orientation is identified as one of the value orientations guiding all types of sustainable food consumption, but organic food purchase seems to be driven by egoistic orientations (taste, personal health), and the purchase of locally produced food is motivated by biospheric value orientation (food miles). Both Fairtrade products and locally produced food were strongly associated with altruistic values, since the idea of supporting the wellbeing of others, either the farmers near one's home or the farmers far away in developing countries, is strongly associated with both.

TABLE 3 Value orientations and product attributes motivating sustainable food consumption

Food ↓ **Value orientation**	**Egoistic**	**Altruistic**	**Biospheric**
Organic	Taste, personal health, safety	Supporting the local economy	Protecting the environment, animal welfare
Fairtrade	Taste	"Helping the poor of the world"	Environmental protection and guiding producers to adapt to and mitigate climate change
Locally produced	Safety, taste, freshness	Supporting local economy/small-scale production, preserving cultural heritage, animal welfare	Short transportation distances

As can be seen from Table 3, sustainable food consumption cannot be considered to be guided entirely by altruistic values, since it can be motivated by both individual and collective values (Verain et al., 2012). In addition, sustainable food consumption can be driven by hedonic values when

consumers strive for rewarding sensory experiences and pleasure or want to strive for comfort and convenience (Buenstorf & Cordes, 2008; Steg et al., 2012) and people with strong self-enhancement values may also be inclined to act in a pro-environmental or sustainable way if they feel that the perceived individual benefit is greater than the needed sacrifice. Hedonic values can therefore be relevant to those sustainable or pro-environmental behaviours that have hedonic consequences (Steg et al., 2012). Nevertheless, food choice, whether sustainable or conventional, seems to be mostly motivated by safety, nutrition, taste and price, but naturalness and the environment bring only added value to the products (Lusk & Briggeman, 2009).

Despite the values that are associated with sustainably produced food, it should be kept in mind that food purchases are usually made out of habit instead of strong brand loyalty. It is said that consumers in general have low involvement with most low-cost and frequently purchased products. Habitual purchase behaviour occurs when little significant brand differences exist. In this case consumers do not search extensively for information about or evaluate different brands (Kotler & Armstrong, 2012; Kotler & Keller, 2009). Thus, habits often override ideologically formed attitudes and values in routine shopping activities such as purchasing food from a grocery store, and consumers fail to regularly purchase sustainably produced food despite positive attitudes and possible sustainably oriented value orientations (Uusitalo & Oksanen, 2004; Tarkiainen & Sundqvist, 2009). Nevertheless, consumer involvement in habitually purchased products can be elevated, for instance, by incorporating sustainability-related product features to an everyday product such as food (Thøgersen et al., 2012).

2.4 Values and marketing communication

Consumers' values influence their behaviour and responses during purchasing as well as how consumers perceive and react to communication campaigns (Belz & Peattie, 2009). Moreover, values may play an important role in consumer decision-making processes when choosing a sustainable product or brand (Burgess, 1992), since connecting product features related to sustainability to consumer values may help consumers identify the benefits of the products (Ottman et al., 2006; Golob et al., 2008).

Consumers do not often form strong attitudes towards food products and brands, but rather select a certain product routinely, out of habit, because it is familiar. Advertisement messages and their repetition create, therefore, brand familiarity rather than brand loyalty. In order to effectively try and change consumers' habitual purchase behaviour, marketers can design such advertisements that trigger strong emotions that are related to personal values or ego-defence (Kotler & Armstrong, 2012; Kotler & Keller, 2009). In addition, advertising can help consumers discover, select and use sustainable products or

services by informing, ensuring availability and conveying the appropriate idea through marketing messages (Jones et al., 2011).

In marketing, product attributes or brand messages have traditionally been connected to personal values and the appeals used in advertisements often refer to core values. Moreover, when appealing to closely held personal values consumers might become more aware of the attributes of a product they might not have previously been aware of (Vinson et al., 1977; Gutman, 1982; Wells et al., 2000). The key to successfully marketing sustainably produced products and, in particular, if seeking to expand sustainable-oriented consumption into the mass market, is therefore to connect the product features and the brand message with the values that consumers find appealing (Ottman et al., 2006; Golob et al., 2008; Belz & Peattie, 2009).

Although consumer markets and consumers as a group are heterogeneous, sustainable products, such as food, can be promoted to a broader public through communication efforts. In order to gain and hold the consumers' attention, advertising messages should be well planned, imaginative, entertaining and emotionally engaging. In addition, advertisements should provide information that is interesting, useful and entertaining and, in order to produce the desired response, a marketer has to find an effective appeal or a theme (Kotler & Armstrong, 2012). Consumer behaviour is often emotional and experiential; thus emotional appeals have been found to be effective in marketing communications.

Certain product features can be addressed when informing consumers through, for example, advertising. These features can be purely functional or utilitarian, but the values and the more abstract need-satisfying capacity of sustainably produced products can also be communicated (Vermeir & Verbeke, 2008). In addition, when providing information about the products to consumers, certain product features can be highlighted. Moreover, the functional benefits as well as the emotional benefits or values linked with sustainable products can be communicated (Hartmann et al., 2006; Vermeir & Verbeke, 2008).

As we have seen, sustainably produced food products are associated with a range of values: biospheric and altruistic value orientation, together with egoistic value orientations as well as values of universalism and benevolence and hedonism, security and self-direction. Therefore, appealing to these values in marketing communication may positively influence attitudes towards these products and sustainable food consumption (Aertsens et al., 2009).

3 CORPORATE RESPONSIBILITY IN THE FINNISH FOOD CHAIN

This chapter reviews previous research concerning CR in the food chain and introduces its seven dimensions. Although the focus of this thesis is on the consumer perspective of sustainable food consumption, food chain CR remains a central concept. Food chain CR and sustainable food consumption are associated with each other, since food consumption and food choices are a significant cause of environmental and social impacts in the World, and CR is the business sectors' contribution to sustainable consumption. Motivating sustainable consumption can therefore be viewed as a part of CR of food chain actors (Málovics et al., 2008; Belz & Peattie, 2009).

As mentioned in Chapter 1, CR can be a source of competitive advantage for companies in the food chain (Verhees et al., 2008; Hartmann, 2011; Heikkurinen & Forsman-Hugg 2011). In addition, it may be worthwhile for companies to communicate about their corporate responsibility or sustainability–related efforts and good performance to consumers as well as to offer more sustainable food products to consumers and actively inform consumers about the more sustainable alternatives. Although consumers are seldom aware that they are the drivers of strategic CR, they nevertheless have a strong influence on the business case for sustainability that is, making it appealing and worthwhile for companies to engage in CR endeavours (Dyllick & Hockerts, 2002; Verbeke, 2008). Consumers can be seen as one of the main drivers of strategic CR (Belz & Schmidt-Riediger, 2010; Du et al., 2010) and therefore as important actors in the supply chain of food. Consumers can also influence companies' actions and even push them towards greater responsibility positively by buying products or negatively by boycotting the individual products or the whole company (Boulstridge & Carrigan, 2000; Porter & Kramer, 2006; Grappi et al., 2013).

3.1 Development of CR as a concept

Definitions of corporate responsibility have been developed since the 1950s, and it has evolved together with businesses and how businesses can meet the needs of societies. In the beginning, the main concept of CR was that corporations have obligations towards society. For many decades, the discussion about CR revolved very much around the social obligations of corporations and CR is still often referred to as the firm's obligations to society that extend beyond the law and the interest of the firm (Verhees et al., 2008; Rahman, 2011).

Carrol (1991) introduced a more comprehensive approach to CR, referred to as the "pyramid of responsibilities". At the base of the pyramid are the economic responsibilities (i.e. minimising costs and maximising sales) of a company. The second layer consists of legal responsibilities. Both economic and legal responsibilities (i.e. complying with legislation) are, according to Carrol (1991), required by society. The third layer is the ethical responsibilities of companies, which can, for example, be operating above the minimal standards set by laws. These are expected but not required by society. The fourth and uppermost layer of the pyramid includes the philanthropic responsibilities of a company and the aim of these is to improve the quality of life for society by, for instance, supporting the community. The philanthropic responsibilities are both desired as well as expected by society (Carrol, 1991).

Nowadays, CR is understood as the inclusion of social and environmental aspects in business operations. The CR concept was first linked with the natural environment through the Brundtland Commission's definition of sustainable development (see section 1.5.1). In 1997 Elkington introduced the TBL concept where the three pillars of sustainability – economic, environmental and social – are applied to the business context. The term *triple bottom line* is drawn from financial accounting, and it was originally developed to measure organisational performance. Its central idea is that business should not only focus on achieving the best possible economic bottom line performance, but also measure and manage the societal and environmental impacts of their operations. Like sustainability, the TBL also consists of three pillars: people, planet and profit. According to Elkington (1997), these three dimensions of the TBL should be in this specific order of importance. Business should no longer focus first on their profit and then on other issues, but rather take into account the natural environment, society and look beyond the shareholders' interest and acknowledge the importance of the stakeholders that are affected by the organisation (Elkington, 1997; Hubbard, 2009; Bondy & Matten, 2012; Brown & Dharmasasmita, 2015).

The core idea of TBL is that a company or organisation should measure its performance in relation to all its stakeholders, such as local communities, and not merely the ones with whom it has direct, transactional relationships (e.g. employees, suppliers and customers). The TBL implies that a firm's

responsibilities are more than merely producing the products and services wanted by its customers and being economically profitable. In TBL, environmental performance (planet) refers to the amount of natural resources a company uses in its operations, and what waste and emissions its activities create. The social performance (people) refers to the impact a company has on the communities in which it operates. Measuring environmental and especially social performance is not an easy task, since these tend to be unique to each organisation or at least to each branch of industry and they tend to be challenging to quantify if compared to measuring and quantifying financial performance. The TBL framework is a rather generic one and it fails to take into account industry-specific CR issues (Maloni & Brown, 2006; Hubbard, 2009). CR issues that are specific to the food chain are further elaborated on in section 3.2.

Strategic CR is one way in which companies can implement CR in their operations. The goal of strategic CR is to create a win-win-win situation, where CR makes it possible for people, planet and profit to thrive. CR becomes strategic, when it supports the core business operations and yields considerable benefits to the company, contributing to the company's possibilities to accomplish its mission (Burke & Logsdon, 1996). The central notion of strategic CR is that responsibility issues should not be considered in an imprudent and superficial manner. CR actions that consist of mere corporate philanthropy (i.e. spontaneous charity towards motley of causes) or recycling of outputs, cannot be considered strategic CR or taking adequate responsibility of the economic, environmental and social impacts of company operations (Heikkurinen, 2013).

For the purposes of this research, the definition of CR defined by the European Commission (EC) is used. According to this definition, CR is the act of companies taking responsibility for their impacts on society, how environmental and social concerns are integrated into their business operations and how they interact with their stakeholders on a voluntary basis. CR is thus considered a voluntary action, surpassing the minimal legislative compliance (EC, 2014). This definition has been chosen because it incorporates all the aspects of the aforementioned CR definitions: companies taking responsibility of the economic, environmental and social impacts of their operations, interaction with stakeholders, and the idea that CR is voluntary and surpasses the minimal legislative requirements.

There are many reasons why companies and organisations engage in CR. Since the context of the study is Finland and the focus is Finnish food chain CR, it is worthwhile to mention that for Finnish companies the main reasons to engage in CR activities are stakeholder expectations and demands, globalisation, customer demand, and pursuing sustainable development (Panapanaan et al., 2003).

3.2 Food chain CR

The food chain is a complex, often multinational context (Fritz & Schiefer, 2009), and its corporate responsibility is also complex and multidimensional. The food supply chain is recognised as playing a significant role in sustainability, since it fulfils human needs, provides employment and economic growth and has environmental impacts. The food supply chain is also acknowledged as a means of fulfilling consumer expectations for improved quality and origin. Consumers are becoming increasingly more aware of the environmental and social impacts of food production and consumption. This awareness has caused consumers, consumer organisations, policymakers and other stakeholders to exert pressure on food producers and retailers (Weatherell et al., 2003; Maloni & Brown, 2007; Belz & Peattie, 2009).

Food retailers also have a key role in the supply chain of food, since they can act as gatekeepers of sustainability (Ytterhus et al., 1999). Because of their purchasing power, retailers can have significant control over what kind of products are sold in grocery stores, how widely sustainably produced food products are available, and how and to what extent they are promoted (Belz & Schmidt-Riediger, 2010).

Different industries have unique supply chains and industry-specific CR issues connected to them. It should therefore be noted that one supply chain CR model does not fit all (Maloni & Brown, 2006). CR in the food chain can act as a safeguard against the risks related to product safety, environmental or social incidence, since a reputation for responsible conduct is very important for companies operating in the food chain (Hartmann, 2011). Moreover, CR is becoming increasingly important in the food chain because food is necessary for our existence, food products are complex plant- or animal-based products and food chains are labour intensive (Maloni & Brown, 2006; Holme, 2010).

What then is food chain CR? A framework for CR in the food industry has been provided by Maloni and Brown (2006). This framework includes animal welfare, health and safety, environmental issues of food production, supporting local communities, and labour and human rights. Food and eating are basic human needs and people therefore have strong views on what they eat. This imposes various requirements on the food sector regarding raw materials, the environment and social conditions throughout the supply chain as well as product safety, quality and healthiness issues.

This research uses a framework developed to conceptualise food chain CR that is based on the work of Maloni and Brown (2006), but further developed to cover the contextual concerns of the Finnish food chain by Forsman-Hugg et al. (2009). This framework of food chain CR contains seven dimensions: environmental responsibility, product safety, nutritional responsibility, occupational welfare, animal health and welfare, local market presence, and economic responsibility. The seven key dimensions were identified in order to provide food companies a better understanding of CR in the complex network

of the food chain. The development of this seven-dimension framework and the identification of the seven dimensions that are most central for Finnish food chain CR were formed in an iterative, dialogic process where participatory stakeholder, expert and corporate workshops were held (for a more detailed explanation of the process, see Forsman-Hugg et al., 2009 and Forsman-Hugg et al., 2013). The seven dimensions of food chain CR and their link to the three dimensions of sustainability is presented in section 3.2 and Figure 4.

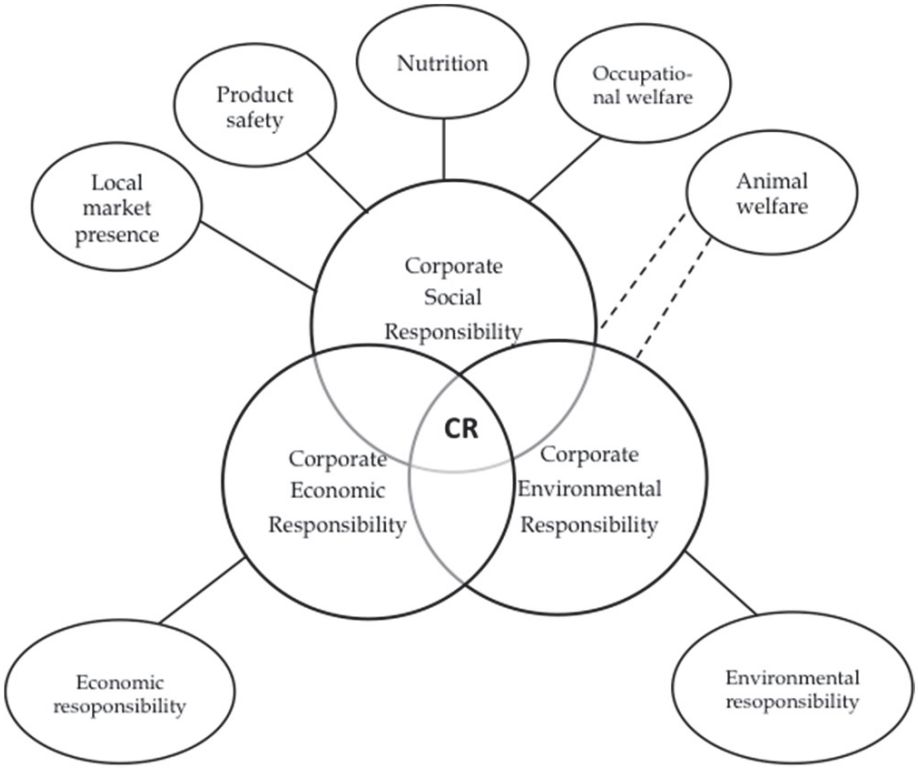

FIGURE 4 The seven dimensions of Finnish food chain CR grouped according to the three dimensions of CR (adapted from Heikkurinen & Forsman-Hugg, 2011)

The definitions of these seven dimensions of food chain CR that shall now be presented are those that have been defined during and for the purposes of the research projects during which they have been developed. The *environmental responsibility* dimension of food chain CR takes into account the environmental impacts of the product at all stages of its lifecycle, the impacts of the primary production being the most significant ones. The most significant environmental problems in the food chain concern climate change and eutrophication of waters. It would be of the utmost importance that companies would be aware of the environmental impacts of their own operations in order to develop solutions to mitigate them. When considering the environmental responsibility

in the food chain, both the environmental impacts of the production as well as the product itself should be taken into account.

The next dimension of food chain CR is product safety, which can refer to product traceability, knowledge of product origin, principles of product safety, cleanness and hygiene of the product, disease control, clean and safe raw materials as well as the safe use of food additives. Although product safety can be considered a strength of Finnish food production and essential to maintaining consumer trust, the complex global food supply chains force food manufacturers to face great challenges in order to fulfil the traceability requirements and meet the consumers' expectations. Open communication from agribusiness companies and food producers to consumers is therefore needed in order to assure them that good practices are used and developed to guarantee food safety. (Forsman-Hugg et. al. 2009; Heikkurinen & Forsman-Hugg, 2011; Heikkurinen et al., 2012; Forsman-Hugg et al., 2013)

The third food chain CR dimension is nutritional responsibility, which refers to the production and marketing of food that does not have adverse health impacts, product information, labelling (e.g. Guideline Daily Amount, GDA), the use of additives as well as of pesticides and fertilisers. Nutritional responsibility is therefore related to health and it would be important that companies would voluntarily and openly provide consumers and other stakeholders with nutritional product information beyond the minimal legal requirements. The fourth dimension is the occupational welfare of employees in agriculture and the food sector. This dimension has perhaps remained somewhat distant to consumers compared with, for instance, product safety, but it has nevertheless been identified as one of the key dimensions of food chain CR. Occupational welfare encompasses working conditions, work safety, motivation, wages, equality and employment effects of the entire food chain. The occupational welfare of the Finnish workers is secured by legislation. However, once again the global food chains may be a source of problems due to the possibility of child labour and equality issues (Forsman-Hugg et. al. 2009; Heikkurinen & Forsman-Hugg, 2011; Heikkurinen et al., 2012; Forsman-Hugg et al., 2013).

The fifth dimension is animal health and welfare, and it is a crucial dimension of food chain CR. This dimension encompasses the treatment of animals and living conditions of animals, which are of a growing interest to consumers, but also issues such as zoonosis control and the link between animal welfare and producer welfare. Animal welfare needs to be carefully monitored with supply-chain wide criteria and measures. The sixth dimension is local market presence, and it may be defined as the interaction between the company and its markets and the local operating environment, along with the wellbeing of the local community including interpersonal relationships, culinary culture, biodiversity and economic conditions (Forsman-Hugg et. al. 2009; Heikkurinen & Forsman-Hugg, 2011; Heikkurinen et al., 2012; Forsman-Hugg et al., 2013). For consumers this dimension seemed to mean locally produced food and the welfare that it brings to the local economy by

maintaining rural livelihoods (DuPuis & Goodman, 2005; Heikkurinen et al., 2012).

The seventh dimension is economic responsibility, which is included in all the definitions of both corporate (social) responsibility as well as sustainability. Economic responsibility is an indispensable part of all business activities and the basis for all other CR dimensions, since a good financial performance allows companies to engage in other responsible actions. Although economic performance is measured by using traditional financial indicators, in terms of food chain CR the economic impacts on stakeholders and society, such as transparency of price formation in the food chain and the economic impacts of food production on the different food chain actors, should be more relevant than the financial performance of an individual company (Forsman-Hugg et al., 2009; Heikkurinen & Forsman-Hugg, 2011; Heikkurinen et al., 2012; Forsman-Hugg et al., 2013).

3.3 Consumer perceptions of corporate responsibility

Consumers' food choice, whether sustainable or conventional food products, is motivated by personal health, food quality, safety and taste as well as food price. For the majority of consumers the sustainability of food is merely an added value if the other motivating factors are already present (Grunert, 2002; Grunert, 2005; Weatherell et al., 2003; Hughner et al., 2007; Buenstorf & Cordes, 2008; Hjelmar, 2011; Thøgersen, 2011).

However, other previous research on consumer perceptions of corporate responsibility revealed that, when making purchase decisions or forming an opinion about the CR performance of a company or other food chain actor, consumers tend to rank environmental issues, human rights and animal welfare high. Especially for those consumers already interested in sustainability issues, food is strongly linked with ethical issues and, in the food group, human rights are considered to be the most important ethical issue, followed by environmental issues, whereas animal welfare was considered to be the least important issue, albeit not completely unimportant (Wheale & Hinton, 2007).

In his research, Belz (2005) has also identified similar patterns, stating that consumers pay the most attention to the socio-ecological criteria when making food purchase decisions. Consumers are therefore interested in the social and environmental dimensions of corporate responsibility, but are less interested in the economic dimension. From the consumer perspective, corporate responsibility is not only related to the individual consumer's capacity to mitigate environmental and social threats, but it can also be seen as a way for the other food chain actors, such as retailers, to do so. Thus, corporate responsibility extends environmentalism beyond the individual level (Collins et al., 2007).

According to Banterle et al. (2013), consumers are most interested in information concerning food product origin, process and food safety attributes.

The attributes related to the food production process, such as the environmental impacts and animal welfare, were the ones consumers were interested in but at the same time wanted more information about (Banterle et al., 2013).

Research conducted in Finland and in the Finnish food chain context has shown that consumers consider the healthiness of food as the most important factor followed by product safety, animal welfare and the use of local raw materials. The least important dimension was occupational welfare and among the least important dimensions were also the environmental impacts of food production and economic responsibility (Kotro et al., 2011). According to research done by the National Consumer Research Center (NCRC) in 2011, Finnish consumers' food choice is mostly influenced by the good taste of food as well as the healthiness and the price of the food (Peltoniemi & Yrjölä, 2012). A similar study was carried out by the NCRC in 2005 and even then consumers' food choices were mostly motivated by good taste, healthiness and price, whereas the issues related to sustainability, such as local production, animal welfare and organic production were considered to be the least important criteria (Piiroinen & Järvelä, 2006).

However, the results of the 2011 survey show a marked increase in consumer interest in sustainability issues related to food. In 2005, 34% of respondents considered ethical production (Fairtrade, free range eggs, animal welfare) at least fairly important. In the newer questionnaire from 2011, when asked about animal welfare and Fairtrade in separate questions, 62% of consumers placed at least moderate importance on animal welfare and 49% on Fairtrade, respectively. When comparing the results of the two surveys, there is an increase of 28 percentage points in consumer interest in animal welfare and Fairtrade from 2005 to 2011 (Peltoniemi & Yrjölä, 2012). In addition, the popularity of locally produced and organic food as consumers' food choice criteria also showed an increase between 2005 and 2011. In 2011, 59% of consumers placed at least a fair amount of importance on locally produced food and 39% of consumers thought that organic is at least a fairly important criterion in food choice. When compared with the results from the 2005 survey, the popularity and appreciation of locally produced food has increased 18% and that of organic food 13% in 2011. This may be visible in the future as increased availability of locally and organically produced food in grocery stores (Peltoniemi & Yrjölä, 2012).

Consumers' perceptions of food chain CR have been previously studied during a research project carried out in 2009 by Agrifood Research Finland and Finland's National Consumer Research Center. This study showed that consumers viewed product safety and nutritional responsibility as the most important dimensions of food chain CR. These dimensions were seen as being the corporations' responsibility and communication about them was perceived as both important as well as interesting. In addition, the social themes of environmental responsibility as well as animal health and welfare were viewed as important as was, to some extent, local market presence. However, occupational welfare and economic responsibility were perceived as being the

corporations' responsibilities that do not even need to concern the consumer (Forsman-Hugg et al., 2009).

The results of the previous research on Finnish consumers' perceptions of food chain CR dimensions have indicated that the importance of the different food chain CR dimensions depends on the consumer's perspective. Three possible perspectives identified were the consumer as the user of the product, the social or global perspective, and the corporate operations perspective. Consumers perceived those dimensions that were linked with either themselves or the society as more important to them. However, the dimensions linked with corporate operations were perceived as less important (Forsman-Hugg et al., 2009).

The consumer perceptions of the different food chain CR dimensions and the value orientations associated with them are relevant for companies, since when companies are aware of the importance consumers and other stakeholders place on the different CR dimensions, they can choose which dimensions to focus on in order to meet the demands of their stakeholders. In addition, the information about those dimensions that have been identified to be of interest to consumers and other stakeholders should be openly communicated, since the availability of reliable information can facilitate informed and sustainable consumption (Collins et al., 2007). Moreover, consumers can also have an influence on food producing companies by, for instance, forcing companies to more overtly disclose information about the products they offer due to the consumers' increasing awareness of traceability in the food chain, the origin of the raw materials, the environmental impacts of food production, product safety, and societal issues, such as animal welfare. Companies are asked to disclose how they operate, what their impact on the society is and how they control and minimise their environmental impacts. All this increases the transparency of their actions, which is something that customers, consumers, NGOs, the media and society call for (Forsman-Hugg et al., 2013).

The different information channels and the relevance of communications in terms of motivating sustainable food consumption will be discussed in the next chapter. For the values motivating sustainable consumption, see Chapter 2.

4 COMMUNICATING SUSTAINABILITY: CONSUMER PERCEPTIONS OF COMMUNICATION CHANNELS

Consumers have an important role in sustainability as a result of their patterns and levels of consumption (Pereira Heath & Chatzidakis, 2012). In addition, consumer food choices are significantly affected by information (Verbeke, 2008). Moreover, previous research has indicated that the low sales of sustainably produced food products may, to some extent, result from the lack of marketing and information (Röös & Tjärnemo, 2011). Different means of communications can be used to educate consumers about environmental and social issues related to food consumption and issues connected with corporate responsibility as well as to direct their attention towards them (Daub & Ergenzinger, 2005; Moon, 2007).

4.1 Informing consumers about sustainability

Although the early models examining pro-environmental behaviour were based on the assumption that the ample availability of information about environmental issues is followed by positive attitudes towards protecting the environment, which in turn results in pro-environmental behaviour, these models were soon proven to be inadequate. Research has shown that in many cases the increase in the amount of knowledge and awareness does not necessarily result in pro-environmental behaviour (Kollmuss & Agyeman, 2002; Polonsky, 2011). Moreover, research has shown that the amount of information does not necessarily correlate with consumers' willingness to purchase sustainably produced food or help to bridge the value-action gap (Timmer et al., 2009; Polonsky, 2011). The lack of awareness about sustainability aspects and the more sustainable alternatives to conventional products is, indeed,

considered a barrier to pro-environmental or more sustainable behaviour (Kollmuss & Agyeman, 2002; Timmer et al., 2009; Polonsky, 2011).

However, the majority of consumers have limited knowledge about the different environmental and social issues related to food production. Therefore, information may function as a means of raising consumer awareness about different alternatives, either sustainable or conventional, and in this way it unquestionably provides the prerequisites for informed choice by consumer, consequently facilitating sustainable consumption (Thøgersen, 2005; Vermeir & Verbeke, 2006; Honkanen et al., 2006; Collins et al., 2007; McDonald et al., 2009; Zepeda & Deal, 2009; Hepting et al., 2014).

Moreover, consumers may want to be informed in order to have more freedom and choice (Zanoli & Naspetti, 2002), and according to Ottman (2006), consumers should be educated about the sustainability issues related to their consumption. Furthermore, information about the environmental consequences of food consumption, as well as the environmental benefits of sustainably produced food, is in particular valued by those consumers who have strong biospheric values and want to protect the environment (Schwartz, 1992; Stern, 2000; De Groot & Steg, 2008; De Groot & Thøgersen, 2013).

In addition, as mentioned in section 2.2, the sustainability of sustainably produced products is not a visible attribute or something that consumers can ascertain by themselves. Thus, they have to trust the information given by others (Weatherell et al., 2003; Karstens & Belz, 2006; Vermeir & Verbeke, 2006; Buenstorf & Cordes, 2008; Martin & Schouten, 2014). The role of information and communication is therefore essential when trying to make consumers aware of the sustainably produced food alternatives.

Informing consumers about sustainability issues may increase consumers' trust towards the product, brand or even the company itself (Vermeir & Verbeke, 2006; Vermeir, 2008; Zepeda & Deal, 2009). When consumers are purchasing fast-moving consumer goods such as food, they are interested in the green, ethical or responsible status of the retailer as well as the actual products (McDonald et al., 2009). Information may also influence pre-existing pro-environmental or sustainability-related values or shape attitudes (Zepeda & Deal, 2009; Pagiaslis & Krontalis, 2014). In order for this to happen, however, consumers have to feel that they can trust the content of the claim made about the product and that the product does what it promises to do in order to avoid green- or blue-washing (Ottman, 2006; Vermeir & Verbeke, 2006; Belz & Peattie, 2009; Emery, 2012; Lewis & Stanley, 2012; Martin & Schouten, 2014). If consumers feel that the available information cannot be trusted they may, instead of official sources of information (e.g. labels), resort to social information, looking to other people for an indication about desired behaviour and using word of mouth as an information source (Vermeir & Verbeke, 2006; Martin & Schouten, 2014; Umpfenbach et al., 2014).

Retailers, food producers and other food chain actors should actively seek to empower consumers by giving them sustainable choice options and informing them about the environmental and social consequences of their

choices, thus making it possible for consumers to take responsibility. These options should be easy to identify, trust and understand. They should also effortlessly fit into the consumer's current way of life so that the consumer would not have to feel the need to make sacrifices, since the more complex and contradictory the information is, the less confident consumers may be when choosing products (Thøgersen, 2005; Vermeir & Verbeke, 2006; Borin et al., 2011; Polonsky, 2011; Lombardini & Lankoski, 2013).

However, in order for the information to be effective it should be in line and harmonious with the value orientations of the target group (Boomsma & Steg, 2014, Martin & Schouten, 2014, Graham & Abrahamse, 2017). Thus, if the target group has a strong biospheric value orientation, information about the environmental benefits of sustainably produced food is effective. If, however, the target group is more egoistically oriented, information about the hedonic benefits related to food, such as good taste and enjoyment, should be communicated (Boomsma & Steg, 2014). In addition, the so-called green communication has been identified as one of the major areas of weakness in company operations (Pickett-Baker & Ozaki, 2008), despite the fact that many companies understand the benefits of incorporating environmental attributes and ethical qualities into their practices and products (Esty & Winston, 2006). Moreover, in order for the information to be effective, it should be clear, reliable and easily understandable instead of complex and contradictory (Vermeir & Verbeke, 2006; Verbeke, 2008; Polonsky, 2011; Lewis & Stanley, 2012; Umpfenbach et al., 2014).

Previous research has indicated that the benefits of sustainably produced products are often rather poorly communicated, and it is therefore challenging for consumers to make informed decisions. Consumers may also often have problems in even identifying the sustainably produced product alternatives or they may believe that the sustainable product alternatives are of inferior quality and more expensive than their conventional counterparts (Vermeir & Verbeke, 2006; D'Souza et al., 2007; Pickett-Baker & Ozaki, 2008). Moreover, in the case of sustainable food consumption, consumers' informed choices can also be affected by the fact that consumers often have limited knowledge of agriculture, food production processes and the implications of both for environmental and social sustainability. In addition, consumers usually make sustainable consumption choices if they believe that these choices are in their best interest and when they believe that the sustainability-related claims made about the product are true and that the product does what it promises in terms of sustainability (Vermeir & Verbeke, 2006; Polonsky, 2011).

In the promotion of sustainable consumption or sustainably produced products, food producers, marketers and other supply chain actors informing consumers could emphasise the benefits of sustainable consumption or even focus on the personal benefits of sustainable products. For example, stressing health consequences or hedonic needs, such as superior taste, could encourage sustainable food consumption (Thøgersen, 2005; Vermeir & Verbeke, 2006).

Still, assessing the effectiveness of communication and the information processing ability of the audience to which the message is targeted can be rather problematic, since it is practically impossible to map out the impact of communication efforts in changing consumer behaviour or resulting in the desired action. Carefully targeting the message to selected target customers may help, but still the communication may fail to reach this target audience or not be persuasive enough. (Vermeir & Verbeke, 2006; Verbeke, 2008; Martin & Schouten, 2014)

4.2 Sources of product information for consumers

Consumers form their initial understanding of a product partly based on the information initiated by the marketer. This information can be, for example, in the form of advertising or labels (D'Souza et al., 2006; McDonald & Oates, 2006; Vermeir & Verbeke, 2006). Consumers can access information contributing to the education and awareness from several sources: traditional marketing communications such as advertisements on TV and the radio as well as in magazines and newspapers, websites of food manufacturers, company reports, leaflets and other material distributed in grocery stores, and product packaging. Direct contact with company representatives and contact with agricultural producers are also considered as means of delivering information. The non-marketer sources used to deliver messages and information are information published by NGOs, bulletins and websites of food agencies, publications and websites of research institutes and word of mouth. Newer communication channels include mobile applications and social media.

In addition, consumers can obtain information about products from experiential sources (i.e. examining, handling and using the product). Usually, consumers receive the most information about a product or service from commercial sources that are controlled by the marketer. However, the most effective sources of information tend to be personal. Commercial sources generally inform, whereas personal sources legitimise or evaluate products (Kotler & Armstrong, 2012; Lewis & Stanley, 2012).

In past years, promotional means other than advertising – such as product packaging, outdoor advertising, direct marketing and internet and mobile communications – have increased in importance. However, mass media advertising is still the most economically efficient way of informing and stimulating a large number of consumers. In mass media advertising, print media such as newspapers and magazines have dominated, but they have lost share to television advertising and more recently to the internet in most countries. However, empirical research shows that the internet has still not managed to completely replace printed media. To date, consumers have used the internet and mobile devices as an additional channel rather than as a substitute for print media (Uusitalo, 2010). In her research on energy companies

and their efforts to promote sustainable energy consumption, Korsunova (2010) has also reached similar conclusions that only a modest proportion of consumers visit their energy provider's website in search of information.

Sources of information can also be divided into formal and informal categories. Formal sources include, for example, in-store information, specialist sources, corporate communications and government publications. Informal, or non-mediated, sources consist of word of mouth and personal recommendations. In addition, consumers can use brand reputation as the basis for their choice (McDonald & Oates, 2006). Consumers may use a mixture of different information sources and base their choices on information from external sources as well as on their previous experience (Verbeke, 2008). This is also true when informing consumers about sustainably produced products and their attributes. According to Pickton and Broderick (2005), the sources of information that consumers use vary from formal, marketer sources such as corporate and marketing communications and television and print advertising, websites and packaging, to more intangible, non-marketer communication instruments, such as word of mouth and opinion leaders.

4.3 Consumer perceptions of information sources

The channels consumers prefer when looking for information about sustainability issues related to fast-moving consumer goods, such as sustainably produced food, are product labels, point-of-purchase communications and consumer networks (McDonald et al., 2009). In addition, consumers use the internet, magazines and books (e.g. cookbooks), to be informed about sustainably produced food products (Zepeda & Deal, 2009). In the fast-moving consumer goods sector, there is a great deal of information available for consumers and the sheer amount of information can at times complexify rather than simplify the consumer decision process (D'Souza, 2004; Vermeir & Verbeke, 2006). Moreover, research indicates that consumers generally prefer simpler information to more detailed information, and that simpler the label, the more familiar consumers are with it (Kortelainen et al., 2013).

As stated in the first chapter, consumers may not have the necessary knowledge about which issues are relevant in terms of the environmental or social impacts of food. This may lead consumers to rely only on the packaging information or other point-of-purchase information or information from personal sources. Consumers tend to trust product labels such as the Fairtrade label (McDonald et al., 2008). In addition to labels and point-of-purchase information sources, tools such as ecological footprint analysis can be successful in showing the impacts of an individual's lifestyle and consumption choices (Young et al., 2010). Alongside the formal marketing sources of information, consumers use informal, non-marketing sources, such as consumer networks (McDonald et al., 2009; Du et al., 2010) and word of mouth. The latter, in

particular, has become a growing force in shaping consumer decisions due to the popularity and widespread use of social media and other forms of internet communication (Du et al., 2010; Kotler, 2011; Martin & Schouten, 2014).

Based on previous research, it is possible to conclude that when being informed about sustainability issues consumers tend to prefer either informal sources of information or marketing sources that are conveniently available at the point of purchase, such as labels or other information on product packaging (Jones et al., 2007; McDonald et al., 2009; Umpfenbach et al., 2014). Moreover, in order to be effective, the information should be simple, easy to read and truthful (Banterle et al., 2013).

A great deal of research has been focused on the effects of environmental or ethical labels on consumers' purchase behaviour. As a promotional device, environmental or ethical labels are often used as a simple way of presenting complex information to consumers. The assumption behind the labelling programmes is that credible information will affect consumer brand choice, thus increasing the market share of sustainably produced products (Bjørner et al., 2004; D'Souza et al., 2006; Belz & Peattie, 2009).

Labelling has a crucial role in marketing food and other fast-moving consumer goods, and it is used more widely than the traditional means of mass media advertising, such as television, radio, magazines and newspapers (Belz & Peattie, 2009; McDonald et al., 2009; Belz & Schmidt-Riediger, 2010; Banterle et al., 2013). In the case of sustainably produced food and other products, labelling is an important instrument when communicating with consumers about sustainability and when generating demand for sustainably produced products. The most effective label type is the single issue label informing about the most significant sustainability aspect, since these types of labels may help focus purchasing behaviour on reducing the most significant sustainability impacts (Young et al., 2010). Third-party labels and certified standards can also serve to increase the trustworthiness of CR communications (Du et al., 2010; Banterle et al., 2013).

However, the labelling programmes are not without their problems. Research has indicated that consumers are seldom capable of making informed choices based on information given by environmental or ethical labels, since consumers experience difficulties when trying to identify the different labels and their meanings and find it therefore difficult to trust them. The confusion about ecolabels and their meanings is furthered by the plethora of government, corporate and third-party ecolabels on a wide variety of products (Bhaskaran et al., 2006; Pickett-Baker & Ozaki, 2008). There is, indeed, a faulty reasoning behind the use and promotion of ecolabels. They are based on the assumption that consumers are able to make rational and ethically as well as environmentally informed choices when, in reality, the majority of consumers are not able to distinguish between the different ecolabels (Thøgersen, 2000; de Boer, 2003; D'Souza, 2004; Polonsky, 2011; Stanieri et al., 2010; Umpfenbach et al., 2014).

In spite of the fact that consumers have difficulties in understanding the meanings of different labels and on-package information, the results have indicated that labels are a suitable instrument of marketing communication (Bjørner, Hansen & Russell, 2004; D'Souza, 2004; Karstens & Belz, 2006; Vermeir & Verbeke, 2006; Belz & Peattie, 2009). Environmental and ethical labels may influence consumers' purchasing behaviour because the labels indicate that the product is generally acceptable (De Boer, 2003; D'Souza 2004; Bhaskaran et al., 2006). Moreover, voluntary ecolabels can, in addition to being a means of communication, be a tool to differentiate products and communicate product quality to consumers (Golan, 2000). In addition, ecolabels can be used to segment the market in such a way that the environmentally aware consumers or those who feel that ecolabels bring an added value to products, can pay more for the green product, thus maximising the producer revenue (Csutora, 2012).

However, labels should not be the only means of promotion used, but they should be used together with other means of promotion (Thøgersen, 2005; Rex & Bauman, 2007). There is an increasing demand for clear, understandable communication about the consumer as well as the environmental benefits of ecolabelled products. This is because vague terminology and a lack of information about the superior performance of the labelled product can result in cynicism, a lack of trust in sustainable product alternatives and communication efforts about them (Pickett-Baker & Ozaki, 2008; Borin et al., 2011).

In addition to promotion efforts of companies, public policy, the civil society and NGOs have a role in promoting sustainable consumption. Public policy might do this by controlling the ways companies promote their products and services but also by advancing sustainable means of fulfilling social and cultural needs instead of consumption. The civil society and NGOs might promote sustainable consumption by initiating a civil discourse about the different social and cultural functions of consumption and the redirecting of consumption toward more sustainable forms via labelling and information campaigns (Schaefer & Crane, 2005; Wheale & Hinton, 2007; Schrader & Thøgersen, 2011). Concerning sustainable food consumption, governments, NGOs, and public institutions are in a key role in providing free, transparent and credible information about both sustainable as well as healthy food choices (Verbeke, 2008). NGOs can also improve the transparency of CR, since they are independent of the company, which increases the trustworthiness of the information they deliver (Hartmann, 2011).

4.4 Communicating corporate responsibility

Studies have shown that CR actions may potentially have an impact on consumer behaviour by influencing customer loyalty, product consideration, company and product evaluation, purchase intention and willingness to pay (Dawkins, 2005; Verbeke, 2008; Hartman, 2011). By being a good corporate

citizen a company can stimulate consumer loyalty and make consumers brand or company ambassadors who voluntarily engage in advocacy behaviours such as positive word of mouth, willingness to pay a premium price and resilience to negative company news (Du et al., 2007). Moreover, incorporating CR themes into marketing communications may shape organisational image and enhance brand image (Dawkins, 2004; Schrader et al., 2006). It has been predicted that an increasing number of consumers will want to buy from companies that care about CR and companies should therefore actively disclose their CR initiatives and performance (Kotler, 2011).

The potential benefits of disclosing CR activities have been noticed, and companies have started to engage in CR activities and place more emphasis on communicating about them (Snider et al., 2003). In order to be able to bring in the benefits of CR activities companies should actively create stakeholder awareness towards their CR activities. Managers, therefore, should have a good understanding of the key issues related to CR communication, including the message content, the message channel and other company- and stakeholder-specific factors that may have an impact on the effectiveness of CR communication (Du et al., 2010).

However, consumers may neither be aware of nor understand the CR efforts or achievements. In addition, consumers may be surprisingly unknowing about the social and environmental problems that companies are claiming to tackle with their CR initiatives despite the extensive media coverage given to these issues (Auger et al., 2003; Pomering & Dolnicar, 2009). If consumer awareness of CR issues is low, the effect of CR initiatives on actual consumer behaviour remains low (Pomering & Dolnicar, 2009). However, according to polls and consumer surveys, consumers are indeed interested in learning more about CR initiatives and will support companies that pursue CR endeavours (Carrigan & Attalla, 2001; Dawkins, 2004; Pomering & Dolnicar, 2009). Yet consumers may also find overt use of CR engagement for marketing communication purposes distasteful and untrustworthy, making it challenging for companies to promote their CR activities (Morsing & Schultz, 2006).

Research indicates that stakeholders seldom have information about CR and the lack of effective CR communication is considered to be a hindrance to companies' possibility to gain strategic benefits from their CR initiatives (Du et al., 2010; Hartmann, 2011). The role of effective CR communications becomes especially important when companies move from a passive CR strategy to responsive and even proactive CR strategies (Heikkurinen & Forsman-Hugg, 2011). The importance of informing consumers, the significance of CR communications and knowledge as well as the dominant role of food has been stated in numerous studies (Bhaskaran et al., 2006; Duffy et al., 2005; Jones et al., 2009; Kottila, 2009; Marsden et al., 1998; Morsing & Schultz, 2006; Picket-Baker & Ozaki, 2008).

Furthermore, different CR communication messages speak to different audiences. Experts, for instance, find the facts and figures of CR reports appealing, whereas consumers prefer a clear message that strikes a chord by

using emotional appeals. However, one of the biggest challenges in CR communication is trying to combine clarity, credibility and emotional appeals to one message without crossing over to green or blue washing. Moreover, the prerequisite for successful CR communication is that the company puts words into action. Stakeholders seldom are impressed by mere rhetoric. One of the key issues in CR communication is to overcome stakeholder scepticism (Khosro et al., 2009; Du et al., 2010; Halme & Joutsenvirta, 2011; Martin & Schoulten, 2012). In addition, the values and CR expectations of consumers should be recognised and communication about CR issues tailored accordingly, as ignoring consumers' expectations can damage corporate reputation and further increase distrust (Golob et al., 2008).

4.5 CR information communication channels and consumer perceptions

A company can choose from a plethora of communication channels through which they can disseminate information about their CR activities to consumers. Communication channels that are not directly controlled by the corporation (i.e. the independent channels) are said to be in a key role in CR communication, because consumers can be sceptical towards corporate-controlled information sources (Morsing & Schultz, 2006; Pomering & Dolnicar, 2009; Du et al., 2010). The communication channels can be divided into corporate and independent channels as illustrated in Figure 5.

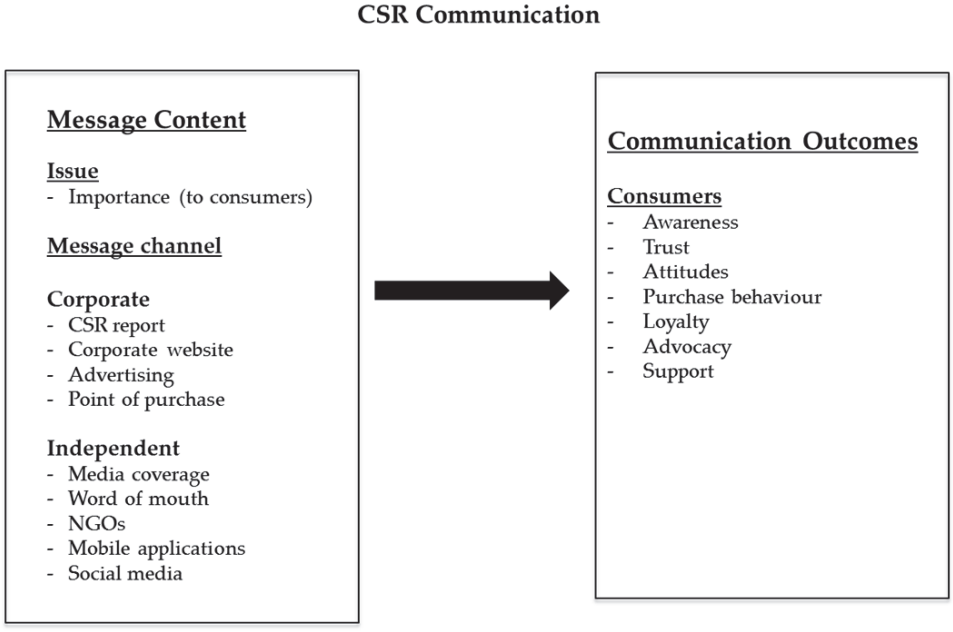

FIGURE 5 A framework of CSR communication (adapted from Du et al., 2010)

Official documents can be used for CR communications. These include CR and annual reports, press releases and dedicating a section of the corporate website to CR. In addition to these, print and TV commercials, billboards and product packaging can be used to communicate CR efforts to consumers (Du et al., 2010). The problem with official documents such as CR reports might be that consumers are not meant to be their main target audience. Official reports are more suitable for addressing experts in the CR field, such as researchers, reporters and authorities (Hedberg & von Malmborg, 2003; Dawkins, 2005; Farneti & Guthrie, 2009; Spence, 2009; Halme & Joutsenvirta, 2011).

In addition to the conventional CR reports, possible communication channels can be leaflets and product packaging but also public discussion with stakeholders and telling the consumer about the CR issues connected to a product or service at the point of purchase (Du et al., 2010). Communicating CR issues in a very overt way at the point of purchase and emphasizing the contact with the stakeholder and customer involvement can be a very successful communication strategy, and it is especially effective if combined with informal channels such as word of mouth (Dawkins, 2005; Collins et al., 2007; Khosro et al., 2009).

However, as mentioned in section 4.4, overt communication is not necessarily the best one. Morsing and Schultz (2006) state that so-called minimal releases, such as annual reports and websites, are the preferred communication channels for disseminating CR information to consumers. Moreover, CR communication is said to be more credible if it is indirect and subtle, such as presenting the objective, numerical data of an annual report instead of corporate advertising and overtly promoting CR (Morsing & Schultz, 2006). However, due to the credence nature of most CR claims, it has been shown that information coming directly from the company itself may be treated with greater scepticism than information coming from unbiased sources (Pomering & Dolnicar, 2009).

In terms of the credibility of the CR message, there may be a trade-off between the credibility and controllability of the CR communication and the communication channels used. The less controlled by the company the communication channel is, the more credibility it has. Consumers and other stakeholders are likely to perceive that the company has a vested interest in communicating their CR efforts in a certain way and through company-controlled channels, such as advertising, compared with the non-corporate sources, such as NGOs providing evaluations on corporate activities (Dawkins, 2005; Yoo et al., 2006; Du et al., 2010).

It has been pointed out that companies should actively endorse and encourage informal communication channels that consumers trust, such as word of mouth, since these tend to be rather effective channels for CR communication. The importance of word of mouth as a communication channel has grown due to the popularity and the extensive reach of different communication media available on the internet, such as blogs, discussion forums and social media. Companies can even act in a proactive way and use

social media to engage consumers as spokespeople for their CR activities (Du et al., 2010; Kotler, 2011; Martin & Schouten, 2014).

In addition, companies should actively engage consumers, along with other stakeholders, in dialogue instead of relying only on one-way promotion activities from the company to consumers. This dialogue with consumers would help to make sure that the CR issues that are communicated to consumers are consistent with their expectations, thus enabling a relationship to be formed with the consumer (Schrader et al., 2006; Belz & Peattie, 2009).

Along with company-controlled CR communication channels, there are a large number of external communicators of CR. Although the company can, at least to some extent, control the content of the CR messages communicated by the members of its value chain, such as employees, the company can have very little control over the content of the CR communication by external communicators that are not directly part of the company's value chain (Du et al., 2010). These external communicators include media, customers and NGOs.

4.6 Marketing communications and sustainable consumption

In order to purchase a product or service, consumers have to become aware of its existence and get an experience of the product or service. Marketing communications or promotion is the main means for companies to make consumers aware of their assortment of products or services. The goal of marketing communications is to try to influence or persuade the consumer by communicating a message. Marketing communications can be either personal communications directed to individually addressed persons or mass communications where the receivers are numerous and cannot be individually identified (De Pelsmacker et al., 2007; Kotler & Armstrong, 2012). Marketing can also help consumers to find and choose sustainable products and services, since it provides information about the product and its availability (Jones et al., 2011).

Promotion is the most visible instrument of the marketing mix and the main means of informing consumers. It comprises all the channels through which a company or organization communicates with its target groups or stakeholders when promoting its products or activities. Although advertising is often understood as a synonym for promotion, there is an array of other instruments that companies and organizations can use for marketing communications. Advertising is one element of the promotion mix and promotion is thus not a synonym for advertising (Kotler & Armstrong, 2012).

Marketing communications instruments include sales promotions, point-of-purchase communication, personal selling and e-communication (De Pelsmacker et al., 2007). Even product packaging and non-mediated channels such as word of mouth can be seen as part of the media mix used for promotion (Hackley, 2010). There are other means of marketing communications, but in the case of marketing food products to consumers, the four aforementioned

instruments are the most relevant ones, since the other means, such as exhibitions and trade fairs are more used in the business-to-business marketing context.

The objectives of marketing communications can be classified into three different categories: brand-building communications, interest-arousing communications and motivating-action communications. The aim of brand-building communications is to create an emotional connection between the brand and its target customer. Interest-arousing communications seek to motivate customers to search for more information about the product or service and the objective of motivating action -communications is to stimulate customers to try or purchase the product or service (Best, 2009).

In terms of promoting sustainably produced products, the goals of the actors in the supply chain are rather similar to those of the promoters of conventional products. The first goal is to inform consumers about the sustainably produced product and its benefits. The second goal is to persuade consumers to experiment with this new product and preferably switch their brand loyalty. The third goal is to remind consumers about the sustainable product and its availability. The fourth goal is to reassure the consumer that the purchase of the sustainably produced product is a sensible choice (Peattie, 1995; Belz & Peattie, 2009). In addition to persuading consumers to purchase a company's products, communication and marketing can be used to inform consumers about the correct ways to dispose of the products at their end of life (Lewis & Stanley, 2012).

4.7 Advertising and sustainability

Advertising is traditionally associated with the conventional marketing principles that emphasise the generation of demand. The objectives of advertising are classified according to their aim. The aim of advertising can be to inform, persuade, remind or reinforce. Informative advertising aims to create brand awareness and knowledge of either new products or improvements on existing products. Persuasive advertising aims to create a liking and preference for a product or service whereas the goal of reminder advertising is to stimulate repeat purchase. Reinforcement advertising aims to convince the purchasers that their choice has been right (Kotler & Keller, 2009).

The main purpose of advertising is to get consumers to think about a product or react to the product or company in a certain way. In general, people will react only if they think that they shall benefit from doing so. Thus, customer benefits, either functional or emotional, are effective when used as advertising appeals. Good advertising appeals should be meaningful. They should point out the benefits of a product that make it more desirable to consumers. Appeals should also be believable so that the consumers believe that the product delivers the promised benefits; moreover, advertising appeals should be distinctive and tell why the product is better than the competing

brands (De Pelsmacker et al., 2007; Kotler & Keller, 2009; Kotler & Armstrong, 2012).

The goal of advertising is, therefore, to create and emphasise the desire for material goods and consumption, thus playing an important role in environmental decline. Advertising does not coincide with the ideals of sustainability and sustainable consumption, since it is often accused of being merely a means of peddling products or services to consumers, or a means for companies to persuade consumers to purchase and consume even more (Brown & Cameron, 2000; Belz & Peattie, 2009; Pereira Heath & Chatzidakis, 2012).

Thus, it may be a challenge to communicate in a clear and understandable, yet engaging manner about the complex environmental or social aspects and consumer benefits from a sustainability perspective using the traditional advertising channels that consumers have learned to associate with attempts to persuade them to consume more and more. Furthermore, advertising does have its limitations, since it communicates a unidirectional message to a large audience at once (Belz & Peattie, 2009). In addition, consumers tend to be generally rather sceptical towards advertising and advertising is often perceived as untrustworthy (Obermiller & Spangenberg, 1998; Maignan & Ferrel, 2001).

However, advertising does have a role in informing consumers and moulding consumer behaviour by influencing attitudes and beliefs. In this role, marketing, along with advertising as part of the marketing mix, can be said to recognise the role of consumers as decision-makers when moving towards sustainability. When advertising is used responsibly, it may also promote sustainable consumption by influencing behaviour (Jones et al., 2008; Gordon et al., 2011). Advertising has, indeed, been widely used as a part of sustainability marketing strategies in many product and service categories (Belz & Peattie, 2009; Gordon et al., 2011).

Moreover, advertising can empower consumers by providing them knowledge about sustainability issues and their possible solutions. In addition, consumer information and education are in a key role when encouraging sustainable consumption (Thøgersen, 2005), and advertising is in a key role when selling fast moving consumer goods such as food, since it can influence behaviour by providing information that can act as a tool for change (Vakratsas & Ambler, 1999; Jones, 2007; Gordon et al., 2011). In addition, advertising is something that is fundamental in societies around the world and although we might not admit it, advertising can have an implicit impact on our behaviour (de Mooji, 2010; Gordon et al., 2011).

According to Hackley (2010), advertising places a product or a brand into the awareness of a consumer and the goal of advertising is to provide reassurance rather than to persuade. The reminding role of advertising is an important one, since advertising engages with consumers collectively. When a large number of consumers are exposed to an advertisement, it is likely that a proportion of them will react to it and giving the product or a brand a positive presence in the set of choices (Hackley, 2010).

According to Rogers (2003), mass media channels, such as print advertising, are considered the fastest and most efficient means of informing people about the existence of an innovation thus creating awareness about it. Mass media is a powerful channel that reaches a large market with persuasive or informative messages. Moreover, mass media can aid the diffusion of innovations, since it can reach a large audience rapidly creating knowledge, spreading information and changing weakly held attitudes. This may be applicable not only to the diffusion of a new product, but also to the diffusion of an existing product to new adopter categories or consumer segments (Rogers, 2003).

4.8 Sustainability appeals in advertising

A successful advertising appeal should be related to the consumer's interests, wants and problems in order to motivate consumer action, such as purchasing (Mueller, 1987). Appeals used in marketing communications can be divided into rational and emotional. Rational appeals pertain to the consumer's self-interest and show that a product has the desired features and it will produce the expected benefits. Messages relying on rational appeals highlight the product's quality, economy or performance. The objective of emotional appeals, on the other hand, is to stimulate either negative or positive emotions or emotional consequences (e.g. pleasure, enjoyment, feeling good) that may motivate purchase (Putte & Dhondt, 2005; Kotler & Armstrong, 2012).

The use of sustainability appeals, along with the use of messages and imagery that tries to appeal to consumers' altruistic and biospheric value orientations, in marketing communication and information campaigns has traditionally relied on the assumption that consumers are rational in their decision making and that they are fully aware of the (environmental and social) consequences of their consumption decisions (Esty & Winston, 2006; Polonsky, 2011; Kronrod et al., 2012; Umpfenbach, 2014).

However, recent research has revealed that messages appealing directly to consumers' love of the environment and to their will to save the world are not likely to be successful. Indeed, emphasising the environmental benefits or performance of a product can even be counterproductive, since assertive environmental messages may appeal only to environmentally concerned consumers. The general audiences and the consumers who are less concerned about the environment or other issues related to sustainability may not even understand the messages related to sustainability. Hence the added value of the sustainably produced product may remain unclear to the majority of consumers (Kronrod et al., 2012; Hartmann & Apaolaza-Ibáñez, 2013)

The use of claims related to sustainability issues, such as environmental appeals or, for example, labelling, relies on the assumption that, in addition to understanding complex environmental or social problems, consumers believe their actions can make a difference and that environmental or social problems

are not merely something that will happen somewhere in the future or in a faraway country. However, previous research has shown that consumers are not aware of the environmental or social problems. Instead of rational evaluation of alternatives, their purchase decisions and behaviour is influenced by habits, routines and short-term thinking, where future outcomes and consequences are not incorporated in decision-making (Dolan, 2002; Moisander, 2007; Polonsky, 2011; Umpfenbach, 2014).

Nevertheless, rational appeals should not be completely discarded when communicating the sustainability of a product or service, since previous research has shown that using a combination of emotional and rational appeals is the most effective strategy when trying to advertise green or environmentally sustainable products to consumers (Kronrod et al., 2012; Umpfenbach, 2014). Emotions have been identified as important factors influencing pro-environmental and sustainable consumer behaviour and it is claimed that emotional messages are effective in reaching the audience's attention, since consumers often feel before they think rationally (Thøgersen, 2005; Emery, 2012; Koenig-Lewis et al., 2014; Leonidou et al., 2014).

Marketing communication and policy instruments encouraging sustainable consumption have traditionally often used either negative emotional appeals such as appeals based on evoking feelings of fear, shame or guilt or overloaded the consumer with information and instructions what to do or how to behave in order not to cause environmental or social damage. However, pressing and scaring consumers to behave in a sustainable way can be de-motivating, even produce a sense of helplessness and contribute to the feeling of sacrificing something instead of enhancing one's quality of life. Moreover, claims that evoke positive emotions, such as love, joy and a feeling of enjoyment, may even be more effective than claims eliciting negative emotions (Kaplan, 2000; Thøgersen, 2005; Emery, 2012; Koenig-Lewis et al., 2014).

Indeed, making consumer behaviour more environmentally friendly may be successfully achieved by appealing to group behaviour or emotional themes, such as quality of life or wellbeing (Umpfenbach, 2014). As a matter of fact, studies have shown that non-emotional, rational appeals are neither liked nor understood by consumers, whereas affective, emotional claims can even inspire the purchase of sustainable products (Hartmann et al., 2005; Thøgersen, 2005; Pickett-Baker & Ozaki, 2008; Hartmann & Apaolaza-Ibáñez, 2013; Koenig-Lewis et al., 2014).

Emotional claims are generally used when marketing food products, since these purchases are often made very quickly, are based on minimal information and rely on habits and routines. Emotional claims have been shown to help catch the consumers' attention, since they are said to be processed more thoroughly and remembered better than, for instance rational claims (Pickett-Baker & Ozaki, 2008). Traditionally, sustainably produced products have been marketed to consumers who already are interested in sustainability or environmental issues. However, this group is small and in order to successfully market sustainably produced food products advertising and other marketing

activities should also be aimed at the majority or consumers that are potential green or sustainable consumers by attaching features such as health and naturalness to the products instead of relying chiefly on sustainability aspects (Meyer, 2001; Picket-Baker & Ozaki, 2008; Belz & Peattie, 2009; Kronrod et al., 2012).

Indeed, Belz and Peattie (2009) as well as Belz and Schmidt-Riediger (2010) have stated that green products will remain a niche phenomenon for only the ecologically active or so-called pure green consumers if they appeal only to the consumer's environmental awareness and fail to provide other benefits or added value. These other benefits can be for instance the concrete, functional and sensorily perceptible benefits of the product or the self-esteem benefits; how purchasing the product makes you feel. This is also referred to as a feeling of wellbeing, a "warm glow" (Ritov & Kahneman, 1997), which is associated with acting in an altruistic way and contributing to the improvement of the common good or the personal satisfaction that environmentally conscious consumers get from manifesting their environmental awareness to others by purchasing green brands (Hartmann et al., 2005; Buenstorf & Cordes, 2008; Yeoman, 2011). Using positive emotions in marketing and associating sustainable product alternatives with them can even compensate for negative effects of possible uncertainty and increase the consumer's willingness to try new products (Koenig-Lewis et al., 2014).

In terms of emotional appeals when advertising 'green' products, at least three types of emotional brand benefits can be identified. These benefits may also be extended for use as the basis of advertising appeals when advertising sustainably produced products, not focusing on the ecological dimension of sustainability only. The first benefit is the aforementioned feeling of wellbeing that is associated with acting in an altruistic way and contributing to the improvement of the common good. The second type of benefit is the personal satisfaction that environmentally conscious consumers receive from manifesting their environmental awareness to others by purchasing green brands. The third type of benefit is nature-related, and it stems from the sensations and feelings that are normally experienced through contact with nature. Since most people experience feelings of happiness and wellbeing when in contact with nature, nature-based imagery is often used to promote green brands and products (Hartmann et al., 2005; Yeoman, 2011).

5 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODS

5.1 Methodology and research design

This research is an exploratory study, the main objective of which is to contribute to the discussion on the promotion of sustainably produced food and provide insights into the values linked with sustainable food consumption. The primary perspective in this study is a consumer perspective. However, the advertisements bring forth the perspective of food producers and marketers.

The research approaches and strategies used in this research are from both the qualitative and the quantitative research tradition, which is a characteristic of the mixed methods approach. This approach is claimed to be a viable approach that bridges the gap between qualitative and quantitative research (Creswell, 2009; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998). In the mixed methods approach, a multitude of approaches to research design, analysis and interpretation can be used (Kitchenham, 2010).

In this research, a combination of different data sources was used. Focus group research has been used as a source of empirical data, since focus group research can be used as part of a multi-method (qualitative) research design, where several sources of empirical data are used in the same study (Eriksson & Kovalainen, 2008). In addition, a quantitative consumer survey has been carried out in order to analyse consumers' perceptions of different communication channels and consumer perceptions of food chain CR dimensions. The outline of the data, research questions, research approach, data collection, analysis and sample size are presented in Table 4.

It is worth noting that two of the data sets were collected during two different research projects. The focus group data were collected in cooperation with researchers from two research projects: the SUSMARU project (Sustainable Development and Pioneering Small Scale Rural Entrepreneurs) and the BRIGADE project (Bridging the Value-Action Gap – Combining Producers, Consumers and Expert Perspectives for Sustainable Food Consumption). The quantitative survey data were collected during the FoodChainCR project

(Developing Food Chain Responsibility into Business Opportunities) and only a small part of the data produced by the survey was used in this research.

TABLE 4 Outline of the data, research questions, research approach, data collection, analysis and sample size

Data	**Research question**	**Approach**	**Data collection**	**Data analysis**	**Sample size**
I Advertisements	1. A) What are the values that are portrayed in the advertising of sustainably produced food?	Qualitative	Food advertisements in two Finnish magazines from 2006-2007 and 2010-2012.	Qualitative content analysis	57 advertisements for sustainably produced food
II Focus groups	1. B) What values consumers associate with sustainably produced food? 3. What are consumers' perceptions of the different communication channels that are used to inform consumers about sustainably produced food products?	Qualitative	Three focus group discussions in Jyväskylä and one in Heinola. Data collected in November 2008.	Qualitative content analysis	19 Finnish consumers (12 females and 7 males)
III Survey	2. What dimensions of corporate responsibility do consumers want to be informed about? 3. What are consumers' perceptions of the different communication channels that are used to inform consumers about sustainably produced food products?	Quantitative	Online survey. Data collected in November 2011.	Descriptive statistical analysis, comparing means by using one-way ANOVA, multiple correspondence analysis	n = 1326

5.2 Mixed methods research strategy

The mixed methods research paradigm combines elements of quantitative research methods with elements of qualitative research methods. In mixed methods research the quantitative and qualitative method approaches can be used together or in an alternating sequence to investigate the same phenomenon (Kitchenham, 2010).

Often, especially in the field of marketing, a plethora of mixed method studies can be found in a continuum between purely positivist and pure interpretive studies (Bahl & Milne, 2006). This research is more of an interpretivist nature than a positivist one, since the values identified from the food advertisements and the focus group data are interpretations of the researcher, and the results derived from the qualitative survey represent perceptions of the survey respondents.

Mixed methods research is generally considered to be pragmatic and driven by the research question rather than being curbed by paradigmatic assumptions (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). Indeed, in pragmatism the main focus is on the research problem and all available research approaches as well as both qualitative and quantitative data are used in order to provide the best possible understanding of the research problem instead of focussing on research methods (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011; Creswell, 2009). Tashakkori and Teddlie (1998) have summarised the characteristics of pragmatism and they feel that most mixed method studies bear these hallmarks. In mixed methods studies the research methods used are both qualitative and quantitative, inductive and deductive logic are also used, and the research does not align itself with any single system of philosophy or reality. A mixed method research approach is therefore very much centred on research problems and oriented to real-world practice (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998; Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Creswell, 2009; Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). Moreover, in pragmatist research the choice of research topic is guided by the researcher's personal value system, thereby steering the researcher towards topics that he/she feels are important and worth studying. In addition, in pragmatist mixed methods research the chosen topic is studied in a way that is most suitable for finding answers to the research questions (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998; Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004).

The pragmatist worldview or paradigm is, indeed, pluralistic and oriented towards practice and "what works". Multiple strategies of inquiry are used in mixed methods research. Induction is used to discover patterns, deduction is used to test theories or hypotheses and abduction is used to uncover and rely the best of a set of explanations for understanding the research results. (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004) According to Morgan (2007) the pragmatist worldview allows different combinations of theory and data to be used, thus, making research an abductive process.

All research has a philosophical foundation and assumptions about the world and knowledge. In addition, all research methods are closely connected to research philosophy and researches should also be aware of what implicit worldviews are underlying in the research. Ontology and epistemology are key philosophical concepts in the philosophy of science. Ontology is concerned with the nature of reality and the real world. As for epistemology, the focus is the nature of knowledge and the sources and limits of it as well as the relationship between the researcher and what is being researched i.e. how knowledge can be produced and argued for. Epistemological views are often divided into objectivist and subjectivist views. The objectivist view assumes that there is a world that is external and theory neutral, whereas in the subjectivist view it is maintained that it is not possible to access the external world beyond our own interpretations and observations. (Eriksson & Kovalainen, 2008; Creswell & Plano-Clark, 2011)

In pragmatism the underlying ontological assumptions are that there are singular and multiple realities. The epistemological view in pragmatic research is primarily concerned with practicality which means that the researcher collects data by what works to answer or address the research questions. (Creswell & Plano-Clark, 2011)

In this research the nature of reality is understood from the assumption that there are multiple realities and multiple perspectives are provided and illustrated. Promoting sustainably produced food as well as corporate responsibility in the food chain are examined as social phenomena that are perceived and constructed by consumers, food chain actors and marketers. In this research the epistemological direction chosen is very much a subjectivist one, since the underlying assumption is that knowledge is available through social actors and reality is socially constructed.

5.3 Strategies of inquiry

The researcher not only selects the qualitative, quantitative or mixed methods research design for the study that is conducted, but the decisions concerning the type of study within these three research design choices should be made. Strategies of inquiry are "types of qualitative, quantitative or mixed methods designs or models that provide specific direction for procedures in a research design" (Creswell, 2009, p. 11). There are different strategies of inquiry both in the realm of quantitative, qualitative and mixed methods research. Quantitative strategies are either experimental designs or non-experimental designs, such as surveys. Qualitative strategies of inquiry can include narrative research, ethnographies, grounded theory research or case studies. General strategies used in mixed methods research are sequential mixed methods, concurrent mixed methods and transformative mixed method (Creswell, 2009). Strategies of inquiry are also often referred to as approaches to inquiry (Creswell, 2012) or research methodologies (Mertens, 1998).

In this research, a quantitative survey is used in order to provide a numeric description of opinions of a population and qualitative research methods are used to explore the research phenomenon in an in-depth manner. In terms of the mixed methods strategy, this research uses a sequential mixed method approach where the findings of one method are elaborated on with another method as illustrated by Figure 6.

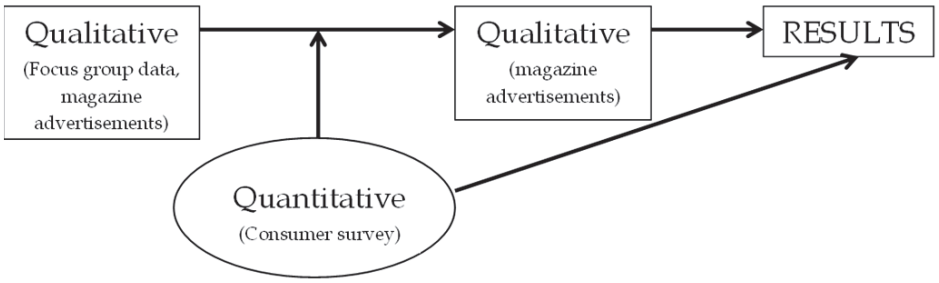

FIGURE 6 The mixed methods design used in this research (adapted from Ulin et al., 1996)

In the sequential mixed methods design, the qualitative and quantitative phases of the study are conducted separately (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998; Creswell, 2009). In this research the first phase was the qualitative content analysis of the magazine advertisements followed by the focus group discussions. The third phase was the quantitative survey and as the final phase the content analysis of the magazine advertisements was repeated. During the implementation of this research quantitative and qualitative methodologies were not used simultaneously. This research represents, therefore, a partially integrated mixed methods research. In partially integrated mixed methods research, quantitative and qualitative phases are not mixed across research stages (Leech & Onwuegbuzie, 2009). Next, focus group research and its use in this research will be described more thoroughly, followed by a description of the data collection and analysis.

5.4 Focus group research

Powell and Single (1996, p. 499) define focus groups as "a group of individuals selected and assembled by the researchers and asked to discuss and comment on, based on their personal experiences, the topic that is the subject of the research". Focus groups can be used in research design as a part of a mixed-method research design where there are several sources of empirical data in the study focus group being one of them (Eriksson & Kovalainen, 2008). In this research, focus groups are used in a mixed method case study combined with a survey and magazine advertisements.

As a research technique, focus groups are used to gather data through group interaction on a topic that is determined by the researcher. Thus, the researcher is in an active role in creating and monitoring the group discussion. Focus group research is, therefore, a research method that is devoted to data collection and the interaction in the group discussion is the main source of data (Morgan, 1996). The main goal of focus group research is used to access the participants' attitudes, feelings, beliefs, experiences and reactions (Gibbs, 1997).

Focus group research often has a qualitative approach because the goal is to reveal the views of the group participants on the issues they are asked to discuss (Bryman & Bell, 2011). Focus groups can be seen as a combination of the strengths of participant observation and individual interviewing (Morgan, 1997). Focus group discussions usually centre on a specific theme or topic (Bryman & Bell, 2011). In addition, focus group research is often used to educe impressions of products or other issues of interest (Stewart & Shamdasani, 1990). A typical focus group study uses four to six separate groups with six to twelve participants in each one (Neuman, 2011).

Focus groups have been used extensively in qualitative consumer behaviour research (Catterall & Maclaren, 2006; Malhotra et al., 2012), in business research (Eriksson & Kovalainen, 2008; Bryman & Bell, 2011) as well as in research on consumer perceptions and conceptions of sustainable consumption, sustainable food consumption and information interests (see e.g. Chang & Zepeda, 2005; Chambers et al., 2007; Banterle et al., 2012; Pereira Heath & Chatzidakis, 2012; Wahlen et al., 2012).

A qualitative focus group study was used in this study and the purpose was to generate qualitative data about consumer perceptions of sustainably produced food products and the different communication channels that are used to inform consumers about sustainably produced food. When analysing the focus group participants' perceptions of sustainably produced food products the purpose is to look into the deeper reasons, such as values, that motivate the purchase of these products. Although research on human values has traditionally been carried out using quantitative methodologies and surveys, values can indeed be interpreted and inferred from the data gathered by using qualitative methodologies such as focus group research. As was mentioned before in this chapter, focus group research can be used to access, among other things, participants' attitudes and beliefs (Gibbs, 1997).

As values are considered to be the antecedents of attitudes and attitudes are said to be the result of a person's set of values (Stern & Dietz, 1994; Stern, 2000; Poortinga et al., 2004), drawing on respondents' attitudes in focus group research can result in data that can be used to answer the research question concerning values that consumers associate with sustainably produced food. This claim is based on the idea that humans implicitly disclose their values and priorities when talking and interacting with others. Moreover, humans may be able to express openly their values when directly asked about them, but values can also be partly unconscious and therefore analysing discussion data is a valid means to analyse underlying values (Puohiniemi, 2003).

5.5 Phases of data collection

Both primary data in the form of focus groups and the consumer survey as well as secondary data from magazine advertisements are used in this research. Three different types of data have been collected to help illustrate the phenomenon that is being researched. Next, the different sets of data are introduced and then their analysis processes are described.

5.5.1 The magazine advertisement data

The first set of data comprises 1107 food advertisements from two Finnish magazines from the years 2006–2007 and 2010–2012. Out of this, 57 advertisements were advertising sustainably produced food and these advertisements were analysed in more detail in order to identify the value orientations portrayed in them. Only food advertisements were taken into consideration, while advertisements for alcoholic beverages, diet or meal replacement products, sweeteners and sweets were left out.

The two magazines chosen were Finland's most popular women's magazine with 568 000 readers in 2012 and 24 issues per year, and a high-end food and wine magazine with 153 000 readers in 2012 and 8 issues per year. The main target group for the women's magazine is 25–54—year old women who have a family and are rather well off. For the food and wine magazine the main target group is very well off people who seek exceptional experiences and are interested in enjoying good food and wines. The women's magazine was chosen because of its popularity (i.e. it has many readers and reaches women of different ages). The food and wine magazine was chosen because during the time the analyses of the advertisements was carried out the magazine was the most popular food and wine magazine in Finland, at least in terms of the amount of readers.

Print advertisements were chosen because print advertising can be more pleasing to consumers than television and radio advertisements. With print advertising, the consumer can decide for oneself how much and how long one wants to pay attention to the advertisement and its message (Rogers, 2003; Belz & Peattie, 2009; Hackley, 2010). Thus, print advertising may disclose more detailed product information, whereas TV advertising might rely more on a simpler message. Moreover, the readers of a particular magazine often share similar demographic characteristics, such as age, gender and social status, and although their consumer behaviour may differ, similar advertising messages, brands and products might still appeal to them (Hackley, 2010). Print advertisements were also chosen because food products are well suited for advertisement in print, particularly in women's and food magazines. This is because since the target audience is well defined, the goal is to reinforce or remind, the product can be shown beautifully in a picture, and moderate or extensive product information needs to be conveyed to the audience (Wells et al., 2000).

The years 2006–2007 were chosen because the first content analysis of the magazine advertisements was the start of this research process and its function was to be a preliminary, introductory mapping of the field of sustainably produced food advertisements. For the second round of the content analysis, the years 2010–2012 were chosen, since the interest of Finnish consumers towards sustainably produced food, such as organic or locally produced food, has increased steadily and the availability of these sustainably produced foods has improved in Finland from 2010 onwards (Peltoniemi & Yrjölä, 2012; Ruokatieto, 2012; Fairtrade Finland, 2013; ProLuomu, 2013). The advertisements analysed were chosen from several different years so that possible trends and changes over time could be seen.

5.5.2 The focus group data

The second set of data, collected in November 2008, consists of focus group discussion data on consumers. The data consists of four focus groups held in November 2008, with a total of 19 Finnish consumers (12 females and 7 males) in Jyväskylä and in Heinola. The focus group members were recruited from an eco-shop (Group 1: four participants), a local food market (Group 2: eight participants), a corner shop (Group 3: three participants), and two supermarkets (Group 4: four participants). The idea was to collect the sample of consumers from different types of grocery stores in order to cover focus group participants with different shopping habits. However, during the focus group discussions it became clear that most of the participants typically purchased their groceries from two or more stores (Paloviita, 2010). Thus, no clear differences in the shopping habits of the participants recruited from the different grocery stores could be identified. However, it did seem that the majority of the focus group participants appeared to have at least a moderate habit of purchasing organic, locally produced and Fairtrade food. Concerning the recruitment of the focus group participants, it is clear that those people who are interested in sustainably produced food would also be more willing to participate in focus group discussions about this topic than those consumers who are not in the least interested about the sustainability of food (Ulvila et al., 2009; Paloviita, 2010).

The focus group discussions took place at the University of Jyväskylä (Groups 1, 3 and 4) and at a local food market in Heinola (Group 2). Information about the focus group participants' gender, age distributions, household size and description of residence is provided in Table 5. The average age of the respondents was 44 years, with ages ranging from 18 to 78 years. The average household size was 2.3 persons and the majority of the respondents lived in an urban area. Most of the focus group members seemed to have at least a moderate habit of buying organic, local, and Fairtrade food, especially those consumers who were recruited from an eco-shop and a local food market. Although there were more female than male participants across the groups, this was not seen as problematic, as females tend be responsible for the food purchases of households (Marshall & Anderson, 2000).

TABLE 5 Focus group participants

Respondent	Gender	Age	Recruitment	Household size	Location
1	male	38	Eco-shop	2	rural
2	female	48	Eco-shop	1	urban
3	male	24	Eco-shop	2	urban
4	female	20	Eco-shop	2	urban
5	male	59	Local food market	1	rural
6	male	74	Local food market	2	urban
7	female	43	Local food market	4	urban
8	male	47	Local food market	4	urban
9	female	49	Local food market	3	urban
10	female	50	Local food market	1	urban
11	male	37	Local food market	2	urban
12	female	26	Local food market	2	urban
13	female	78	Corner shop	2	urban
14	male	30	Corner shop	3	urban
15	female	23	Corner shop	2	urban
16	female	57	Supermarket	2	urban
17	female	58	Supermarket	2	urban
18	female	18	Supermarket	2	urban
19	female	51	Supermarket	5	urban

The focus group discussions had three discussion themes. First, the participants in the focus groups were asked to talk about their views and experiences associated with locally produced food, organic food, and Fairtrade food. The second discussion theme was the participants' views on the importance of locality and origin of the food. The third discussion theme was divided into two subthemes. The first subtheme (3a) was the participants' views on the factors that influence (e.g. information, price, and availability) their buying behaviour of the discussed food types. The second subtheme (3b) was getting the participants to offer their suggestions for increasing the supply and demand of locally produced food, organic food, and Fairtrade food (e.g. by increasing the amount of information, making the foods more conveniently available). The term *sustainably produced food* was not used in the discussion protocol.

Each group was moderated by the same moderator to ensure consistency in interviewing style. Additional assistance was provided by a note taker and a technical assistant. Each group lasted for 90 minutes, and the discussions were digitally recorded and later transcribed. The 90-minute time was divided between the different themes so that 30 minutes was reserved for discussion themes 1 and 2 both, whereas 15 minutes was reserved for themes 3 and 4, respectively. The focus group participants were highly involved in the discussions and there was a great deal of interaction between the group members in each of the groups and this enabled the sharing of ideas and knowledge during the discussions. In every focus group, the group members kept the discussion going and only minimal involvement was required from the moderator (Paloviita, 2010).

5.5.3 The survey data

The third set of data consists of a consumer survey with 1326 respondents. The survey data were gathered in November 2011 with a structured online questionnaire from consumer representatives of Finnish internet users with ages ranging between 18 and 79 years. Of the contacted consumers, 21,8.% completed the questionnaire, yielding 1326 complete answers. The survey contained several questions examining consumers' views on corporate responsibility in the food chain. The survey generated numerical data about Finnish consumers' perceptions of food chain CR and the different communication channels used to inform consumers about food chain CR. Only a small portion of this survey is used in this research.

In order to take into account the contextual characteristics of the Finnish food chain, the seven-dimension framework of CR created by Forsman-Hugg et al. (2009, 2013) is used in the survey. These seven dimensions of food chain CR are environment, product safety, nutrition, occupational welfare, animal welfare, economic responsibility and local market presence. These dimensions and the framework were presented in detail in Chapter 3. The survey contained several question series examining different aspects of consumer views and perceptions associated with CR in the Finnish food chain, the different dimensions and criteria of CR as well as CR communications. Since CR is a rather abstract and challenging topic for consumers, brief descriptions of each of the seven dimensions of food chain CR were offered to the consumers in the survey (Table 6). These definitions have been developed during the FoodChainCR research project. The definitions of the dimensions were in Finnish and they have been translated into English for the purpose of this doctoral dissertation.

TABLE 6 Descriptions of food chain CR dimensions

Food chain CR dimension	**Description provided for survey respondents**
Occupational welfare	The company's responsibility for occupational welfare is commitment to managerial work, improving the employees' know-how, flexibility of work, offering employees possibilities to influence their work, supporting interaction in the work community and taking care of the personnel's' wellbeing and ability to work.
Local market presence	The company's responsibility for local market presence means taking care of the versatility of local production and product assortment, influencing local wellbeing (e.g. employment situation, tax revenues), making use of seasonal availability of produce, encouraging interaction in the food chain and fostering local cuisine.
Product safety	The company's responsibility for product safety means carrying out risk assessments for raw materials, products and processes, complying with the industry's code of conduct, know-how and putting it into practice, investing in research and development, management of product safety and taking care of traceability and disclosing information.

Nutritional responsibility	The company's nutritional responsibility means the planning of the nutritional content of the products, keeping in mind the nutritional aspects, developing products and product assortment that caters to different diets, disclosing nutritional information, truthful advertising, and educating and informing consumers and customers.
Environmental responsibility	For companies, environmental responsibility means reducing environmental impacts by reducing the use of energy and water, mitigating climate change and eutrophication, and proving and communicating the good environmental performance of products by using ecolabels.
Animal health and welfare	The company's responsibility for animal health and welfare means taking care of the health of animals, feeding them and taking care of the appropriate breeding and transportation conditions. Responsibility of animal health and welfare means also giving the animals the possibility to behave in a way that is natural to the species; communicating openly to stakeholders and taking animal health and welfare into account in procurement.
Economic responsibility	The company's economic responsibility means paying reasonable wages to employees, supporting non-profit organisations, taking care of profitability and continuity and protection from market risks and price risks.

For the purposes of this research, six questions from the survey were used. These questions are below and they too have been translated from Finnish to English.

Survey questions in English:

1. How important is it for the Finnish food chain to concentrate on the following dimensions of responsibility (seven dimensions) **at the moment**?
2. How important is it for the Finnish food chain to concentrate on the following dimensions of responsibility (seven dimensions) **in the future**?
3. How much information do you feel that you are getting about the different dimensions of food chain responsibility **at the moment**?
4. How much information would you like to get about the different dimensions of food chain responsibility **in the future**?
5. Which communication channels would you prefer to use when looking for information about responsibility in the food chain (choose the three most **appealing** ones)?
6. Which communication channels do you find the **most reliable** when you want to be informed about responsibility in the food chain (choose the three most reliable ones)?

The survey was carried out by a Finnish market research company. Prior to sending the survey, a pre-test was done with a pilot group of 50 respondents and minor modifications were made. The data comprises a representative weighted sample of the Finnish population, based on distributions of age,

geography and gender. As can be seen from Table 7, the youngest age group (18–24 years) was somewhat underrepresented in the unweighted data, but weights were set by the market research company conducting the survey, in order to eliminate the impacts of this bias from the results.

TABLE 7 Respondents of the survey

	Data (%), *n* = 1326
Gender	
Female	50
Male	50
Age (years)	
18–24	7
25–34	9
35–49	19
50–64	35
65–79	30
Place of residence	
Metropolitan area (Helsinki, Espoo, Vantaa)	28
Towns of over 50 000 inhabitants	28
Other towns or municipalities with a population of under 50 000 inhabitants	27
Rural municipalities	17
Educational background	
Basic education/vocational education	32
General upper secondary	34
Polytechnic degree/university degree	34

A 5-point Likert scale (1 = not at all important; 5 = very important) was used in the questions concerning the importance of the different CR dimensions. Similarly, for the two questions concerning information desires, the 5-point Likert scale (1 = no information at all; 5 = very much information) was used. In the questions concerning the different information channels and their reliability the respondents were asked to pick three channels that they prefer. The results of the analysis are provided in Chapter 6.

5.6 Qualitative content analysis of the data

In a content analysis study one analyses the content of texts. This content can be words but also meanings, pictures and symbols, and the *text* can be anything

written, spoken or visual that serves the purpose of communication. From these *texts* symbolic meanings are measured in content analysis and replicable conclusions and valid conclusions are made (Neuman, 2011; Krippendorff, 2013). Content analysis allows the researcher to interpret the meanings, symbols and messages within the communication source. However, content analysis merely reveals the content of the text but the content's significance cannot be interpreted. Content analysis cannot be used to make generalisations reaching beyond the cultural communication or used to determine the truthfulness of assertions (Neuman, 2011).

It has been claimed that content analysis is essentially a quantitative research technique that aims to provide a systematic and objective quantitative summary of a text (Neuendorf, 2002; Neuman, 2011; Malhotra, Birks & Wills, 2012). However, content analysis can also be qualitative and a way of reducing data and making sense or deriving meaning of it by focusing on themes and patterns in the form of recurrent instances, such as words or themes (Julien, 2008; Eriksson & Kovalainen, 2008; Schreier, 2012). According to Schreier (2012, p. 3) the aim of qualitative content analysis is to "systematically describe the meaning of your material", whereas the aim on quantitative content analysis is to verify or confirm hypothesised relationships and to create a statistical map of written content by measuring, for instance, frequencies (Daymon & Holloway, 2010).

According to the Sage Encyclopaedia of Qualitative Research Methods, content analysis is a "process of categorizing qualitative textual data into clusters of similar entities, or conceptual categories, to identify consistent patterns and relationships between variables or themes" (Julien, 2008, p. 121). When focusing on the verbal description of the content of documents that are analysed, the goal of the analysis process is not quantification of data (Tuomi & Sarajärvi, 2009). However, numerical data may sometimes be collected to support qualitative evidence (Daymon & Holloway, 2010). Qualitative content analysis is a technique that is well suited for analysing data that requires some degree of interpretation, since it can be used to search the underlying, latent themes, such as consumers' values, in the data. Qualitative content analysis can be applied to a vast array of materials such as focus group transcripts and magazine advertisements, and it is often used to analyse verbal data (Bryman, 2004; Schreier, 2012). Content analysis provides a systematic way of synthesising data and it is therefore a very flexible method of analysis. Moreover, content analysis offers a useful means for analysing longitudinal data in order to demonstrate changes over time (Julien, 2008).

In this research qualitative content analysis is used to analyse both the magazine advertisements and the focus group data and the focus is on the themes that recur in each of the two data. The unit of analysis for both the magazine advertisements as well as for the focus group data is a sentence from which key words have been identified to represent key themes. The type of qualitative content analysis used is abductive content analysis, which has connections to theory, and theory can be used to help with the analysis. However, the goal of abductive or theory-bound content analysis is not to test theory but rather to use

theory and data-oriented analysis method together to create new patterns of thought. In the abductive content analysis, as in this research, there is a connection to the theoretical framework of the research, but the analysis is not directly based on a theoretical construct. The analysis process is rather guided by theory, combining both a data-oriented approach as well as the existing theoretical models and involves subjective interpretations made by the researcher (Tuomi & Sarajärvi, 2009; Eskola, 2010). The more detailed descriptions of the data and the analysis process are provided in the subsequent two chapters. The results of the analysis are presented and discussed in Chapter 6.

5.6.1 Qualitative content analysis of magazine advertisements

The purpose of the qualitative content analysis of the magazine advertisements was to analyse what are the values that are portrayed in the appeals used to advertise sustainably produced food products to Finnish consumers. The focus of the analysis was on the textual content: the words and expressions used in the advertisements, and the unit of analysis was a sentence. The words and expressions related to the sustainability of the advertised food products were identified, coded and finally categorised.

The qualitative content analysis of the advertisements for sustainably produced food was carried out in four phases. In the first phase all the food advertisements in the two chosen magazines were read through and the advertisements for sustainably produced food were identified. The next phase was to collect the slogans and text of those advertisements that were identified as advertisements for sustainably produced food (i.e. organic, Fairtrade or locally produced) or that contained claims related to social or environmental sustainability into tables and group them by magazine and year of publication. Table 8 shows an example of the tables to which the advertisements for sustainably produced food were grouped. Similar tables were used to group all the advertisements analysed.

TABLE 8 Example grouping and analysis of advertisements

What is being advertised	**Who is advertising (company, NGO etc.)**	**What value orientations are used in the advertisement/slogans**	**Issue**
Fairtrade brown cane sugars and organic sugar	A sugar company, advertising a sugar brand	Good taste and aromas. "Do good", "Enjoy a Fair amount". The advertisement includes a short explanation of what Fairtrade means. Value orientations: altruistic ("doing good") and egoistic (good taste: personal enjoyment)	21/12

Organic dairy products (milk, yoghurt, cream, butter, sour cream)	A dairy company	"Taste that makes you feel good", "Enjoy Finnish products" → enjoyment, domestic origin Value orientations: egoistic (personal enjoyment, safety of domestic products)	6/12
Soy yoghurt (NOT organic or Fairtrade but promoted as a pro-environmental choice)	A Finnish snack and cereal company	"Plant-based snacks leave a good taste in your mouth."; "Vegetarian foods leave a small carbon footprint" → ecological, good taste, altruism and biospheric values Value orientations: biospheric, altruistic	6/12

Since all the advertisements were in Finnish, the slogans have been translated into English as accurately as possible trying to keep any play on words that refers to sustainability. For example, in the Fairtrade sugar advertisement the Finnish slogan is *Nauti reilusti*. This has been translated as "Enjoy a Fair amount", since the word *reilu* means fair and *reilusti* can be translated either as *generous*, *a lot* or *in abundance*. However, in order to keep the play on words related to Fairtrade in the translation the expression *fair amount* has been used to indicate the idea of enjoying the sugar in abundance and also implying to the responsible, "fair" choice being made.

In the third phase of the content analysis, the content of 57 advertisements for sustainably produced food was analysed and comparisons made between the different appeals portrayed in the advertisements in order to identify the value orientations portrayed in the advertisements. The value orientation framework of egoistic, altruistic and biospheric value orientations (Stern, 2000; Stern & Dietz, 1994; Stern et al., 1998; Stern et al., 1999) was used and the coding scheme used was derived from previous studies related to the egoistic, altruistic and biospheric value orientations identified in previous research and literature (see section 2.1.2).

The different value orientations portrayed in expressions and claims coded from the advertisements were identified so that claims associated with the best interest of an individual were linked with an egoistic value orientation (e.g. "good for my personal health"). The claims containing expressions associated with the best interest of others showed an altruistic value orientation (e.g. "helping the ones in need in the developing countries"); and the biospheric value orientation was identified from expressions related to good conscience (e.g. thinking about animal welfare), and respecting and protecting the environment (e.g. trying to minimise one's ecological footprint when making food purchase choices). When performing the analysis, the phrases and

expressions in the advertisements for sustainably produced food products were analysed and those expressions and phrases portraying similar value orientations or a combination of them were grouped together as illustrated in Table 9.

TABLE 9 Three value orientations and how the coding scheme was applied (examples from 2010-2012)

Value orientation	**The textual content is coded to the value orientation if it refers to**	**Example phrases**
Egoistic	Personal enjoyment/wellbeing, personal safety	”The heart loves this” ”No added sugars, natural, no junk”
Altruistic	”Doing good”, acting in the best interest of other people, traditionality, responsibility	“Do good” (in Fairtrade product-advertisement) “Live so that you care” “Towards a better world one piece at the time”
Biospheric	Environmental issues/animal health and welfare	“Our chickens are in good health” “Vegetarian food leaves a small carbon footprint”
Egoistic + altruistic	Personal enjoyment/wellbeing + ”doing good”, acting in the best interest of others, traditionality, responsibility	”Enjoy a Fair amount” “Taste that makes you feel good” (enjoyment and domestic origin of product)
Egoistic + biospheric	Personal enjoyment/wellbeing + environmental issues/animal health and welfare	”Good for nature and good for you” “Taste the good” ”For people who want good” (good taste and good for nature) “Plant-based snacks leave a good taste in your mouth”
Altruistic + biospheric	”Doing good”, acting in the best interest of other people, traditionality, responsibility + environmental issues/animal health and welfare	“Replace rice by Finnish locally produced food” “A responsible choice for the kitchen” “18 years of cooperation for sustainable cultivation”

In addition to examining the value orientations portrayed in the advertisements for sustainably produced food, the type of claim was also studied. As discussed in section 4.8, the results of previous research have indicated that emotional claims, highlighting the affective consequences of product use have been widely used when advertising green or sustainable products. Thus, the advertisement analysis in this study shall, lastly, examine whether emotional claims are used in the advertisements for sustainably produced food.

5.6.2 Qualitative content analysis of focus group data

From the focus group data the purpose was, first, to examine consumer perceptions of sustainably produced food and the value orientations associated with it were identified. Second, the purpose was to examine what are the perceptions of the focus group participants of the different communication channels used to inform consumers about sustainably produced food products.

5.6.2.1 Qualitative content analysis: consumer perceptions of sustainably produced food

In order to identify the values the focus group participants associated with sustainably produced food, the transcripts of the recorded focus group discussions were analysed using qualitative content analysis. For this study, the units of analysis were sentences and units of thought containing several sentences. The transcripts were first read through several times and then reduced so that all the data irrelevant to this research (i.e. not related to consumer perceptions about sustainably produced food) and its research questions were left out. Then the expressions which were relevant to the research were coded by using different colour codes in order to group together, in separate groups, the units of thought and sentences related to either organic, locally produced or Fairtrade foods.

Next, in order to identify the product attributes that the focus group participants associate with the three different types of sustainably produced food, the sentences and units of thought, coded and grouped together from the data, were next grouped into three categories which arise partly from the literature on consumer perceptions of food quality which was introduced in section 2.2 (see also Ulvila et al., 2009). The categories are partly derived from the themes within the focus group data, namely from the sentences and units of thought that have been identified to be related to the different types of sustainably produced food. The three categories were then named based on the common theme of the attributes in the categories. These categories are health and safety attributes, value attributes, and credence attributes category (Ulvila et al., 2009).

In this categorisation the health and safety attributes are separated into their own category due to the fact that these attributes have been identified as the main motivators of sustainable food consumption (see e.g. Davies et al., 1995; Harper and Makatouni, 2002; Magnusson et al., 2003) in order to be able

to illustrate the extent to which they influence consumer choice. The second, value attributes category contains product attributes that can be classified as both intrinsic and extrinsic quality cues. The value attribute category contains those attributes that consumers appreciate, but which are not health and safety or credence attributes. This category includes attributes that have a significant role in consumer food choice in general, such as taste and price (Magnusson et al., 2003; Järvelä and Piiroinen, 2006; Lusk & Briggeman, 2009; Young et al., 2010; Vega-Zamora et al., 2014).

The third category was named credence attribute category, since some of the product attributes of sustainably produced food products are rather abstract and credence features (Grunert, 2002; Weatherell et al., 2003; Buenstrof & Cordes, 2008). In most cases, credence attributes, such as the environmental benefits of organic products or the social benefits in the case of Fairtrade products, are not directly visible or something that the consumers can ascertain by themselves. Thus, they have to trust the information given by others, such as food producers, retailers, policy makers and NGOs. Credence attributes are highly significant in regards to food choice and, especially, in the case of sustainably produced food (Vermeir & Verbeke, 2006; Karstens & Belz, 2006; Buenstorf & Cordes, 2008). It is undeniable that a great deal of research has been carried out on the environmental benefits of organic food as well as the other attributes in the credence attributes category. However, these attributes are seldom visible to the consumer during the purchase or use phases of a food product and thus remain abstract and a matter of trust (Ulvila et al., 2009).

The next phase of the analysis process was to identify the actual product attributes that belong in each of these three aforementioned categories. The credence attributes category comprises product attributes that are intangible and abstract and cannot be tasted, felt or seen even after the purchase or consumption of the product. Attributes such as animal welfare, environmental benefits, social issues, trust and health belong to the credence attributes category because the consumer does not have any possibilities to ascertain these attributes. The health attribute in the credence attribute category refers to the general feeling of a food being good for you without any concrete, medical evidence (Ulvila et al., 2009).

The product attributes related to the three types of sustainably produced food products were first analysed separately and examined together in order to be able to identify the differences and/or similarities in consumer perceptions of organic, locally produced and Fairtrade food products. Abstract attributes associated with health and safety, such as cleanness, traceability and safety, belong to the health and safety category. The only concrete attribute in this category is healthiness, referring to food that causes or does not cause concrete, diagnosable health problems, such as allergic symptoms.

The value attributes category contains concrete attributes such as taste, price and appearance as well as abstract attributes such as traditionalism, nostalgia and sacrifices. In this research, the term *sacrifices* is used to refer to the monetary price of the product, but also the time costs and the search costs,

meaning the effort consumers have to make in order to obtain the product (Zeithaml, 1988).

Next, the key themes in all three of the aforementioned categories were identified on the basis of the ways in which the consumers perceived the product attribute of the three different types of sustainably produced food. The themes found in the health and safety attribute category were cleanness, traceability, and physical effects. The themes found on the value attributes category were sacrifices, quality, and traditions. In the third, the credence attribute category, the themes that emerged were good conscience, trust, and intangible wellbeing.

The nine key themes were further grouped under the three attribute categories, and three types of sustainably produced food products with which these themes were associated by the focus group participants (Figure 7). The key themes will be further illustrated in section 6.2, but examples of how these themes are manifested in the data are presented in Table 10.

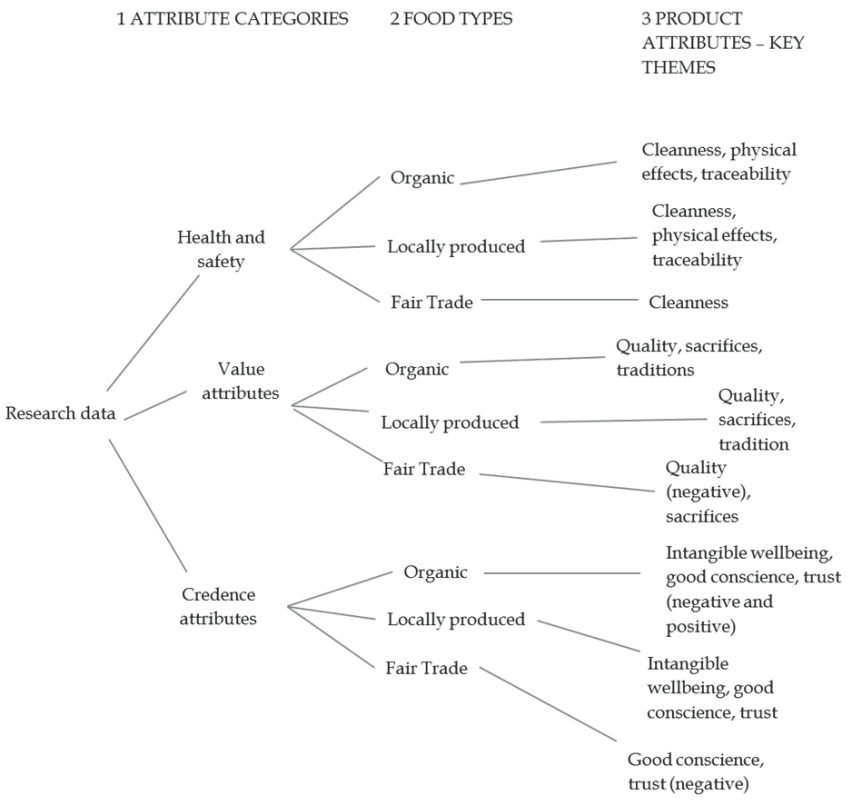

FIGURE 7 The attribute categories and key themes

TABLE 10 Examples of nine key themes and how coding scheme was applied

Attribute category	**Key theme**	**Examples from data**
Health and safety		
	Cleanness	Sustainably produced food types contain fewer pesticide residues, food additives, or other potentially harmful chemical residues
	Physical effects	Concrete health attribute that is constituted by the diagnosed health impacts, such as the absence of lactose intolerance symptoms when drinking organic milk instead of conventionally produced milk.
	Traceability	Safety and the knowledge of food origin
Value attributes		
	Quality	Taste, freshness, and appearance → positive Bad taste, unpleasant appearance → negative
	Sacrifices	Sustainably produced food products perceived to be expensive and purchasing as time-consuming.
	Traditions	Nostalgia, simplicity, customs (e.g. some of the food attributes, such as good taste, bring back memories from one's childhood).
Credence attributes		
	Intangible wellbeing	Health attributes which cannot be medically diagnosed but are solely based on a consumer's impressions of something being "good for you".
	Good conscience	Animal welfare, social issues and environmental issues.
	Trust	It is hard to be sure if one can trust that organic products truly differ from or are healthier than the conventional products. How fair is Fairtrade, and to whom is it fair?

Finally, in order to identify and interpret what values the focus group participants associate with sustainably produced food, the theoretical framework of the three value orientations – egoistic, altruistic and biospheric – influencing human behaviour presented in section 2.1.2 was used to link the product attributes associated with organic, locally produced and Fairtrade food products with values that may act as the underlying motivators for consumer behaviour. The key themes and the product attributes within those themes that had been identified from the data were categorised under the three value

orientations so that the attributes associated with the best interest of an individual were linked with an egoistic value orientation (e.g. "good for my personal health"). The attributes associated with the best interest of others showed an altruistic value orientation (e.g. "helping the ones in need in the developing countries"); and the biospheric value orientation was identified from attributes related to good consciousness (e.g. thinking about animal welfare or one's ecological footprint when making food purchase choices).

5.6.2.2 Qualitative content analysis: consumer perceptions of communication channels

The focus group data were also used to identify consumer perceptions of the different communication channels used to inform consumers about sustainably produced food and which supply chain actors the focus group participants perceived to be responsible for communicating about sustainably produced food to consumers. Qualitative content analysis was used for the analysis and the units of analysis were sentences and units of thought containing several sentences. Once again the transcripts were first read through several times and reduced so that all the data irrelevant to this research (i.e. not related to consumer perceptions about communication channels) and its research questions were left out. It was noted when reading the transcripts that the focus group participants discussed informing consumers and the communication channels during the final theme of the focus group discussion as they were asked to discuss what influences their buying behaviour of sustainably produced food, and how could the supply and demand of locally produced food, organic food, and Fairtrade food be increased.

After reading through the transcripts, the expressions which were relevant to the research were coded by using different colour codes in order to group together, in separate groups, the units of thought and sentences related to the different communication channels and the different supply chain actors informing consumers. Next, the expressions coded from the data were grouped into categories in order to classify the expressions from the data concerning the perceptions of different communication channels and the supply chain actor whose responsibility the focus group participants thought the informing using the specific channel to be. The categories are derived from the themes within the focus group data, namely from the sentences and units of thought that have been identified to be related to consumer perceptions of whose responsibility it is to inform them about sustainably produced food.

Although the focus group participants were not asked to discuss their impressions of different marketing communications instruments, certain instruments were systematically brought up during the discussions. These instruments were advertising, sales promotions, personal selling, point-of-purchase communications and internet communications. For clarity, the different means of promotion and marketing communications identified from the data are named in the same manner as they are named in the marketing literature (e.g. Pickton & Broderick, 2005; De Pelsmacker et. al. 2007; Hackley,

2010), even if the focus group participants did not use these exact names during the discussions. The supply chain actors that the focus group participants brought up in the discussions were agricultural producers, the food processing industry and food retailers.

The results of the analysis were gathered into a table and grouped under both the marketing communication instrument and the supply chain actors. When describing the research results related to the communication channels, in section 6.4.1, quotes from the focus group data were used for illustrative purposes. The quotes have been translated from Finnish into English. During the translation process the quotes were slightly clarified by revising their style more towards written language, leaving out the incoherence typical of spoken language.

5.7 Quantitative analysis of consumer survey data

The purpose of the quantitative survey data as used in this research is to serve as an information source providing insights into consumers' perceptions of corporate social responsibility in the Finnish food chain and their conceptions of the different communication channels used to inform consumers about the different dimensions of food chain CR. The quantitative part of this research is an exploratory study, where the numerical data produced by the online survey is analysed using statistical analysis tools. The aim of the quantitative part of this research is not to be a confirmatory study where models or hypotheses are tested. However, in quantitative data analysis the data can be analysed based on the research questions (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011).

The survey data were analysed with the help of IBM SPSS 22 software, making use of descriptive statistics analysis, confidence intervals, independent samples *t*-test and one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA). For the independent samples *t*-test, gender was chosen as the independent variable, whereas for the one-way ANOVA, age (five age groups) was used as the independent variable.

In quantitative data analysis the objective of descriptive methods is to provide a better understanding of the nature of variables of their relationships and describe what occurred in the sample. The most commonly used methods of descriptive data analysis are (1) measures of central tendency, which are used to summarise observations into single scores; (2) measures of relative standing, and (3) measures of association or relationship between variables (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998). In this research the descriptive statistics are used and the results are reported as mean values and frequencies (%). In addition, measures of central tendency – mode, mean, median – are presented.

In addition to the descriptive statistics, in order to answer research question 2, the statistical significance of means is tested using one-way ANOVA for examining if the age of the respondents has an influence on how important the respondents perceive the seven dimensions of food chain CR now and in the future as well as to test the influence of age on how much information the

respondents receive about the seven dimensions of food chain CR at the moment and how much they would like to receive information in the future.

In addition to the one-way ANOVA, independent samples *t*-test is used to compare the mean scores of male and female respondents in terms of the importance of the CR dimensions as well as the amount of information and the information needs. For both the independent samples *t*-test and the one-way ANOVA, the significance threshold used in this research was .05. Any differences found are therefore statistically significant if $p \leqslant .05$.

Gender and age were chosen as the independent variables used to explain the dependant variables of the importance of food chain CR dimensions and consumer information wants about these dimensions. These demographic variables were chosen because they can, to some degree, be used to profile the so-called sustainable consumer. In this research the relationship between gender and interest in the dimensions of food chain CR is investigated in order to better understand if women are more interested in the dimensions of food chain CR then men. Numerous studies have pointed out that women are more environmentally and sustainably conscious than men, and are more willing to take sustainability issues into account in their consumption choices (see e.g. Stern & Dietz, 1994; Straughan & Roberts, 1999; Dietz, Kalof & Stern, 2002; Haanpää, 2007; Honkanen & Olsen, 2009). Women also tend to be more socially responsible (Roberts, 1993). This is true in the Finnish context as well, since research carried out by Wilska and Nyrhinen (2013) indicates that the majority of sustainable consumers in the Finland, 89%, are indeed women.

In terms of value orientations, women have been shown to be more altruistic in their consumer behaviour than men are. As altruism is regarded as one of the main antecedents of sustainable consumer behaviour, it could be concluded that women are more prone to take sustainability issues into consideration when making consumption choices (Dietz, Kalof & Stern, 2002). In addition, women are also more inclined to consider how their consumption choices may impact the others more carefully than men (Straughan & Roberts, 1999). In general, research has indicated that women tend to have higher levels of self-transcendence values (i.e. are motivated to promote the welfare of others, transcending selfish concerns) than men do (Schwartz, 1992). Research has also indicated that men tend to attach more importance to self-enhancement values (i.e. are motivated to enhance their own personal interests) than women do (Schwartz, 1992).

In this research the relationship between age and interest in the dimensions of food chain CR is investigated in order to better understand if older consumers are more interested in the dimensions of food chain CR than younger consumers are. When profiling the sustainable consumer, previous research has revealed that sustainable consumers are mostly female and aged between 30 and 44 years. They are also well educated and have a high household annual income (D'Souza et al., 2007; Banyte et al., 2010). Age has been identified as an important factor affecting engaging in sustainable consumption. Findings from previous research indicate that the middle-aged

and the elderly are the most sustainable consumers, whereas younger consumers are less interested in sustainable consumption (Stern & Dietz, 1994; Haanpää, 2007).

The questions concerning the appealing and reliable communication channels included the possibility to choose the three most reliable or appealing communication channels. The multiple-choice response formats are widely used in various fields of enquiry and they do have their advantages. The first advantage is that it provides the respondent a quicker response format to long questions, which would be tedious to answer in other question formats. Second, the multiple-choice question format enables the inclusion of a larger number of questions or response categories in a survey (Arimond & Elfessi, 2001).

However, the multiple-choice formulation of survey questions rules out the possibility to test or check for statistical significance. Thus, the results are therefore represented as mean values and frequencies (%). A multiple correspondence analysis of the appealing and reliable communication channels was carried out by comparing the differences between the answers of men and women.

6 RESEARCH RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The overall aim of this research was to contribute to the discussion on the promotion of sustainably produced food and food and examine the value orientations in sustainable food consumption. In order to make this contribution, three aims were established. The first aim was to understand and describe what values are associated with sustainably produced food. The second aim was to provide information on consumers' perceptions of the importance of the different dimensions of CR in the Finnish food sector and what food chain CR dimensions consumers want to be informed about. Finally, the third aim was to provide insight into consumers' perceptions of the communication channels used to promote sustainably produced food to consumers.

This chapter is structured as follows. First, the results of the qualitative content analysis of the food advertisements are presented and research question 1a is answered. Next, the values that consumers associate with sustainably produced food products are analysed from the focus group data (research question 1b). Research question 2 is answered based on the quantitative survey data and both the consumers' information wants as well as the importance consumers place on the different dimensions of food chain CR is examined. Finally, answers to research question 3 are provided when consumers' perceptions of different communication channels are analysed from both the focus group data as well as from the quantitative survey data.

6.1 Values portrayed in the advertising of sustainably produced food: results of content analysis of advertisements

The objective of the content analysis of the food advertisements is to analyse the content of advertisements of sustainably produced food products from the years 2006–2007 and 2010–2012 from two Finnish magazines, and to outline what values are portrayed in the appeals used to advertise sustainably

produced food products to Finnish consumers. Print advertisements were chosen because they may convey more detailed information and are considered to be more information rich than television or radio advertisements (Danaher & Rossiter, 2011).

A total of 1107 food advertisements were collected from two Finnish magazines. Of these, 57 advertisements (5,15%) for sustainably produced food, mainly organic or Fairtrade products were identified. Figure 8 illustrates the amount of all food advertisements in the magazines that were used as data in this research. It is worth noting that locally produced food was not advertised in the magazines during the aforementioned periods.

The fact that locally produced food is not advertised in magazines may be caused by its small-scale production limited to a certain relatively small geographical areas. It is not, therefore, worthwhile to promote it in magazines with a nationwide circulation. Moreover, the small-scale producers of locally produced food do not have the financial resources to launch large advertising campaigns or brand their products. However, domestic food produced in Finland was advertised as "local food" and "food that is produced near you", although domestic food does not mean the same thing as locally produced food.

The results of this content analysis indicate that there was an ample amount of food advertisements, but only a small portion of them were advertisements for sustainably produced food products in 2006-2007. However, the gradual increase in the popularity of sustainably produced food is indeed visible in the slightly increased quantity of advertisements from the years 2010–2011, as can be seen in Figure 9.

However, as Figures 8 and 9 show, the amount of food advertisements as well as the amount of advertisements for sustainably produced food decreased dramatically in 2012. This marked decrease can be attributed to the general decline in all media advertising in Finland during 2012. According to the report *Advertising Spend in Finland 2012* published by the Finnish Advertising Council (2013), advertising in magazines, newspapers, television, radio, internet and cinema all declined 2,9% in 2012. In addition, the share of media advertising, such as magazine advertisements, in the marketing mix of companies decreased slightly. All in all, the year 2012 saw a 7% decline in the amount of magazine advertisements compared with 2011. According to the Finnish Advertising Council, media advertising and the use of different media is undergoing a change, where internet advertising is increasing and the use of more traditional media, such as magazines, is on a gradual decline. This decline is due to the general economic development (Finnish Advertising Council, 2013).

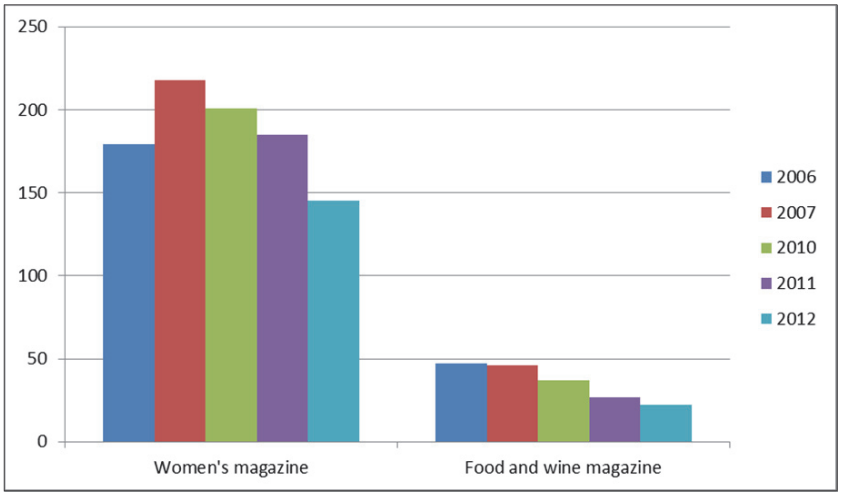

FIGURE 8 Total number of food advertisements

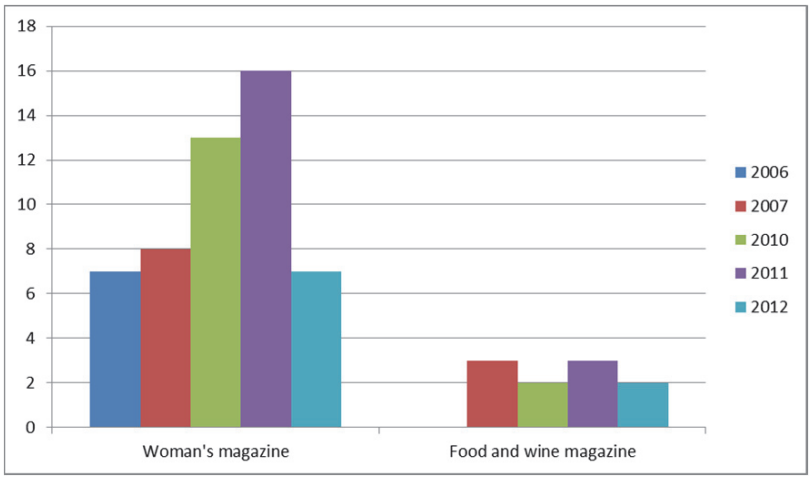

FIGURE 9 The amount of advertisements for sustainably produced food

The increase in the quantity of advertisements for sustainably produced food is still very slight, as can be seen from the percentage of advertisements for sustainably produced food from the total number of food advertisements per magazine per year, as illustrated in Figure 10. As the results of this study show, despite the ample amount of food advertisements, there are still rather few advertisements for sustainably produced food in these magazines. This might be because the market share of sustainably produced food products is still relatively low in Finland, and sustainably produced food consumption and purchasing may still be perceived as a niche phenomenon. The advertisers might not therefore see it lucrative to advertise sustainably produced food in magazines the target group of which is diverse and does not only consist of those consumers that are aware of sustainability and environmentally conscious.

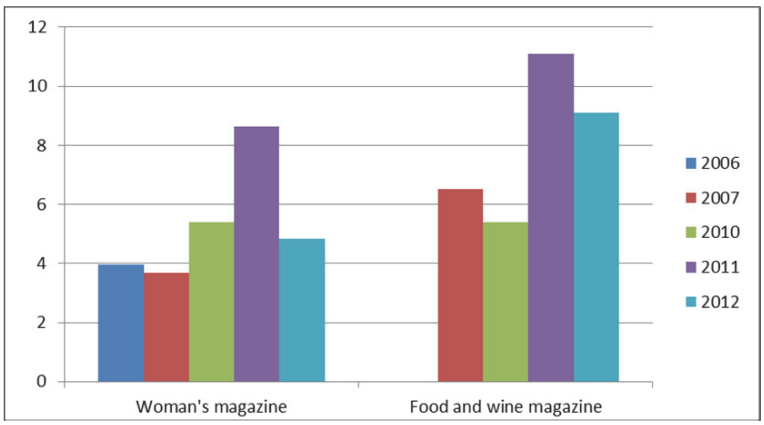

FIGURE 10 The percentage of advertisements for sustainably produced food out of all food advertisements

The results of the value orientation analysis of the advertisements for sustainably produced food are presented in Table 11 for the years 2006–2007. Due to the small amount of advertisements, the results from both magazines that were analysed are grouped in one table. There were no differences in what was advertised and how it was advertised, in the two magazines. The same advertising campaigns using the same claims and slogans were in both the women's magazine and the food and wine magazine.

TABLE 11 Value orientations in advertisements for sustainably produced food in 2006-2007

Value orientation	**The textual content is coded to the value orientation if it refers to**	**Expressions/slogans in advertisements**
Egoistic	Personal enjoyment/wellbeing, personal safety (i.e. food is safe to eat)	"Tasty and clean food with no preservatives" (advertisement for Finnish organic products and the organic label)
		"Good taste and rich aromas" (advertisement for organic sugar, organic not emphasised)
		"No preservatives, no E-codes, natural" (advertisement for Finnish organic food products and the organic label)
		"Finnish poultry meat is a hygienic, good quality and safe choice" (first advertisement, no mention about animal welfare)
		"So that you shouldn't have to guess where your food comes from" (advertisement for domestic food being a safe choice)
		"Choose an egg that you know" (advertisement for different eggs including organic: safety, traceability)

Altruistic	”Doing good”, acting in the best interest of other people, traditionality, responsibility	No advertisements appealing to only altruistic values were found.
Biospheric	Environmental issues/animal health and welfare	“Finnish poultry meat is a responsible choice.”(second advertisement: animal welfare taken into account in the production process)
Egoistic + altruistic	Personal enjoyment/wellbeing + ”doing good”, acting in the best interest of other people, traditionality, responsibility	“Bananas are twice as good for you” (good for your health and equitable treatment of employees)
		“A healthy decision” (good for your health and makes you feel good because farmers producing the product are equitably treated)
		“Good taste, good quality, no preservatives and organic”

As Table 11 shows, when analysing the value orientations from the magazine advertisements for sustainably produced food from the years 2006–2007, it can be seen that the appeals related mainly to safety, responsibility and health. Fear- and guilt –related appeals were used when, for example, referring to the so-called dangerous additives in conventional food products, organic food being seen as the safe alternative. Moreover, rational appeals were also used in advertisements focusing on the quality of the food, whereas good taste was not emphasised. Emotional appeals stimulating positive emotions associated with the warm glow of acting in an altruistic way.

The value orientations of the advertisements from 2010–2012 are presented in Tables 12 (the women’s magazine) and 13 (the food and wine magazine). Unlike the results for the advertisement analysis of the 2006–2007 advertisements, the results are presented in separate tables. This is because there were differences in how the sustainably produced food products were advertised in the two magazines. The advertisements in the food and wine magazine focused mainly on the good taste and the enjoyment dimension of the products advertised, whereas the advertisements in the women’s magazine portrayed a greater variety of product attributes and value orientations.

TABLE 12 Value orientations in advertisements for sustainably produced food in 2010–2012 (women’s magazine)

Value orientation	**The textual content is coded to the value orientation if it refers to**	**Expressions/slogans in advertisements**
Egoistic	Personal enjoyment/wellbeing, personal safety (i.e. food is safe to eat)	”The heart loves this”
		“The fibres are good for your stomach and good for your heart” (advertisement for an organic product, organic not emphasised)

		”No added sugars, natural, no junk”
		“Enjoy life without compromising good taste” (organic dairy product, organic not emphasised)
Altruistic	”Doing good”, acting in the best interest of other people, traditionality, responsibility	“Do good” (in Fairtrade product-advertisement)
		“Towards a better world one piece at the time”
		“Taste that makes you feel good” (enjoy domestic dairy products)
Biospheric	Environmental issues/animal health and welfare	“Our chickens are in good health”
		“Vegetarian food leaves a small carbon footprint”
		“Show that you care” (for the environment, organic)
		“Produced together with nature” (organic)
		“Organic quality”
		“Recycling makes you feel good” (advertisement for ready meals with recyclable packaging)
		“A responsible choice” (organic, good for the environment)
		“A responsible choice for the kitchen” (organic)
		“Greetings from Nature” (organic dairy products)
Egoistic + altruistic	Personal enjoyment/wellbeing + ”doing good”, acting in the best interest of other people, traditionality, responsibility	”Enjoy a Fair amount”
		“Taste that makes you feel good” (enjoyment and domestic origin of product)
		“A Fair amount of good taste”
Egoistic + biospheric	Personal enjoyment/wellbeing, personal safety + environmental issues/animal health and welfare	”Good for nature and good for you”
		“Taste the goodness” (good taste but also good for the environment)
		”For people who want good” (good taste and good for nature)

		"Plant-based snacks leave a good taste in your mouth"
		"Live so that you care" (for your health and the environment)
		"Most tasty organic"
		"Natural and good taste" (advertisement for organic ready meals)
		"Perfect nutrition: rich in fibre, no lactose, no additives, ecological choice and affordable"
		"How can something be this good and natural" (organic butter)
		"Packaging keeps the bread fresh longer, less food waste" (the same advertisement stated that the bread has no additives or preservatives and it is organic)
Altruistic + biospheric	"Doing good", acting in the best interest of other people, traditionality, responsibility + environmental issues/animal health and welfare	"Replace rice by Finnish locally produced food" (supporting the Finnish economy and protecting the environment)
		"18 years of cooperation for sustainable cultivation"
		"Produced in harmony with nature and close to you"
		"Traditional Sunnuntai flour, now organic version available too"
		"All our coffees are UZT-certified" (advertisement contains a brief explanation of what UZT certification means)
		"Cherishing traditions, all ingredients pure and organic" (advertisement for a traditional Finnish pastry)
		"Most authentic rye bread, now also organic"

TABLE 13 Value orientations in advertisements for sustainably produced food in 2010–2012 (food and wine magazine)

Value orientation	**The textual content is coded to the value orientation if it refers to**	**Expressions/slogans in advertisements**
Egoistic	Personal enjoyment/wellbeing, personal safety (i.e. food is safe to eat)	"Produced near you" (idea of traceability, knowing where the food comes from)
		"Good taste and rich aromas" (advertisement for organic sugar, organic not emphasised)
Altruistic	"Doing good", acting in the best interest of other people, traditionality, responsibility	No advertisements appealing to only altruistic values found.
Biospheric	Environmental issues/animal health and welfare	"Produced together with nature"
		"A responsible choice for the kitchen"
		"Greetings from Nature" (advertisement for organic dairy products)
Egoistic + altruistic	Personal enjoyment/ wellbeing + "doing good", acting in the best interest of other people, traditionality, responsibility	No advertisements appealing to egoistic and altruistic values found.
Egoistic + biospheric	Personal enjoyment/wellbeing, personal safety + environmental issues/animal health and welfare	"Live so that you care" (for your health and the environment)
		"Most tasty organic products"
		"For people who want good" (good taste and good for nature)
		"Naturally delicious"
		"Excellent quality, luxury and ethical production" (advertisement for free-range meat and cold cuts, some of which are organic)
Altruistic + biospheric	"Doing good", acting in the best interest of other people, traditionality, responsibility + environmental issues/animal health and welfare	No examples found

In general, in these advertisements from 2010–2012, sustainably produced food was depicted as an enjoyable choice, since the appeals used were mostly based on good taste, doing good and the naturalness of the products. As in 2006–2007, the appeals were still emotional ones, but they were positive and no fear- and guilt –based appeals were used. Rational appeals were also used, but their focus was on the superior taste of the products rather than on the quality. However, the use of the warm glow of acting in an altruistic way as the basis of advertising appeals had increased markedly when comparing the 2006–2007 data with the 2010–2012 one. In the latter data, concrete product features were used in the appeals together with emotional appeals related to nostalgia and authenticity. The safety or healthiness of the products was no longer the main focus.

The aim of the content analysis of magazine advertisements was to outline what values are portrayed in the appeals used to advertise sustainably produced food to Finnish consumers. In reviewing the literature, self-transcendence values or altruistic value orientations are often used in the advertising appeals of sustainably produced food, but they are usually combined with appeals portraying self-enhancement values or egoistic value orientations, since sustainable food consumption is not only guided by altruistic values and since it can be motivated by both individual and collective values (Aertsens et al., 2009; Verain et al., 2012).

The findings of this research indicate that appeals related to the egoistic, altruistic or biospheric values were, indeed, used in the advertisements for sustainably produced food. However, differences between the years 2006–2007 and 2010–2012 were clearly visible. The appeals of the earlier advertisements were more related to egoistic or altruistic values. The more specific appeals referred to the safety, traceability and the healthiness of the food as well as to the safety of the environment and even the economic safety of Finland. Biospheric values were not visible in the emotional appeals related to these values, but they were used in appeals belonging to the credence category.

As for the advertisements from the years 2010–2012, positive emotional appeals were used and associated with both egoistic and altruistic values. Moreover, contrary to the advertisements from 2006–2007, biospheric values were related to emotional appeals. In addition, the emotional appeals portraying altruistic values were more diverse, since food choice can also be motivated by hedonic values, personal enjoyment and pleasure or even comfort and convenience (Buenstorf & Cordes, 2008; Steg et al., 2012), and not only health and safety factors. In addition, in the advertisements from 2010–2012 claims combining egoistic and biospheric value orientations were used in abundance. However, it is worth noting that the altruistic values in the advertisements from 2006–2007 and 2010–2012 were not visible solely in statements of "caring for the future generations" or other abstract, vague claims. Instead, concrete benefits, such as equitable treatment of employees and partnerships with farmers were brought up in the advertisements of Fairtrade products.

In reviewing the literature, self-transcendence values were associated with sustainable consumption and sustainable behaviour, whereas self-enhancement values or egoistic value orientations are negatively related to beliefs, attitudes, preferences and behaviours related to sustainable consumption (De Groot & Steg, 2007; Aertsens et al., 2009; Röös & Tjärnemo, 2011; Thøgersen, 2011). This would suggest that self-transcendence values would be utilised as the only basis for the appeals advertising these products, the appeals based on egoistic value orientations being scarce when promoting sustainable consumption.

Moreover, as mentioned in the literature review, prior studies have indicated that sustainable products are seldom a source of more than credence benefits, such as the benefits to the environment. Thus, these products become appealing only to consumers with strong altruistic values and who are willing to sacrifice, for instance, good taste, provided that the environmental performance of the product is good.

The results of this qualitative content analysis take a step towards enhancing our understanding of the values on which the appeals used in advertisements for sustainably produced food are based. One of the most significant findings to emerge is that not only emotional appeals tapping into altruistic values are used, but the analysed advertisements utilise a mixture of appeal-types based on different underlying value orientations. For instance, a sustainably produced product may be advertised as appealing to egoistic values in the form of enjoyment and good taste, but at the same time indicating that the product is a responsible choice for those who want to "do good" in either the altruistic or biospheric sense. Consequently, in the advertisements the greater good does not rule out personal pleasure and enjoyment. This is an interesting finding, since according to Schwartz (1992) values that are near each other are compatible (e.g. universalism and benevolence), and the values on the opposite side of the circumplex conflict with each other and are rarely held simultaneously by the same person (Schwartz, 1992, 1994; Hitilin & Piliavin, 2004; Thøgersen, 2010). Based on this, it could be said that it would not be wise to appeal to universalism, benevolence and hedonism at the same time. However, other research has indicated that egoistic, altruistic and biospheric value orientations may co-exist in an individual and, thus, seemingly conflicting value orientations can influence behaviour (Stern, 2000: Dietz et al., 2005; Jackson, 2005; De Groot & Steg, 2008). Based on this finding, it is therefore feasible to use the combination of egoistic and biospheric or altruistic value orientations when trying to persuade consumers to make more sustainable product choices. A noteworthy finding of the content analysis of the advertisements was that all three value orientations – egoistic, altruistic and biospheric – were not visible in any of the advertisements simultaneously.

Since food, for most people, is often a habitual and routine purchase, and the purchase decisions may be dictated by convenience (Uusitalo & Oksanen, 2004), the main objectives of food advertisements can also be to arouse interest and build brands. It is important to raise consumers' awareness about new products as well as try to create an emotional connection between the consumer

and the brand in order to get consumers to break their habits and try new, sustainably produced product alternatives. This may be possible to achieve with the help of advertising and other marketing communications.

When analysing the advertisements of sustainably produced food products from 2006–2007 and 2010–2012, it could be seen that the aim of these advertisements was to inform, remind and persuade. The advertisements informed consumers about new or improved products, reminded about older products, or persuaded consumers to try the product. Both rational and emotional claims were used and both functional and emotional benefits of the product were utilised. The advertisements analysed were mainly motivating-action communication, the aim of which is to stimulate consumers to try or purchase the product (Best, 2009).

In section 4.8 it was stated that previous research has identified at least three types of emotional benefits in the advertisements for sustainable products. According to Hartmann et al. (2005), these benefit types were the feeling of wellbeing when acting in an altruistic way, the personal satisfaction that environmentally conscious consumers get from manifesting their environmental awareness to others by purchasing green brands, and the feelings of happiness and wellbeing one may experience when in contact with nature.

As can be seen from the claims and slogans used in the advertisements that were analysed, emotional claims were heavily used in the advertisements for sustainably produced food both in 2006-2007 and 2010-2012. In addition, the abovementioned benefit types were all utilised in the advertisements. The personal satisfaction stemming from altruistic behaviour was insinuated in various advertisements (e.g. “Taste that makes you feel good”,“Do good”, “Good for nature and good for you”, “Enjoy a Fair amount”).

The personal satisfaction that comes from manifesting their environmental awareness was also implied (e.g. “Recycling makes you feel good”, “Packaging keeps the bread fresh longer, less food waste”, “Live so that you care”, “A shopping cart filled with goodness”, “For people who want good”). Some claims also made an attempt at linking the feelings of happiness and well-being one may experience when in contact with nature with the product (e.g. “Greetings from Nature”, “Produced in harmony with nature and close to you”, “Produced together with nature”).

It is worth noting that although the claims and slogans of the advertisements from 2006–2007 were emotional; the results show that the appeals used for advertising sustainable food products have undergone a change between 2006 and 2012. The advertisements from 2006–2007 were more matter-of-fact, stating first and foremost facts and trusting that this factual information appeals to the consumers’ emotions and arouses interest towards the products advertised (e.g. “Fair treatment of farmers and protecting the environment”, “So that you shouldn’t have to guess where your food comes from”, “No preservatives, no E-codes, natural”). As for the advertisements from 2010–2012, the claims and slogans were straightforward, appealing to the

emotional consequences (i.e. how good it makes you feel) of purchasing the more sustainable product, and even using claims related to nostalgia and traditions (e.g. "Cherishing traditions, all ingredients pure and organic", "Traditional *Sunnuntai* flour, now organic version available too").

The matter-of-factness of the advertisements from 2006–2007 may be explained by the fact that during 2006–2007, of the 18 advertisements of sustainably produced food products, 10 advertisements were either campaigns in which NGOs or NGOs in cooperation with the European Community, or the Finnish government were promoting sustainably produced food products. However, in 2010–2012 companies advertised more than NGOs, since all the advertisements analysed were by producing or distributing companies, although in some advertisements a labelling scheme or a sustainability certification was mentioned.

Although emotional claims could be identified from the analysed advertisements, the use of those should be carefully considered, since consumers can be rather sensitive to green or blue washing and tend not to trust the claims made by marketers and in advertising (Ottman, 2006; Vermeir & Verbeke, 2006; Belz & Peattie, 2009; Emery, 2012; Heikkurinen et al., 2012; Martin & Schouten, 2014). However, because emotional involvement is a factor in pro-environmental or sustainable consumption, emotional claims should also be used in advertising and information campaigns when promoting sustainably produced food (Kollmuss & Agyeman, 2002). Emotional, credence claims could be used together with claims related to the concrete, functional features of a product, since studies have shown that non-emotional, rational appeals are neither liked nor understood by consumers (Hartmann et al., 2005; Thøgersen, 2005; Vermeir & Verbeke, 2008). For instance, since health is one of the main motivating factors for consumers to purchase organic food, the egoistic value orientation claim of the product being healthier for the consumer, could be combined with the biospheric value orientation claim of the product being good for nature as well, as was done in one of the advertisements that were analysed. Claims related to health could also be combined with other egoistic value orientations, such as pleasure and personal enjoyment (Zanoli & Naspetti, 2002).

However, the use of the health claims in marketing organic food is problematic, since studies on the healthiness of organic food compared to conventional products are ambiguous. Most of the research concludes that there is little to no evidence that organic food is healthier or more nutritious than conventional food (Magkos et al., 2003; Dangour et al., 2009; Smith-Spangler et al., 2012) However, research has confirmed that organic food does indeed have lower residues of nitrates and pesticides than conventional food products, and that some organic foods have higher levels of antioxidants than the conventional alternatives (Winter & Davis, 2006; Lairon, 2010; Smith-Spangler et al., 2012).

6.2 Consumer perceptions of sustainably produced food

Before looking at the values that the focus group participants associate with sustainably produced food products, the focus group participants' perceptions of the different product attributes are analysed. In addition to meanings and values, consumers also associate different concrete and abstract attributes to sustainably produced food products as well as to the conventional ones. By analysing these attributes, one can conclude what values consumers associate with sustainably produced food and what reasons motivate consumers to purchase these products (Gutman, 1982; Zanoli & Naspetti, 2002; Fotopoulos & Krystallis, 2003; Padel & Foster, 2005; de Ferran & Grunert, 2007). Product attributes can be linked to the fundamental values of consumers and these value orientations can then be utilised for example in the advertising of products (Gutman, 1982).

The qualitative content analysis of the focus group data has two aims. First, the product attributes that consumers associate with sustainably produced food are introduced (Table 14), then with the help of these product attributes the values that motivate the purchase of these products are examined using the same theoretical framework of the three value orientations as was used for the analysis of the advertisements in the previous chapter.

TABLE 14 Consumer perceptions of sustainably produced food: results from the focus group data

Attribute category	Key theme	Examples from data
Health and safety		
	Cleanness	Sustainably produced food types contain fewer pesticide residues, food additives, or other potentially harmful chemical residues "I want my food to be as pure and simple as possible. That's why I choose organic food. I also value tradition, since I grew up on a farm. I like to favour locally produced food, since my brother is a farmer." (respondent 9, woman in her fifties) "The cleanness of food is really important for me. That's why I buy organic and locally produced." (respondent 15, woman in her twenties) Theme associated with organic and locally produced food.
	Physical effects	Concrete health attribute that is constituted by the diagnosed health impacts, such as the absence of lactose intolerance symptoms when drinking organic milk instead of conventionally produced milk.

		"I'm lactose intolerant, but I can drink organic milk and eat organic yoghurt." (respondent 10, woman in her fifties) "I'm so allergic, that I cannot eat anything with preservatives and additives. Organic food is better for me. I cannot eat conventional tomatoes or carrots because of my allergies, but if they're organic I can eat them." (respondent 2, woman in her forties) Theme associated with organic food
	Traceability	Safety and the knowledge of food origin "I feel that I can trust locally produced food. For example, when I looked at the cucumbers in the supermarket I saw that they were locally grown and had the name and address of the farm on the packaging. […] I could even go to the farm to see for myself that everything was ok. This definitely increases my trust in the product." (respondent 16, woman in her fifties) Theme associated with organic (safety) and locally produced food (knowledge of food origin)
Value attributes		
	Quality	Negative quality attributes (e.g. unpleasant taste/appearance) associated with Fairtrade food products. "I eat a lot of chocolate and the Fairtrade chocolate tastes absolutely appalling and Fairtrade tea is also disgusting. I simply can't drink it." (respondent 14, man in his thirties) "Fairtrade bananas often look overripe in the grocery store displays and don't look so appetising that I'd like to pay that much for them." (respondent 4, woman in her twenties) Positive quality attributes, (e.g. good taste, freshness, appealing appearance) associated with organic and locally produced food. "I have noticed that organic carrots taste better than the conventional ones. Maybe the chemical fertilisers make the conventional carrots taste bad." (respondent 14, man in his thirties)
	Sacrifices	Sustainably produced food products perceived to be expensive and purchasing as time-consuming. "There is such a wide selection of products in the grocery stores nowadays that it takes too much time to try and locate the organic, local, and Fairtrade products. Usually, you just choose the product that is most readily available." (respondent 7, woman, in her forties)

		"The money situation also sets limits on what you can buy. You don't always have money to buy organic or Fairtrade." (respondent 5, man in his fifties) Theme associated with all three types of sustainably produced food.
	Traditions	Nostalgia, simplicity, customs (e.g. some of the food attributes, such as good taste, bring back memories from one's childhood). "I found locally grown tomatoes from the supermarket this summer. They cost one euro more per kilo than the conventional tomatoes, but they tasted so good, just like the tomatoes that I ate when I was a child. […] Almost everyone has childhood memories of what a tomato, a cucumber, peas, or potatoes tasted like. When you manage to find that same taste from somewhere, you just have to go and get it." (respondent 19, woman in her fifties) Theme associated with organic and locally produced food.
Credence attributes		
	Intangible wellbeing	Health attributes which cannot be medically diagnosed, but are solely based on a consumer's impressions of something being "good for you". "Conventional food products are so processed that I can't eat them; they make me feel bad, but organic food products don't." (respondent 2, woman, in her forties) Theme associated with organic products
	Good conscience	Animal welfare, social issues and environmental issues. Organic food was perceived as promoting animal welfare and environmental benefits (e.g. using fewer fertilisers, pesticides and preservatives than in conventional products): "I buy organic eggs and milk, because I want to think that the animals are treated well and, for example, the cows are allowed to stretch their legs outside even in winter time." (respondent 14, man in his thirties) I would imagine that fewer pesticides and herbicides are used in organic products. (respondent 4, woman, in her twenties) Locally produced food was associated only with positive credence attributes, such as environmental benefits resulting from shorter transportation journeys, than conventional or imported food.

		"And when you think about your ecological footprint, you don't want to buy food that is flown on an airplane from the other side of the world; you'd rather buy locally produced." (respondent 8, man in his forties) However, the sustainability of locally produced food was also questioned: "A similar idea is that is it more sustainable to use energy to grow tomatoes in Finland during the winter or import them from other countries by air freight?" (respondent 15, woman in her twenties) Fairtrade products were associated with social issues (e.g. helping those in need in developing countries), and they were also often purchased to ease the consumer's guilty conscience "I sometimes feel guilty about the way developing countries are exploited, and to ease my guilty conscience I buy Fairtrade products." (respondent 14, man in his thirties) "I always buy Fairtrade bananas, because I want to help the producers in less developed countries." (respondent 16, woman in her fifties)
	Trust	It is hard to be sure if one can trust that the products claimed to be sustainable truly are a more sustainable choice than conventional products. Both trust and distrust was expressed towards Fairtrade products and organic products: How fair is Fairtrade, and to whom it is fair? "I have been boycotting Fairtrade products, because I feel that they really are not as fair as they are claimed to be. […] A big grocery store has managed to create a good brand of Fairtrade. […] I would like to know how it's fair and to whom." (respondent 10, woman in her fifties) "I've often wondered if organic food really is better for your health or the environment than conventional food. There seems to be no information about this and some people say that it's a healthier and more ecological choice and some say that it's just the same as the conventional food." (respondent 1, man in his thirties) Locally produced food was mostly trusted especially if it was purchased directly from the producer: "We always buy from the same farmer at the farmer's market and we have done that for many years. I trust him and the products he sells."(respondent 17, woman in her fifties)

		However: "In grocery stores it's really hard to know what is locally produced, when domestic food is marketed as local. Real locally produced food comes from the farmers' market." (respondent 18, woman in her twenties)

It is possible to conclude from the results of this qualitative content analysis of the focus group data that all the sustainably produced food types were associated with cleanness, quality and sacrifices. The theme of quality was associated with organic and locally produced food. Bad taste, unpleasant appearance and quality defects associated with Fairtrade food products. In terms of trust, Fairtrade food products were perceived to be questionable. In general, the focus group participants had positive perceptions of sustainably produced food and especially of organic and locally produced food, whereas the perceptions of Fairtrade food were rather negative due mainly to negative experiences about the quality and taste of these products, as well as because of the suspicions of the true fairness of these products.

All in all, based on the results of the focus group discussions it is possible to concur with previous research (Lusk & Briggeman, 2009; Peltoniemi & Yrjölä, 2012) and state that food choice seems to be mostly motivated by safety, nutrition, taste, and price, while naturalness and the environment bring only added value to the products. Due to this, the advertising claims used to advertise sustainably produced food often combine the emotional claims portraying altruistic or biospheric value orientations with claims that portray egoistic value orientations, as was the case in the analysed magazine advertisements.

Based on previous research on Fairtrade food consumption, consumers in general have been shown to perceive the purchasing of Fairtrade products as being a socially responsible choice (McCluskey & Loureiro, 2003; DePelsmaker & Jansen, 2007; Pepper et al., 2009; van Herpen et al., 2012). Although purchasing Fairtrade products was perceived as an altruistic thing to do, from which a good conscience can result, the unanticipated finding of this research was that the focus group participants had negative perceptions about these products and did not trust the claims about them.

In terms of consumer perceptions and values associated with locally produced food, the present findings seem to be consistent with other research which found that the importance of credence attributes, such as trust and environmental benefits, play an important role in local food choice (Zepeda & Deal, 2009; Meyer et al., 2012). In addition, as in previous research (see e.g. Zepeda & Deal, 2009), the findings of this research also indicate that locally produced food is perceived to be fresher and tastier than other foods.

An interesting finding of the focus group study was that the focus group participants linked nostalgia and tradition to the taste of organic and locally produced food whereas the appeals based on nostalgia, tradition and good taste were visible in the food advertisements only in 2010–2012. It can be said that those

value orientations and product attributes that were brought up in the focus group discussions in 2008 were visible in the food advertisements only in 2010–2012.

Despite the fact that the focus group participants generally had rather positive perceptions of organic, locally produced and Fairtrade food, some critical opinions were also voiced about the environmental sustainability and healthiness of organic food, and whether food that is sold as organic really is organic. Others challenged the fairness of Fairtrade products by asking who Fairtrade really is fair to and how. Locally produced food was less criticised, but some concern was voiced about the environmental sustainability related to the environmental impacts caused by food miles: is it really sustainable to use energy to grow vegetables in a greenhouse in Finland in the middle of winter, or should they be imported? In addition, the criteria of sustainably produced food were perceived to be unclear at times as a quote from the focus group discussions illustrates: "I think the criteria are not clear enough. What demands must a product meet so that it gets the organic or Fairtrade label?" (respondent 18, woman in her twenties)

These are similar concerns and doubts concerning sustainably produced foods – namely organic, locally produced and Fairtrade foods – that have been brought up in previous research. Mistrust about the true organic nature of products with an organic label has been put forward also in previous research (e.g. Krystallis & Chryssohoidis, 2005; Padel & Foster, 2005). The healthiness and nutritiousness of organic products compared with conventional products has been much challenged (Magkos et al., 2003; Dangour et al., 2009; Smith-Spangler et al., 2012), and it has been argued that organic farming cannot be directly equated with sustainable farming (Rigby & Cáceres, 2001).

The fairness of the Fairtrade system and whether it really will guarantee a better income for the food producers in the developing countries has also been questioned in previous research (e.g. Maseland et al., 2002; Lyon, 2006; Valkila, 2011). Although locally produced food is said to be a more sustainable alternative because of the short transportation distances, previous research has shown that transportation is rarely the most significant environmental impact of food production, and thus locally produced food would not be the most environmentally sustainable alternative (Saxe et al., 2013).

It is worth noting that the concerns and criticisms voiced by the focus group participants are not the only ones associated with these alternative foods in previous research (for a review of current research, see e.g. Forsell & Lankoski, 2015; Gjerris et al., 2016).

When looking at the focus group data and using the same classification of three value orientations as for the analysis of the advertisements, it can be seen that the focus group participants associate egoistic, altruistic and biospheric value orientations and their combinations to all three types of sustainably produced food. Table 15 provides examples from the focus group data that demonstrate the consumer perceptions of the different value orientations associated with organic, locally produced and Fairtrade food products. As the results indicate, there are visible differences as to which value orientations are mostly associated with the different sustainably produced food categories.

TABLE 15 Value orientations associated with sustainably produced food

Value orientation	**The textual content is coded to the value orientation if it refers to**	**Expressions from the data**
Egoistic	Personal enjoyment/wellbeing, personal safety (i.e. food is safe to eat)	**Organic:** "I've noticed that organic carrots taste better. It might be that there's the taste of chemical fertilisers in the conventional carrots and not in the organic ones." (respondent 14, man in his thirties) "I'm lactose intolerant, but I can drink organic milk and eat organic yoghurt." (respondent 10, woman in her fifties) "Conventional food products are so processed that I can't eat them; they make me feel bad, but organic food products don't." (respondent 2, woman in her forties)
		Locally produced: no examples found
		Fairtrade: no examples found
Altruistic	"Doing good", acting in the best interest of others (people/community/country), traditionality, responsibility	**Organic:** no examples found
		Locally produced: "I'd like to support local farms and small-scale production." (respondent 18, woman in her twenties) "If more locally produced food was produced and bought, then the producer could sell it directly without any intermediaries. This would benefit the producer even more." (respondent 15, woman in her twenties)
		Fairtrade: "I always buy Fairtrade bananas, because I want to help the producers in less developed countries." (respondent 16, woman in her fifties)
Biospheric	Environmental issues/animal health and welfare	**Organic:** "I buy organic eggs and milk, because I want to think that the animals are treated well and, for example, the cows are allowed to stretch their legs outside even in winter time." (respondent 14, man in his thirties) "I would imagine that less pesticides and herbicides are used in organic products." (respondent 4, woman in her twenties)

		Locally produced: "And when you think about your ecological footprint, you don't want to buy food that is flown on an airplane from the other side of the world; you'd rather buy locally produced." (respondent 8, man in his forties) "A similar idea is that is it more sustainable to use energy to grow tomatoes in Finland during the winter or import them from other countries by air freight?" (respondent 15, woman, in her twenties)
		Fairtrade: no examples found
Egoistic + altruistic	Personal enjoyment/wellbeing + "doing good", acting in the best	**Organic:** no examples found
		Locally produced: "I feel that I can trust locally produced food. For example, when I looked at the cucumbers in the supermarket I saw that they were locally grown and had the name and address of the farm on the packaging. […] I could even go to the farm to see for myself that everything was ok. This definitely increases my trust in the product." (respondent 16, woman in her fifties)
		Fairtrade: "I sometimes feel guilty about the way developing countries are exploited, and to ease my guilty conscience I buy Fairtrade products." (respondent 14, man in his thirties)
Egoistic + biospheric	Personal enjoyment/wellbeing, personal safety + environmental issues/animal health and welfare	**Organic:** "I believe that locally produced food and organic food are ethical and more pure, for the most part, at least, and generally better for the environment and me."(respondent 15, woman in her twenties)
		Locally produced: "I believe that locally produced food and organic food are ethical and more pure, for the most part, at least, and generally better for the environment and me."(respondent 15, woman in her twenties)
		Fairtrade: no examples found

Altruistic + biospheric	”Doing good”, acting in the best interest of other people, traditionality, responsibility + environmental issues/animal health and welfare	**Organic:** “I used to think that by buying and eating organic food I could do at least something to save the world. I was quite the idealist. Now I still buy organic, since I’m used to doing so.” (respondent 1, man in his thirties)
		Locally produced: no examples found
		Fairtrade: no examples found

The results of the qualitative content analysis of the value orientations indicate that the focus group participants did not associate only altruistic values with sustainably produced food and that altruism and “doing good” is not the main, though it is an existing, motivator for consumers to purchase organic, locally produced or Fairtrade food. Product attributes associated with egoistic value orientations, such as personal wellbeing and health as well as good taste, were the main motivators for consumers for purchasing sustainably produced food. However, biospheric value orientations were associated with organic food, since it was purchased for animal welfare reasons: and with locally produced food because it was thought to have a small ecological footprint. Locally produced food purchase was also motivated by altruistic value orientations, since it was perceived as a way to support local farmers. Fairtrade products were associated with altruistic value orientations because they were purchased in order to feel good about oneself and have a good conscience. Although the Fairtrade system also aims at mitigating the environmental impacts of production, the focus group participants did not mention the natural environment when discussing Fairtrade products. Similarly as in the advertisement data, all three value orientations, egoistic, altruistic and biospheric, were not visible in the focus group data at the same time.

Although personal health and wellbeing and superior taste have been identified in previous research as the main motivators for consumers to purchase organic and locally produced food, the objective and scientific proof that organic and locally produced food really would have health benefits or a superior taste compared to conventional food is still rather scarce. It has been argued that although consumers state that selfish and rational reasons based on egoistic value orientations are the main drivers for purchasing sustainably produced food, consumers might claim this in order to protect their self-image of a rational and competent person (Thøgersen, 2011).

Thøgersen (2011) argues that the real reasons for consumers to act in a sustainable way would, in reality, be more related to altruistic and biospheric value orientations, such as protecting the environment and doing good to society (Thøgersen, 2011). This was also visible in the focus group data. The focus group participants showed concern for the environment, the wellbeing of food producers and animals as well as for their personal health and wellbeing.

Table 16 is a synthesis from previous research of what value orientations and product attributes have been found to influence and motivate consumers' purchase of organic, locally produced and Fairtrade food products. The dotted circles indicate the product attributes and value orientations which have been found, in this research, to motivate the participants of the focus group discussions to purchase the three types of sustainably produced foods.

TABLE 16 Value orientations and product attributes motivating sustainable food consumption

Food ↓ / Value orientation	Egoistic	Altruistic	Biospheric
Organic	Taste, personal health, safety	Supporting local economy	Protecting the environment, animal welfare
Fair Trade	Taste	"Helping the poor of the World"	
Locally produced	Safety, taste, freshness	Supporting local economy/small-scale production, preserving cultural heritage	Short transportation distances, animal welfare

As Table 16 shows, consumers associate egoistic, altruistic and biospheric values to sustainably produced food, and that the credence attributes are related to all three value orientations. As mentioned in the literature review, consumers perceive organic food as being healthy and tasty (Davies et al., 1995; Zanoli & Naspetti, 2002; Chinnici et al., 2002; Hughner et al., 2007; Cottingham & Winkler, 2007; Zepeda & Deal, 2009). In addition to these attributes related to egoistic value orientations, consumers are also motivated by factors related to altruistic value orientations, such as safety, nostalgia and traditions, as well as environmental aspects related to the biospheric value orientation, such as animal welfare and protecting the natural environment (Harper et al., 2002; Makatouni, 2002; Hughner et al., 2007; Peltoniemi & Yrjölä, 2012).

It is somewhat surprising how little the focus group participants discussed the environmental aspects as motivating factors for purchasing any of the sustainably produced food types, and other factors, such as good taste, health reasons and price, were said to influence food purchase decisions more. A possible explanation for this might be that environmental or social responsibility is not usually the most dominant criterion when making purchase decisions (Boulstridge & Carrigan, 2000; Carrigan & Attalla, 2001). However, purchasing locally produced food was brought up as one way to reduce one's ecological footprint, and organic food of animal origin was perceived to be better than conventionally produced food in terms of animal health and welfare issues.

In previous research, the main barriers identified as hindering the choice of sustainably produced food were high price, a lack of trust and cynicism towards sustainability claims, limited availability, questionable appearance, the satisfaction with conventional food, the lack of information, and insufficient marketing (Davies et al., 1995; Harper & Makatouni, 2002; Zanoli & Naspetti; 2002; Radman, 2005; Hughner et al., 2007; Aertsens et al., 2009; Zepeda & Deal, 2009). These barriers were also identified by the focus group participants who felt that purchasing sustainably produced food, not just organic but also locally produced and Fairtrade, requires sacrifices in the form of spending more money, as the next excerpts from the focus group discussions suggest:

"Well, the price of organic milk is quite steep." (respondent 14, man in his thirties)

"We have a big family and we cannot buy locally produced or organic food that often because they are much more expensive than the conventional products." (respondent 16, woman in her fifties)

"I've seen that the prices of Fairtrade products are 'fairly' high. The same goes for organic products, but I understand that, since it may be a little more expensive to produce than conventional products. Locally produced food is also pricey." (respondent 6, man in his seventies)

However, the results of the focus group study indicate that some of the focus group participants are, indeed, willing to pay the price premium of sustainably produced food when they value delicious taste and good quality as the excerpts from the focus group discussions illustrate:

"The prices are higher for locally produced and organic food than for conventional foods, but I'm happy to pay the higher price for tasty, good quality food." (respondent 6, man in his seventies)

"For me the first criterion is that the products are organic or locally produced. Then I look at the price tag. So, if the price is reasonable and the quality of the product is good, I'll buy it." (respondent 15, woman in her twenties)

Sacrifices in the form of spending time and coping with inconvenience when trying to find these products and trying to find information about them were also identified by the focus group participants. Overall, the focus group participants, in all of the groups, agreed that information is needed to make sustainably produced food products more visible and known to consumers and they should be conveniently and easily available, as is illustrated with these excerpts from the focus group discussions:

"If you have to go to many different stores in order to get the sustainably produced products, it's just not worth the trouble. And you could also stop to think if it is wise to drive around in your car just to be able to purchase the more environmentally friendly organic product…"(respondent 7, woman in her forties)

"These products should be put on display, information should be conveniently available and the products should be easily found in stores. Nobody has time to go searching for groceries in the stores." (respondent 5, man in his fifties)

"The alternative foods should be brought forward; more information would help reduce the prejudice some might have towards these food products." (respondent 17, woman, in her fifties)

Concerning the barriers to Fairtrade food consumption, the results of this research agree with the findings of other studies, in which Fairtrade products are perceived to be expensive, difficult to find in standard retail outlets and there is not sufficient information available about them (Uusitalo & Oksanen, 2004; Loureiro & Lotade, 2005; Becchetti & Rosati, 2007). What is surprising in the results of this current study is that the focus group participants did not trust Fairtrade products at all and were in general reluctant to even try them.

Although the perceptions of locally produced food were positive among the focus group participants, there were some sacrifices that were identified as barriers to local food purchase. These sacrifices were related to the high price and limited availability, resulting in inconvenience, and to the fact that the locally produced food sold in big grocery stores was not perceived to be as 'truly' local as the food from the farmer

"In grocery stores it's really hard to know what is locally produced when domestic food is marketed as local. Real locally produced food comes from the farmers' market." (respondent 18, woman in her twenties).

These similar barriers have been identified also in previous research, with consumers not necessarily willing to pay a higher price for locally produced food (Weatherell et al., 2003). Furthermore, consumers felt that purchasing locally produced food can be rather inconvenient and time-consuming, since the availability of locally produced food can be rather limited in supermarkets, where consumers mostly do their grocery shopping (Chambers et al., 2007; Peltoniemi & Yrjölä, 2012).

An unanticipated finding of this current research was that the perceptions of the focus group participants of locally produced and organic food differ very little from each other, although organic and locally produced food are usually presented to consumers in information materials as two completely different types of sustainably produced food and locally produced food is not always organic or vice versa.

6.3 What dimensions of food chain CR consumers want to be informed about: consumer survey results

In this section, the results concerning consumer perceptions of the different dimensions of food chain CR are presented first, followed by the results concerning the information wants of consumers.

6.3.1 The importance of different dimensions of food chain CR

In the online survey, consumers were first asked how important it is for the Finnish food chain to concentrate on the seven dimensions of food chain CR at the moment. The results show that the respondents of the online survey viewed all the dimensions of food chain CR as important i.e. all CR dimensions were thought to be equally important and the Finnish food chain should concentrate on all of them. Descriptive statistics are used to report the results and the results are reported as mean values and frequencies (%). In addition, measures of central tendency – mode, mean, median – are presented.

Moreover, confidence intervals are used to study if the means calculated from the same sample differ from each other significantly. The confidence interval refers to the percentage of all possible samples that can be expected to include the true population parameter. A 95% confidence level implies that 95% of the confidence intervals would include the true population parameter (Heikkilä, 2011; Bryman & Bell, 2012). Thus, the confidence interval tells where the true mean for the importance of each food chain CR dimension is.

As Figure 11 below illustrates, the most important dimension of food chain CR, on which the Finnish food chain should concentrate on at the moment, is product safety followed by animal welfare and environmental responsibility, with local market presence and economic responsibility being least important. This is also illustrated by the descriptive statistics in Table 17 showing the descriptive statistics drawn from the Likert scale (from 1 = not important, to 5 = very important) answers of the survey.

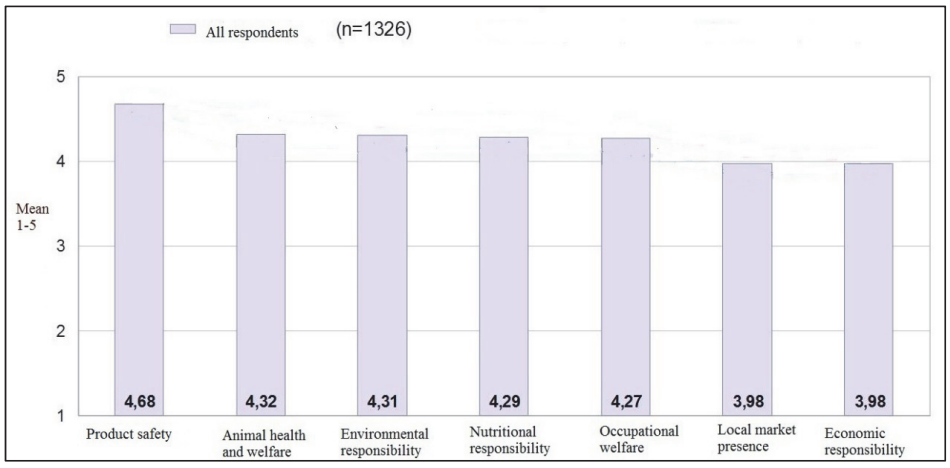

FIGURE 11 The relative importance of food chain CR dimensions at the moment. Respondents from a representative, weighted sample (n = 1326) of the Finnish population based on distributions of age, geography and gender.

TABLE 17 Descriptive statistics of the relative importance of food chain CR dimensions at the moment.

		Environmental responsibility	Product safety	Nutritional responsibility	Occupational welfare	Animal health and welfare	Economic responsibility	Local market presence
N	**Valid**	1326	1326	1326	1326	1326	1326	1326
	Missing	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Mean		4,31	4,68	4,29	4,27	4,32	3,98	3,98
Median		4,00	5,00	4,00	4,00	5,00	4,00	4,00
Mode		5	5	5	5	5	4	4
Std. Deviation		,761	,558	,726	,733	,783	,780	,885

The confidence intervals for the means of the relative importance of the different food chain CR dimensions at the moment are presented in Figure 12. The confidence intervals support the findings presented in Figure 11.

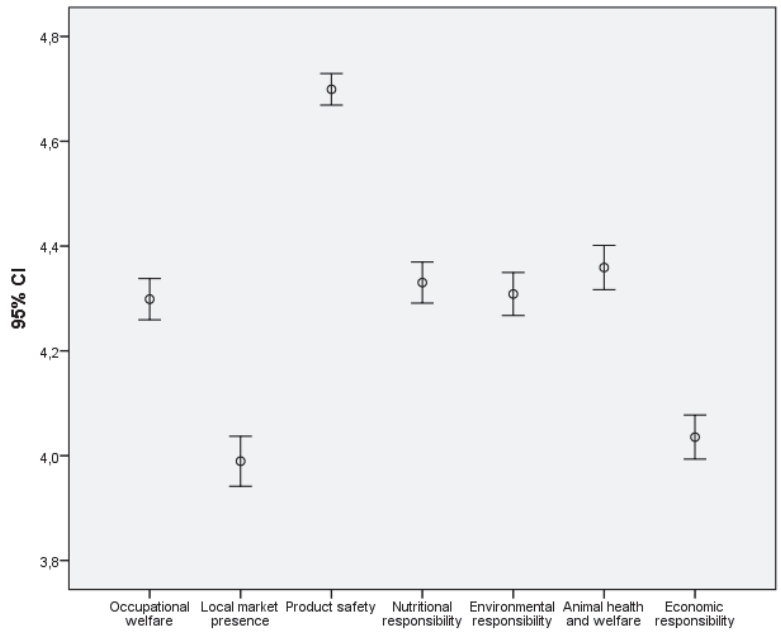

FIGURE 12 The confidence intervals for the relative importance of food chain CR dimensions at the moment

In addition, the respondents of the survey were asked about how important it is for the Finnish food chain to concentrate on the seven dimensions of food chain CR in the future. Figure 13 shows, that the food chain should take all seven dimensions of CR into account in the future as well. Product safety was perceived to be the most important dimension for the food chain to concentrate on followed by environmental responsibility and animal health and welfare. However, although at the moment nutritional responsibility was considered more important than occupational welfare, in the future consumers consider the latter to be more important than the former. This is also illustrated in Table 18 showing the descriptive statistics drawn from the Likert scale answers of the survey.

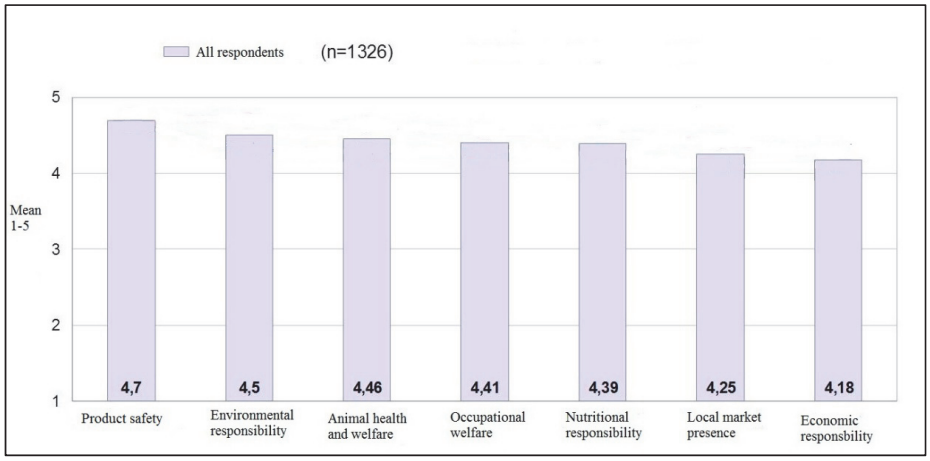

FIGURE 13 The relative importance of food chain CR dimensions in the future. Respondents from a representative, weighted sample (n = 1326) of the Finnish population based on distributions of age, geography and gender.

TABLE 18 Descriptive statistics of the relative importance of food chain CR dimensions in the future.

		Environmental responsibility in the future	Product safety in the future	Nutritional responsibility in the future	Occupational welfare in the future	Animal health and welfare in the future	Economic responsibility in the future	Local market presence in the future
N	**Valid**	1326	1326	1326	1326	1326	1326	1326
	Missing	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Mean		4,5	4,7	4,39	4,41	4,46	4,18	4,25
Median		5,00	5,00	5,00	5,00	5,00	4,00	4,00
Mode		5	5	5	5	5	4	5
Std. Deviation		,703	,535	,702	,695	,744	,752	,842

The confidence intervals for the means of the relative importance of the different food chain CR dimensions in the future are presented in Figure 14. The confidence intervals support the findings presented in Figure 13.

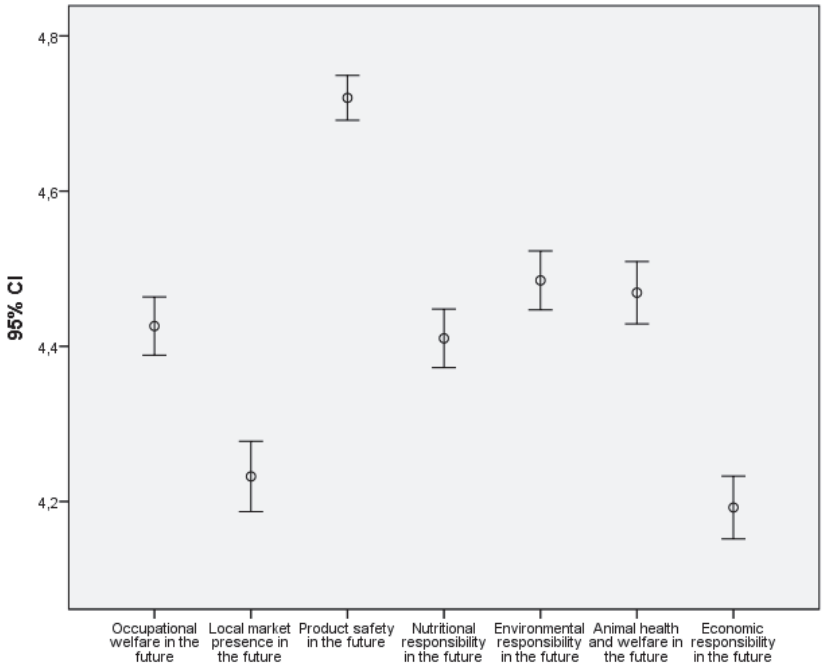

FIGURE 14 The confidence intervals for the relative importance of food chain CR dimensions in the future

6.3.2 Availability of CR information and consumers' CR information wants

In the online survey, consumers were asked how much information they feel that they are getting at the moment about the seven dimensions of food chain CR. In terms of receiving and wanting information about food chain CR, consumers want information on all seven dimensions. As Figure 15 illustrates, at the moment consumers feel that they receive the most information about nutritional responsibility, product safety and local market presence. Animal health and welfare and occupational welfare were the dimensions on which the least information is available. This is also demonstrated in Table 19 showing the descriptive statistics drawn from the Likert scale (1 = no information at all; 5 = very much information) answers of the survey. In addition, confidence intervals are used to study if the means calculated from the same sample differ from each other significantly.

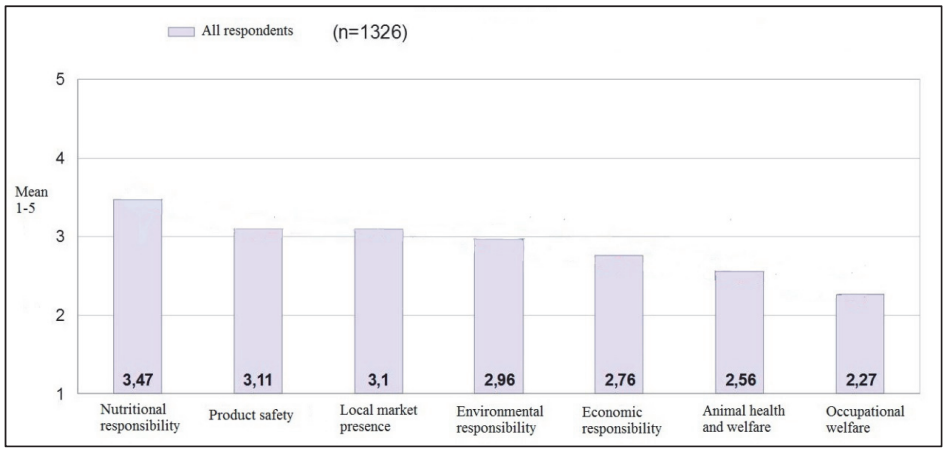

FIGURE 15 The availability of CR information at the moment. Respondents from a representative, weighted sample (n = 1326) of the Finnish population based on distributions of age, geography and gender.

TABLE 19 Descriptive statistics of how much information consumers receive at the moment about the seven dimensions of food chain CR

		Environmental responsibility	Product safety	Nutritional responsibility	Occupational welfare	Animal health and welfare	Economic responsibility	Local market presence
N	**Valid**	1326	1326	1326	1326	1326	1326	1326
	Missing	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Mean		2,96	3,11	3,47	2,27	2,56	2,76	3,1
Median		3,00	3,00	3,00	2,00	3,00	3,00	3,00
Mode		3	3	4	2	3	3	3
Std. Deviation		,899	,883	,865	,962	,949	,948	,885

The confidence intervals for the means of the relative importance of how much the survey respondents feel that they are getting information about the food chain CR dimensions at the moment are presented in Figure 16. The confidence intervals support the findings presented in Figure 15.

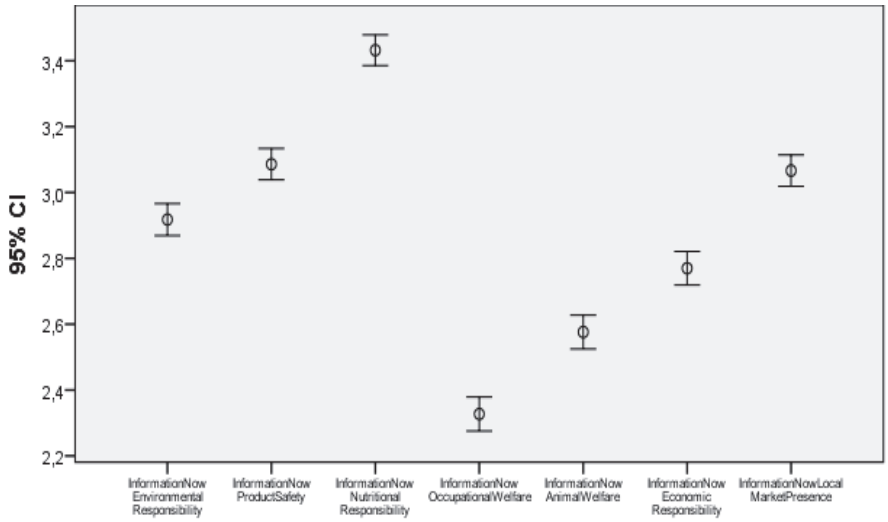

FIGURE 16 The confidence intervals for the availability of CR information at the moment

Moreover, the respondents of the survey were asked how much information they would like to get about the seven dimensions of food chain CR in the future. Product safety, nutritional responsibility and local market presence were considered to be dimensions about which consumers want to be informed in the future as well, as shown in Figure 17. The results of the survey indicate that consumers want to have more information on all seven dimensions in the future than they are receiving at the moment. These results are also verified in Table 20, which shows the descriptive statistics drawn from the Likert scale answers of the survey.

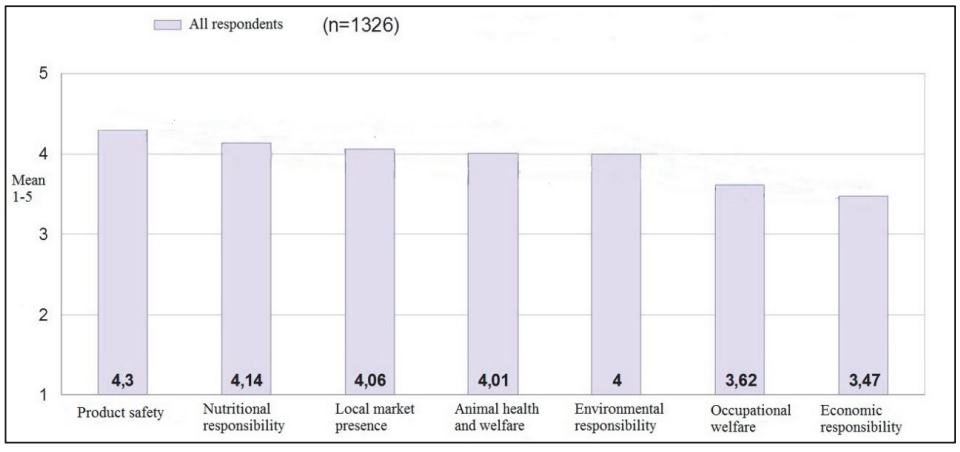

FIGURE 17 CR information wants in the future. Respondents from a representative, weighted sample (n = 1326) of the Finnish population based on distributions of age, geography and gender.

TABLE 20 Descriptive statistics: how much information consumers would like to receive in the future about the seven dimensions of food chain CR

		Environmental responsibility	Product safety	Nutritional responsibility	Occupational welfare	Animal health and welfare	Economic responsibility	Local market presence
N	Valid	1326	1326	1326	1326	1326	1326	1326
	Missing	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Mean		4,00	4,3	4,14	3,62	4,01	3,47	4,06
Median		4,00	4,00	4,00	4,00	4,00	4,00	4,00
Mode		4	5	4	4	4	4	4
Std. Deviation		,864	,746	,805	,943	,908	,888	,868

The confidence intervals for the means of the relative importance of how much the survey respondents would like to get information about the food chain CR dimensions in the future are presented in Figure 18. The confidence intervals support the findings presented in Figure 17.

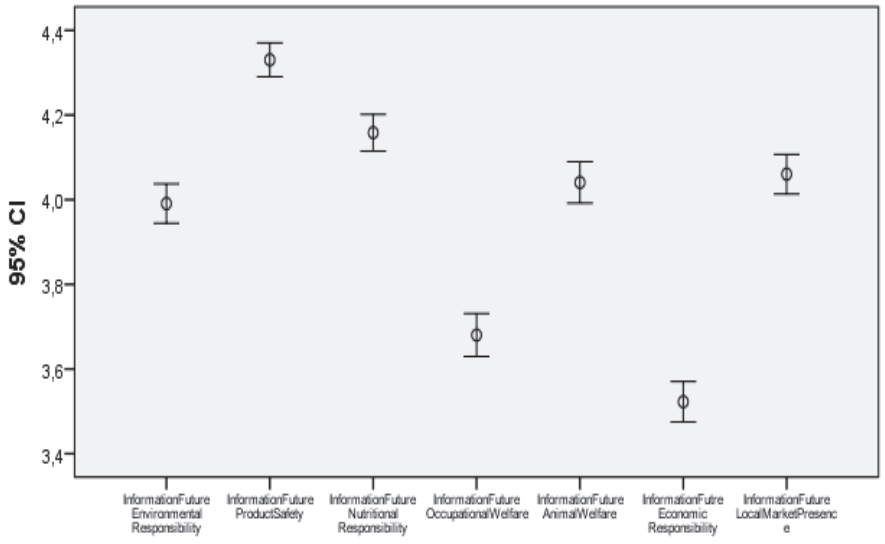

FIGURE 18 The confidence intervals for the availability of CR information at the moment

6.3.3 Effect of gender on the importance of CR dimensions & information wants

Independent samples *t*-test and one-way ANOVA with post hoc tests were used in order to determine whether the gender and age of the survey respondents has an impact on (a) how important it is for the Finnish food chain to concentrate on CR at the moment and in the future; and (b) how much information the respondents feel they are getting about food chain CR at the

moment as well as how much information they would like to get in the future. Next, the results of the independent samples t-test are presented followed by the results of the one-way ANOVA.

6.3.3.1 Gender and importance of CR dimensions

The first part of the analysis used the independent samples *t*-test to compare the differences in the means between gender and the importance of the seven dimensions of food chain CR as well as the information wants and the getting of information. The independent samples *t*-test analysis served to compare the mean scores of male and female respondents on the four variables examined. These included how important it is for the Finnish food chain to concentrate on the seven dimensions of food chain CR at the moment and in the future as well as how much information the survey respondents are getting at the moment about the seven dimensions of food chain CR and how much information they would like to get in the future. Of the survey respondents (n = 1326), 677 were male and 649 female.

The results of the independent samples *t*-test (Table 21) show statistically significant differences (p < ,001) between men and women in the importance of six food chain CR dimensions now and in the future. Only for economic responsibility are the differences between genders are smaller (p = ,006), but still the female respondents think that it is slightly more important (M = 4,10) for the Finnish food chain to concentrate on economic responsibility than the male respondents do (M = 3,98).

TABLE 21 Independent samples t-test: importance of food chain CR dimensions at the moment

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
									95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Occupational welfare	Equal variances assumed	,010	,922	-6,483	1324	,000	-,257	,040	-,335	-,179
	Equal variances not assumed			-6,497	1318,559	,000	-,257	,040	-,335	-,179
Local market presence	Equal variances assumed	8,213	,004	-5,513	1324	,000	-,265	,048	-,359	-,171
	Equal variances not assumed			-5,529	1311,939	,000	-,265	,048	-,359	-,171

Product safety	Equal variances assumed	50,709	,000	-4,288	1324	,000	-,131	,030	-,190	-,071
	Equal variances not assumed			-4,303	1301,807	,000	-,131	,030	-,190	-,071
Nutritional responsibility	Equal variances assumed	,189	,664	-6,657	1324	,000	-,261	,039	-,338	-,184
	Equal variances not assumed			-6,668	1321,869	,000	-,261	,039	-,338	-,185
Environmental responsibility	Equal variances assumed	3,196	,074	-7,813	1324	,000	-,319	,041	-,400	-,239
	Equal variances not assumed			-7,846	1291,443	,000	-,319	,041	-,399	-,239
Animal health and welfare	Equal variances assumed	10,280	,001	-8,724	1324	,000	-,365	,042	-,447	-,283
	Equal variances not assumed			-8,762	1290,596	,000	-,365	,042	-,447	-,283
Economic responsibility	Equal variances assumed	2,283	,131	-2,755	1324	,006	-,118	,043	-,201	-,034
	Equal variances not assumed			-2,754	1320,995	,006	-,118	,043	-,202	-,034

When comparing the means for the female respondents of the survey and their perceptions of the importance of the food chain CR dimensions at the moment with those of the male respondents, it can be seen that women (n = 649) think that it is more important for the Finnish food chain to concentrate on all seven dimensions of food chain CR at the moment than men (n = 677) do (Table 22). Especially noteworthy differences between genders can be seen in animal welfare and local market presence occupational welfare, environmental responsibility and nutritional responsibility, whereas for product safety the differences between genders are less notable. However, the food chain CR dimensions are, nevertheless, not completely unimportant for the male respondents either, since the mean for all dimensions is either very close to 4 or well above 4 on a five-point Likert scale.

TABLE 22 Group statistics: importance of food chain CR at the moment

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Occupational welfare	Male	677	4,17	,758	,029
	Female	649	4,43	,682	,027
Local market presence	Male	677	3,86	,932	,036
	Female	649	4,12	,812	,032
Product safety	Male	677	4,64	,599	,023
	Female	649	4,77	,504	,020
Nutritional responsibility	Male	677	4,20	,743	,029
	Female	649	4,46	,684	,027
Environmental responsibility	Male	677	4,15	,813	,031
	Female	649	4,47	,664	,026
Animal health and welfare	Male	677	4,18	,834	,032
	Female	649	4,55	,679	,027
Economic responsibility	Male	677	3,98	,776	,030
	Female	649	4,10	,780	,031

When looking at the results of the independents samples *t*-test for how important it is to the male and female respondents of the survey that the Finnish food chain concentrates on the seven dimensions of food chain CR in the future, the results (Table 23) show statistically significant differences ($p < ,001$) between men ($n = 677$) and women ($n = 649$) in all the seven dimensions of food chain CR dimensions now and in the future.

TABLE 23 Independent samples t-test: importance of food chain CR dimensions in the future

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
									95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Occupational welfare in the future	Equal variances assumed	21,184	,000	-6,539	1324	,000	-,246	,038	-,320	-,172
	Equal variances not assumed			-6,568	1287,081	,000	-,246	,037	-,319	-,172
Local market presence in the future	Equal variances assumed	4,636	,031	-7,062	1324	,000	-,321	,045	-,410	-,232
	Equal variances not assumed			-7,094	1286,535	,000	-,321	,045	-,409	-,232

Product safety in the future	Equal variances assumed	54,361	,000	-4,193	1324	,000	-,122	,029	-,180	-,065
	Equal variances not assumed			-4,211	1292,530	,000	-,122	,029	-,180	-,065
Nutritional responsibility in the future	Equal variances assumed	11,386	,001	-6,496	1324	,000	-,247	,038	-,321	-,172
	Equal variances not assumed			-6,517	1307,815	,000	-,247	,038	-,321	-,172
Environmental responsibility in the future	Equal variances assumed	92,269	,000	-9,723	1324	,000	-,363	,037	-,436	-,290
	Equal variances not assumed			-9,797	1203,855	,000	-,363	,037	-,436	-,290
Animal health and welfare in the future	Equal variances assumed	65,205	,000	-8,689	1324	,000	-,346	,040	-,424	-,268
	Equal variances not assumed			-8,747	1233,199	,000	-,346	,040	-,423	-,268
Economic responsibility in the future	Equal variances assumed	,166	,684	-4,426	1324	,000	-,182	,041	-,262	-,101
	Equal variances not assumed			-4,435	1320,146	,000	-,182	,041	-,262	-,101

When looking at the means (Table 24), it can be seen that notable differences can be seen especially between women and men for all the dimensions of food chain CR, and it can be concluded that the female respondents think that it is more important for the Finnish food chain to focus on all seven food chain CR dimensions in the future than it is for men. Similar differences between genders can be found regarding the importance of food chain CR dimensions at the moment from the importance of food chain CR dimensions in the future. Once again, especially notable differences between genders can be seen in animal welfare and local market presence occupational welfare, environmental responsibility and nutritional responsibility, whereas for product safety the differences between genders are less notable. However, the food chain CR dimensions are, nevertheless, not completely unimportant for the male respondents either, since the mean for all dimensions is either very close to 4 or well above 4 on a 5-point Likert scale.

TABLE 24 Group statistics: importance of food chain CR dimensions in the future

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Occupational welfare in the future	Male	677	4,31	,751	,029
	Female	649	4,55	,607	,024
Local market presence in the future	Male	677	4,08	,908	,035
	Female	649	4,40	,732	,029
Product safety in the future	Male	677	4,66	,581	,022
	Female	649	4,78	,475	,019
Nutritional responsibility in the future	Male	677	4,29	,741	,028
	Female	649	4,54	,635	,025
Environmental responsibility in the future	Male	677	4,31	,788	,030
	Female	649	4,67	,544	,021
Animal health and welfare in the future	Male	677	4,30	,827	,032
	Female	649	4,65	,599	,024
Economic responsibility in the future	Male	677	4,10	,781	,030
	Female	649	4,29	,710	,028

6.3.3.2 Gender and information wants

An independent samples *t*-test was conducted to compare the means between male and female respondents for how much information they feel they are getting about the different dimensions of food chain responsibility at the moment. Similarly, an independent samples *t*-test was conducted to compare the means between male and female respondents for how much information the respondents would like to get about the different dimensions of food chain responsibility in the future.

When looking at the results for the differences between male (n = 677) and female (n = 649) respondents (Table 25), it can be concluded that gender does not have a statistically significant (p= > ,05) impact on how much information they are getting about the different dimensions of food chain CR at the moment. The only exception is economic responsibility, where a statistically significant (p < ,001) difference between genders is found.

TABLE 25 Independent samples t-test: food chain CR information at the moment

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
									95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
InformationNowOccupationalWelfare	Equal variances assumed	,962	,327	1,910	1324	,056	,101	,053	-,003	,204
	Equal variances not assumed			1,911	1322,708	,056	,101	,053	-,003	,204
InformationNowLocalMarketPresence	Equal variances assumed	,707	,401	-1,486	1324	,138	-,072	,049	-,168	,023
	Equal variances not assumed			-1,486	1322,272	,138	-,072	,049	-,168	,023
InformationNowProductSafety	Equal variances assumed	1,218	,270	,982	1324	,326	,048	,049	-,048	,143
	Equal variances not assumed			,983	1323,937	,326	,048	,048	-,047	,143
InformationNowNutritionalResponsibility	Equal variances assumed	6,010	,014	-,352	1324	,725	-,017	,048	-,110	,077
	Equal variances not assumed			-,352	1301,213	,725	-,017	,048	-,110	,077
InformationNowEnvironmentalResponsibility	Equal variances assumed	,041	,840	1,445	1324	,149	,071	,049	-,026	,168
	Equal variances not assumed			1,446	1323,657	,148	,071	,049	-,025	,168
InformationNowAnimalWelfare	Equal variances assumed	2,699	,101	1,618	1324	,106	,0843	,0521	-,0179	,1865
	Equal variances not assumed			1,620	1322,424	,105	,0843	,0520	-,0178	,1864
InformationNowEconomicResponsibility	Equal variances assumed	4,107	,043	4,241	1324	,000	,219	,052	,118	,321
	Equal variances not assumed			4,242	1322,487	,000	,219	,052	,118	,321

When looking at the means of answers of male and female respondents (Table 26), it can be seen that the male respondents feel that they are getting slightly more information (*M* = 2,88) about economic responsibility at the moment than the female respondents do (*M* = 2,66) and, as previously mentioned, this difference between genders was statistically significant (*p* < ,001). It is worth noting that, all in all, both male and female respondents feel that they are getting rather little information about all other food chain CR dimensions than nutritional responsibility, product safety and economic responsibility.

TABLE 26 Group statistics: CR information at the moment

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
InformationNowOccupationalWelfare	Male	677	2,38	,966	,037
	Female	649	2,28	,956	,038
InformationNowLocalMarketPresence	Male	677	3,03	,887	,034
	Female	649	3,10	,882	,035
InformationNowProductSafety	Male	677	3,11	,899	,035
	Female	649	3,06	,867	,034
InformationNowNutritionalResponsibility	Male	677	3,42	,826	,032
	Female	649	3,44	,904	,035
InformationNowEnvironmentalResponsibility	Male	677	2,95	,911	,035
	Female	649	2,88	,887	,035
InformationNowAnimalWelfare	Male	677	2,617	,9835	,0378
	Female	649	2,533	,9108	,0358
InformationNowEconomicResponsibility	Male	677	2,88	,946	,036
	Female	649	2,66	,938	,037

When examining the results for the differences between male (*n* = 677) and female (*n* = 649) respondents (Table 27), it can be concluded that gender does have a statistically significant (*p* < ,001) impact on how much information they would like to get about the different dimensions of food chain CR in the future. The only exception is economic responsibility, where no statistically significant difference (*p* =,465) between male and female respondents can be seen.

TABLE 27 Independent samples t-test: food chain CR information wants in the future

		Levene's Test for Equality o Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
									95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
InformationFutureOccupationalWelfare	Equal variances assumed	3,676	,055	-4,014	1324	,000	-,207	,052	-,308	-,106
	Equal variances not assumed			-4,017	1323,938	,000	-,207	,051	-,308	-,106
InformationFutureLocalMarketPresence	Equal variances assumed	,573	,449	-6,484	1324	,000	-,304	,047	-,396	-,212
	Equal variances not assumed			-6,496	1321,016	,000	-,304	,047	-,396	-,212
InformationFutureProductSafety	Equal variances assumed	1,646	,200	-3,672	1324	,000	-,150	,041	-,230	-,070
	Equal variances not assumed			-3,679	1320,293	,000	-,150	,041	-,230	-,070
InformationFutureNutritionalResponsibility	Equal variances assumed	4,789	,029	-5,394	1324	,000	-,236	,044	-,322	-,150
	Equal variances not assumed			-5,399	1323,992	,000	-,236	,044	-,322	-,150
InformationFutureEnvironmentalResponsibility	Equal variances assumed	1,874	,171	-7,585	1324	,000	-,353	,047	-,444	-,261
	Equal variances not assumed			-7,596	1323,105	,000	-,353	,046	-,444	-,262
InformationFutureAnimalWelfare	Equal variances assumed	1,246	,265	-8,157	1324	,000	-,397	,049	-,493	-,302
	Equal variances not assumed			-8,176	1317,832	,000	-,397	,049	-,492	-,302
InformationFutreEconomicResponsibility	Equal variances assumed	2,233	,135	-,731	1324	,465	-,036	,049	-,131	,060
	Equal variances not assumed			-,730	1310,990	,466	-,036	,049	-,131	,060

When examining the means of answers of male and female respondents (Table 28) that the female respondents would like to have more information about food chain CR dimensions than the male respondents. Only economic responsibility was a dimension from which both men (*M* = 3,51) and women (*M* = 3,54) would like to get almost the same amount of information in the future. The biggest difference (i.e. women wanting more information) between the future information wants between genders were in animal welfare, local market presence and environmental responsibility. It is worth noting that, overall, both male and female respondents feel that they would like to receive rather much information about the dimensions of food chain CR dimensions in the future.

TABLE 28 Group statistics: food chain CR information wants in the future

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
InformationFutureOccupationalWelfare	Male	677	3,58	,954	,037
	Female	649	3,79	,921	,036
InformationFutureLocalMarketPresence	Male	677	3,91	,891	,034
	Female	649	4,22	,814	,032
InformationFutureProductSafety	Male	677	4,26	,776	,030
	Female	649	4,41	,706	,028
InformationFutureNutritionalResponsibility	Male	677	4,04	,814	,031
	Female	649	4,28	,778	,031
InformationFutureEnvironmentalResponsibility	Male	677	3,82	,874	,034
	Female	649	4,17	,817	,032
InformationFutureAnimalWelfare	Male	677	3,85	,933	,036
	Female	649	4,24	,835	,033
InformationFutreEconomicResponsibility	Male	677	3,51	,863	,033
	Female	649	3,54	,914	,036

6.3.3.3 Importance of food chain CR dimensions: different age groups

A one-way ANOVA with post hoc tests was conducted in order to identify any significant differences between the age groups in how important they perceive the dimensions of food chain CR now and in the future, and how much they are informed as well as how much they would like to be informed about the seven dimensions of food chain CR. The results of how important it is for the Finnish food chain to concentrate on the seven dimensions of food chain CR at the moment are presented in Table 29.

TABLE 29 Results of one-way ANOVA of the importance of CR dimensions now

CR dimension	Age group	N	Mean	Mean square between groups	F-value	Sig.
Occupational welfare				2,354	4,427	,001*
	18–24	88	4,26			
	25–34	123	4,06			
	35–49	251	4,27			
	50–64	460	4,34			
	65–79	404	4,35			
Local market presence				1,475	1,888	,110
	18–24	88	3,80			
	25–34	123	3,90			
	35–49	251	3,98			
	50–64	460	4,05			
	65–79	404	4,00			
Product safety				,507	1,631	,164
	18–24	88	4,67			
	25–34	123	4,63			
	35–49	251	4,71			
	50–64	460	4,68			
	65–79	404	4,75			
Nutritional responsibility				2,626	5,037	,000*
	18–24	88	4,25			
	25–34	123	4,12			
	35–49	251	4,25			
	50–64	460	4,38			
	65–79	404	4,40			
Environmental responsibility				,080	,138	,968
	18–24	88	4,26			
	25–34	123	4,32			
	35–49	251	4,30			
	50–64	460	4,30			
	65–79	404	4,32			
Animal health and welfare				1,191	1,946	,100
	18–24	88	4,32			
	25–34	123	4,23			
	35–49	251	4,33			
	50–64	460	4,35			
	65–79	404	4,43			
Economic responsibility				6,850	11,632	,000*
	18–24	88	3,78			
	25–34	123	3,74			
	35–49	251	3,98			
	50–64	460	4,12			
	65–79	404	4,15			

* The mean difference is significant at $p \leqslant 0.05$.

The results of the one-way ANOVA are statistically significant, with the significance level below 0,05, for occupational welfare (p = ,001), nutritional responsibility (p < ,001) and economic responsibility (p < ,001) and, therefore, there is a statistically significant difference between the perceived importance of the CR dimensions at the moment between the different age groups. In order to determine which of the specific groups differ, a post hoc test (Bonferroni) was conducted. The results of the post hoc test can be seen in Table 30. The results indicate that for the respondents belonging to the 25–34 age group it is less important (M = 4,06), although not unimportant, than for the older age groups (50–64: M = 4,34 and 65–79: M = 4,35) for the Finnish food chain to concentrate on occupational welfare at the moment. Similarly in the case of nutritional responsibility the respondents in the 25–34 age group found it less important (M = 4,12) that the Finnish food chain would focus on nutritional responsibility at the moment compared with the two oldest age groups (50–64: M = 4,38 and 65–79: M = 4,40).

As can be seen from the results of the one-way ANOVA presented in Table 29, all age groups perceived economic responsibility as the least important dimension of food chain CR on which the Finnish food chain should focus. However, the results of the Bonferroni post hoc test show that the two older age groups find it more important (50–64: M = 4,12 and 65–79: M = 4,15) that the food chain actors focus on economic responsibility than the younger age groups (18–24: M = 3,78 AND 25–34: M = 3,74).

TABLE 30 Results of the multiple comparisons with Bonferroni post hoc test

Multiple Comparisons
Bonferroni

Dependent Variable	(I) Age group	(J) Age group	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Occupational welfare	18-24	25-34	,204	,102	,448	-,08	,49
		35-49	-,010	,090	1,000	-,26	,24
		50-64	-,076	,085	1,000	-,31	,16
		65-79	-,093	,086	1,000	-,33	,15
	25-34	18-24	-,204	,102	,448	-,49	,08
		35-49	-,214	,080	,078	-,44	,01
		50-64	-,280*	,074	,002	-,49	-,07
		65-79	-,297*	,075	,001	-,51	-,09
	35-49	18-24	,010	,090	1,000	-,24	,26
		25-34	,214	,080	,078	-,01	,44
		50-64	-,066	,057	1,000	-,23	,09
		65-79	-,083	,059	1,000	-,25	,08
	50-64	18-24	,076	,085	1,000	-,16	,31
		25-34	,280*	,074	,002	,07	,49
		35-49	,066	,057	1,000	-,09	,23
		65-79	-,017	,050	1,000	-,16	,12

	65-79	18-24	,093	,086	1,000	-,15	,33
		25-34	,297*	,075	,001	,09	,51
		35-49	,083	,059	1,000	-,08	,25
		50-64	,017	,050	1,000	-,12	,16
Nutritional responsibility	18-24	25-34	,128	,101	1,000	-,16	,41
		35-49	-,005	,089	1,000	-,26	,25
		50-64	-,130	,084	1,000	-,37	,11
		65-79	-,151	,085	,757	-,39	,09
	25-34	18-24	-,128	,101	1,000	-,41	,16
		35-49	-,133	,079	,944	-,36	,09
		50-64	-,258*	,073	,004	-,46	-,05
		65-79	-,279*	,074	,002	-,49	-,07
	35-49	18-24	,005	,089	1,000	-,25	,26
		25-34	,133	,079	,944	-,09	,36
		50-64	-,125	,057	,270	-,28	,03
		65-79	-,146	,058	,120	-,31	,02
	50-64	18-24	,130	,084	1,000	-,11	,37
		25-34	,258*	,073	,004	,05	,46
		35-49	,125	,057	,270	-,03	,28
		65-79	-,021	,049	1,000	-,16	,12
	65-79	18-24	,151	,085	,757	-,09	,39
		25-34	,279*	,074	,002	,07	,49
		35-49	,146	,058	,120	-,02	,31
		50-64	,021	,049	1,000	-,12	,16
Economic responsibility	18-24	25-34	,044	,107	1,000	-,26	,35
		35-49	-,148	,095	1,000	-,42	,12
		50-64	-,335*	,089	,002	-,59	-,08
		65-79	-,364*	,090	,001	-,62	-,11
	25-34	18-24	-,044	,107	1,000	-,35	,26
		35-49	-,192	,084	,229	-,43	,05
		50-64	-,380*	,078	,000	-,60	-,16
		65-79	-,409*	,079	,000	-,63	-,19
	35-49	18-24	,148	,095	1,000	-,12	,42
		25-34	,192	,084	,229	-,05	,43
		50-64	-,187*	,060	,019	-,36	-,02
		65-79	-,216*	,062	,005	-,39	-,04
	50-64	18-24	,335*	,089	,002	,08	,59
		25-34	,380*	,078	,000	,16	,60
		35-49	,187*	,060	,019	,02	,36
		65-79	-,029	,052	1,000	-,18	,12
	65-79	18-24	,364*	,090	,001	,11	,62
		25-34	,409*	,079	,000	,19	,63
		35-49	,216*	,062	,005	,04	,39
		50-64	,029	,052	1,000	-,12	,18

* The mean difference is significant at the 0,05 level.

For the other dimensions of food chain CR the one way ANOVA with post hoc test did not produce statistically significant differences between different age groups.

Next the results of how important it is for the Finnish food chain to concentrate on the seven dimensions of food chain CR in the future are presented in Table 31.

TABLE 31 Results of one-way ANOVA of the importance of CR dimensions in the future

CR dimension	**Age group**	**N**	**Mean**	**Mean square between groups**	**F-value**	**Sig.**
Occupational welfare				1,185	2,464	,043
	18-24	88	4,33			
	25-34	123	4,28			
	35-49	251	4,41			
	50-64	460	4,46			
	65-79	404	4,46			
Local market presence				,760	1,074	,368
	18-24	88	4,19			
	25-34	123	4,35			
	35-49	251	4,26			
	50-64	460	4,23			
	65-79	404	4,18			
Product safety				1,736	6,160	,000*
	18-24	88	4,50			
	25-34	123	4,61			
	35-49	251	4,73			
	50-64	460	4,75			
	65-79	404	4,76			
Nutritional responsibility				1,614	3,300	,011*
	18-24	88	4,20			
	25-34	123	4,31			
	35-49	251	4,40			
	50-64	460	4,43			
	65-79	404	4,47			
Environmental responsibility				,617	1,248	,289
	18-24	88	4,61			
	25-34	123	4,48			
	35-49	251	4,52			
	50-64	460	4,48			
	65-79	404	4,45			
Animal health and welfare				,760	1,372	,241
	18-24	88	4,41			
	25-34	123	4,39			
	35-49	251	4,46			
	50-64	460	4,45			
	65-79	404	4,53			

Economic responsibility				2,432	4,341	,002*
	18-24	88	4,03			
	25-34	123	3,98			
	35-49	251	4,18			
	50-64	460	4,25			
	65-79	404	4,23			

* The mean difference is significant at $p \leq 0.05$.

Table 31 shows that the significance level is below 0,05 for occupational welfare (p = ,043), product safety (p < ,001), nutritional responsibility (p = ,011) and economic responsibility (p = ,002) and, therefore, there is a statistically significant difference between the perceived importance of the CR dimensions in the future between the different age groups. In order to determine which of the specific groups differ, post hoc tests were conducted for the four aforementioned dimensions. Since, for occupational welfare (Levene's statistic 3,226 and p = ,012) and product safety (Levene's statistic 15,243 and p = ,001) unequal variances were assumed when testing for the homogeneity of variances, the appropriate post hoc test for those two dimensions was Tamhane. For nutritional responsibility and economic responsibility equal variances were assumed and the post hoc test used was Bonferroni. The results of the multiple comparisons of the four dimensions are presented in Table 32 and Table 33.

TABLE 32 Results of the multiple comparisons with the Tamhane post hoc test

Multiple Comparisons
Tamhane

Dependent Variable	(I) Age group	(J) Age group	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Occupational welfare in the future	18-24	25-34	,053	,114	1,000	-,27	,38
		35-49	-,081	,101	,996	-,37	,21
		50-64	-,133	,096	,838	-,41	,14
		65-79	-,131	,097	,864	-,41	,15
	25-34	18-24	-,053	,114	1,000	-,38	,27
		35-49	-,134	,082	,663	-,37	,10
		50-64	-,187	,075	,128	-,40	,03
		65-79	-,184	,076	,159	-,40	,03
	35-49	18-24	,081	,101	,996	-,21	,37
		25-34	,134	,082	,663	-,10	,37
		50-64	-,053	,054	,981	-,20	,10
		65-79	-,050	,056	,990	-,21	,11
	50-64	18-24	,133	,096	,838	-,14	,41
		25-34	,187	,075	,128	-,03	,40
		35-49	,053	,054	,981	-,10	,20
		65-79	,003	,045	1,000	-,12	,13

	65-79	18-24	,131	,097	,864	-,15	,41
		25-34	,184	,076	,159	-,03	,40
		35-49	,050	,056	,990	-,11	,21
		50-64	-,003	,045	1,000	-,13	,12
Product safety in the future	18-24	25-34	-,110	,096	,946	-,38	,16
		35-49	-,229	,085	,080	-,47	,01
		50-64	-,248*	,083	,034	-,48	-,01
		65-79	-,265*	,083	,018	-,50	-,03
	25-34	18-24	,110	,096	,946	-,16	,38
		35-49	-,119	,062	,446	-,30	,06
		50-64	-,138	,059	,181	-,30	,03
		65-79	-,155	,059	,090	-,32	,01
	35-49	18-24	,229	,085	,080	-,01	,47
		25-34	,119	,062	,446	-,06	,30
		50-64	-,019	,040	1,000	-,13	,09
		65-79	-,036	,040	,991	-,15	,08
	50-64	18-24	,248*	,083	,034	,01	,48
		25-34	,138	,059	,181	-,03	,30
		35-49	,019	,040	1,000	-,09	,13
		65-79	-,017	,034	1,000	-,11	,08
	65-79	18-24	,265*	,083	,018	,03	,50
		25-34	,155	,059	,090	-,01	,32
		35-49	,036	,040	,991	-,08	,15
		50-64	,017	,034	1,000	-,08	,11

* The mean difference is significant at the 0,05 level.

The results of the multiple comparisons indicate that there are no statistically significant differences between the different age groups when looking at how important it is for the Finnish food chain to concentrate on occupational welfare in the future. However, for product safety in the future there were statistically significant differences between the different age groups. By examining the means presented in Table 28, it can be concluded that the respondents in the older age groups feel that it is very important that the Finnish food chain concentrates on product safety in the future. The biggest difference was between the youngest age group (M = 4,50), the 50–64 age group (M = 4,75) and the 65–79 age groups (M = 4,76). However, as can be seen, the differences in means are rather small and the means for all the age groups are well above 4 on the 5-point Likert scale.

The results of the multiple comparisons using the Bonferroni post hoc test for nutritional responsibility and economic responsibility are presented in Table 33. The results indicate statistically significant differences (p = ,016) between the youngest and the oldest age group in the nutritional responsibility dimension. When looking at the means of these two age groups, it can be concluded that for the youngest age group, 18–24, it is somewhat less important, although still rather important, that the Finnish food chain focuses on nutritional

responsibility in the future (*M* = 4,20). However, for the oldest age group, 65–79, it is considerably more important (*M* = 4,76) that the Finnish food chain focuses on product safety in the future as well.

As for economic responsibility in the future, there were statistically significant differences between the 25–34 age group and the 50–64 age group (*p* =,004) as well as between the 25–34 age group and the oldest age group (*p* = ,016). As can be seen from the results of the one-way ANOVA presented in Table 28, the respondents belonging to the two oldest age groups perceived it as somewhat more important for the Finnish food chain to concentrate on economic responsibility (50–64: *M* = 4,25 and 65–79: *M* = 4,23) in the future than the respondents in the 25–34 age group did (*M* = 3,98).

TABLE 33 Results of the multiple comparisons with Bonferroni post hoc test

Multiple Comparisons
Bonferroni

Dependent Variable	(I) Age group	(J) Age group	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Nutritional responsibility in the future	18-24	25-34	-,104	,098	1,000	-,38	,17
		35-49	-,198	,087	,226	-,44	,05
		50-64	-,228	,081	,051	-,46	,00
		65-79	-,261*	,082	,016	-,49	-,03
	25-34	18-24	,104	,098	1,000	-,17	,38
		35-49	-,093	,077	1,000	-,31	,12
		50-64	-,124	,071	,818	-,32	,08
		65-79	-,156	,072	,301	-,36	,05
	35-49	18-24	,198	,087	,226	-,05	,44
		25-34	,093	,077	1,000	-,12	,31
		50-64	-,030	,055	1,000	-,18	,12
		65-79	-,063	,056	1,000	-,22	,10
	50-64	18-24	,228	,081	,051	,00	,46
		25-34	,124	,071	,818	-,08	,32
		35-49	,030	,055	1,000	-,12	,18
		65-79	-,033	,048	1,000	-,17	,10
	65-79	18-24	,261*	,082	,016	,03	,49
		25-34	,156	,072	,301	-,05	,36
		35-49	,063	,056	1,000	-,10	,22
		50-64	,033	,048	1,000	-,10	,17
Economic responsibility in the future	18-24	25-34	,050	,105	1,000	-,24	,34
		35-49	-,149	,093	1,000	-,41	,11
		50-64	-,218	,087	,124	-,46	,03
		65-79	-,194	,088	,281	-,44	,05
	25-34	18-24	-,050	,105	1,000	-,34	,24
		35-49	-,200	,082	,156	-,43	,03
		50-64	-,268*	,076	,004	-,48	-,05
		65-79	-,244*	,077	,016	-,46	-,03

	35-49	18-24	,149	,093	1,000	-,11	,41
		25-34	,200	,082	,156	-,03	,43
		50-64	-,069	,059	1,000	-,23	,10
		65-79	-,044	,060	1,000	-,21	,12
	50-64	18-24	,218	,087	,124	-,03	,46
		25-34	,268*	,076	,004	,05	,48
		35-49	,069	,059	1,000	-,10	,23
		65-79	,024	,051	1,000	-,12	,17
	65-79	18-24	,194	,088	,281	-,05	,44
		25-34	,244*	,077	,016	,03	,46
		35-49	,044	,060	1,000	-,12	,21
		50-64	-,024	,051	1,000	-,17	,12

* The mean difference is significant at the 0,05 level

For the other dimensions of food chain CR, the one-way ANOVA with post hoc test did not produce statistically significant differences between different age groups.

6.3.3.4 Information wants in the future: different age groups

Next, Table 34 presents the results of how much information the survey respondents feel that they are getting about the seven dimensions of food chain CR at the moment.

TABLE 34 Results of one-way ANOVA food chain CR information now

CR dimension	**Age group**	**N**	**Mean**	**Mean square between groups**	**F-value**	**Sig.**
Occupational welfare				10,041	11,186	,000*
	18-24	88	2,08			
	25-34	123	2,00			
	35-49	251	2,22			
	50-64	460	2,33			
	65-79	404	2,54			
Local market presence				1,521	1,947	,100
	18-24	88	3,26			
	25-34	123	3,13			
	35-49	251	2,97			
	50-64	460	3,07			
	65-79	404	3,06			
Product safety				,434	,555	,695
	18-24	88	3,09			
	25-34	123	3,16			
	35-49	251	3,11			
	50-64	460	3,09			
	65-79	404	3,04			

Nutritional responsibility				2,232	3,001	,018*
	18-24	88	3,60			
	25-34	123	3,62			
	35-49	251	3,43			
	50-64	460	3,41			
	65-79	404	3,36			
Environmental responsibility				1,257	1,556	,184
	18-24	88	3,02			
	25-34	123	3,05			
	35-49	251	2,96			
	50-64	460	2,88			
	65-79	404	2,88			
Animal health and welfare				1,538	1,711	,145
	18-24	88	2,52			
	25-34	123	2,50			
	35-49	251	2,49			
	50-64	460	2,58			
	65-79	404	2,67			
Economic responsibility				,725	,807	,521
	18-24	88	2,63			
	25-34	123	2,76			
	35-49	251	2,76			
	50-64	460	2,76			
	65-79	404	2,82			

* The mean difference is significant at $p \leq 0.05$.

From this table it is possible to see that the significance level is below 0,05 for occupational welfare (p < ,001) and nutritional responsibility (p = ,018), therefore, there is a statistically significant difference between the age groups in terms of how much information they are getting at the moment of these two dimensions. In order to determine which of the specific groups differ, a post hoc test (Bonferroni) was conducted. The results of the multiple comparisons using the Bonferroni post hoc test for how much information the respondents are getting now about nutritional responsibility and occupational welfare are presented in Table 35.

TABLE 35 Results of the multiple comparisons with Bonferroni post hoc test

Multiple Comparisons
Bonferroni

Dependent Variable	(I) Age group	(J) Age group	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
InformationNow NutritionalResponsibility	18-24	25-34	-,016	,120	1,000	-,35	,32
		35-49	,168	,107	1,000	-,13	,47
		50-64	,194	,100	,539	-,09	,48
		65-79	,238	,101	,189	-,05	,52
	25-34	18-24	,016	,120	1,000	-,32	,35
		35-49	,184	,095	,533	-,08	,45
		50-64	,209	,088	,170	-,04	,46
		65-79	,254*	,089	,043	,00	,50
	35-49	18-24	-,168	,107	1,000	-,47	,13
		25-34	-,184	,095	,533	-,45	,08
		50-64	,026	,068	1,000	-,16	,22
		65-79	,070	,069	1,000	-,12	,27
	50-64	18-24	-,194	,100	,539	-,48	,09
		25-34	-,209	,088	,170	-,46	,04
		35-49	-,026	,068	1,000	-,22	,16
		65-79	,045	,059	1,000	-,12	,21
	65-79	18-24	-,238	,101	,189	-,52	,05
		25-34	-,254*	,089	,043	-,50	,00
		35-49	-,070	,069	1,000	-,27	,12
		50-64	-,045	,059	1,000	-,21	,12
InformationNow OccupationalWelfare	18-24	25-34	,080	,132	1,000	-,29	,45
		35-49	-,140	,117	1,000	-,47	,19
		50-64	-,253	,110	,219	-,56	,06
		65-79	-,463*	,111	,000	-,78	-,15
	25-34	18-24	-,080	,132	1,000	-,45	,29
		35-49	-,219	,104	,358	-,51	,07
		50-64	-,333*	,096	,006	-,60	-,06
		65-79	-,542*	,098	,000	-,82	-,27
	35-49	18-24	,140	,117	1,000	-,19	,47
		25-34	,219	,104	,358	-,07	,51
		50-64	-,113	,074	1,000	-,32	,10
		65-79	-,323*	,076	,000	-,54	-,11
	50-64	18-24	,253	,110	,219	-,06	,56
		25-34	,333*	,096	,006	,06	,60
		35-49	,113	,074	1,000	-,10	,32
		65-79	-,209*	,065	,012	-,39	-,03
	65-79	18-24	,463*	,111	,000	,15	,78
		25-34	,542*	,098	,000	,27	,82
		35-49	,323*	,076	,000	,11	,54
		50-64	,209*	,065	,012	,03	,39

* The mean difference is significant at the 0,05 level

The results indicate statistically significant differences (p = ,043) between the 25–34 and the oldest age groups in the nutritional responsibility dimension. When looking at the means of these two age groups, it can be concluded that the 25–34 age group seems to be getting somewhat more information about nutritional responsibility than the oldest age group at the moment (25–34: M = 3,60 and 65–79: M = 3,36).

As for receiving information at the moment about occupational welfare, there were statistically significant differences between the 18–24, the 25–34 and the 35–49 age groups and the oldest age group (p < ,001); statistically significant differences were also found between the 25–34 and the 50–64 age groups (p = ,006) as well as between the 50–64 and the oldest age group (p = ,012).

As can be seen from the results of the one-way ANOVA presented in Table 34, the respondents belonging to the oldest age group seemed to be getting more information at the moment about occupational welfare (M = 2,54) than the respondents in the other age groups and the respondents in the two youngest age groups seemed to be getting the least information about occupational welfare at the moment (18–24: M = 2,08 and 25–34: M = 2,00). For the other dimensions of food chain CR, the one-way ANOVA with post hoc test did not produce statistically significant differences between different age groups.

The results of how much information the survey respondents feel that they would like to get about the seven dimensions of food chain CR in the future are presented in Table 36.

TABLE 36 Results of one-way ANOVA food chain CR information wants in the future

CR dimension	**Age group**	**N**	**Mean**	**Mean square between groups**	**F-value**	**Sig.**
Occupational welfare				7,740	8,911	,000*
	18-24	88	3,52			
	25-34	123	3,35			
	35-49	251	3,56			
	50-64	460	3,72			
	65-79	404	3,85			
Local market presence				,654	,868	,482
	18-24	88	3,92			
	25-34	123	4,14			
	35-49	251	4,06			
	50-64	460	4,08			
	65-79	404	4,05			
Product safety				3,863	7,069	,000*
	18-24	88	4,07			
	25-34	123	4,15			
	35-49	251	4,29			
	50-64	460	4,36			
	65-79	404	4,43			

Nutritional responsibility				1,085	1,678	,153
	18-24	88	4,06			
	25-34	123	4.09			
	35-49	251	4,09			
	50-64	460	4,18			
	65-79	404	4,22			
Environmental responsibility				,811	1,086	,362
	18-24	88	4,14			
	25-34	123	4,01			
	35-49	251	3,92			
	50-64	460	3,98			
	65-79	404	4,00			
Animal health and welfare				1,609	1,958	,099
	18-24	88	3,94			
	25-34	123	3,99			
	35-49	251	4,01			
	50-64	460	4,00			
	65-79	404	4,14			
Economic responsibility				10,968	14,475	,000*
	18-24	88	3,25			
	25-34	123	3,14			
	35-49	251	3,44			
	50-64	460	3,54			
	65-79	404	3,73			

* The mean difference is significant at $p \leq 0.05$.

Table 36 shows that the significance level is below 0,05 for occupational welfare (p < ,001), product safety (p < ,001) and economic responsibility (p < ,001), therefore, there is a statistically significant difference between the age groups in terms of how much information they would like to get about these three dimensions of food chain responsibility in the future. In order to determine which of the specific groups differ, post hoc tests were conducted for the four aforementioned dimensions. Since, when testing for the homogeneity of variances unequal variances were assumed for occupational welfare (Levene's statistic 6,659 and p = ,000). Thus, the appropriate post hoc test for this dimension was Tamhane. For product safety and economic responsibility equal variances were assumed and the post hoc test used was Bonferroni. The results of the multiple comparisons of the three dimensions are presented in Table 37 and Table 38.

TABLE 37 Results of the multiple comparisons for occupational welfare with the Tamhane post hoc test

Dependent Variable: InformationFutureOccupationalWelfare
Tamhane

(I) Age group	(J) Age group	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
18-24	25-34	,173	,147	,935	-,24	,59
	35-49	-,039	,126	1,000	-,40	,32
	50-64	-,195	,117	,648	-,53	,14
	65-79	-,324	,118	,067	-,66	,01
25-34	18-24	-,173	,147	,935	-,59	,24
	35-49	-,212	,116	,509	-,54	,12
	50-64	-,368*	,106	,006	-,67	-,07
	65-79	-,497*	,106	,000	-,80	-,20
35-49	18-24	,039	,126	1,000	-,32	,40
	25-34	,212	,116	,509	-,12	,54
	50-64	-,156	,075	,332	-,37	,06
	65-79	-,285*	,076	,002	-,50	-,07
50-64	18-24	,195	,117	,648	-,14	,53
	25-34	,368*	,106	,006	,07	,67
	35-49	,156	,075	,332	-,06	,37
	65-79	-,129	,060	,270	-,30	,04
65-79	18-24	,324	,118	,067	-,01	,66
	25-34	,497*	,106	,000	,20	,80
	35-49	,285*	,076	,002	,07	,50
	50-64	,129	,060	,270	-,04	,30

* The mean difference is significant at the 0,05 level.

The result of the multiple comparisons for occupational welfare information wants in the future indicate that there are statistically significant differences between the future information wants of respondents in the 25–34 age group and the respondents in the 50–64 age group (p = ,006), between the 25–34 age group respondents and the oldest age group (p < ,001), and between the 35–49 age group and the oldest age group of respondents (p = ,002). By examining the means presented in Table 32, it can be concluded that the respondents in the older age groups want more information about occupational welfare in the future. The biggest difference was between the 25–34 age group (M = 3,35), the 50–64 age group (M = 3,72) and the 65–79 age groups (M = 3,85).

Table 38 presents the results of the multiple comparisons using the Bonferroni post hoc test for how much information the respondents would like to get in the future about product safety and economic responsibility.

TABLE 38 Results of the multiple comparisons with the Bonferroni post hoc test

Multiple Comparisons
Bonferroni

Dependent Variable	(I) Age group	(J) Age group	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
InformationFutureProductSafety	18-24	25-34	-,078	,103	1,000	-,37	,21
		35-49	-,219	,092	,171	-,48	,04
		50-64	-,295*	,086	,006	-,54	-,05
		65-79	-,365*	,087	,000	-,61	-,12
	25-34	18-24	,078	,103	1,000	-,21	,37
		35-49	-,141	,081	,844	-,37	,09
		50-64	-,217*	,075	,039	-,43	-,01
		65-79	-,287*	,076	,002	-,50	-,07
	35-49	18-24	,219	,092	,171	-,04	,48
		25-34	,141	,081	,844	-,09	,37
		50-64	-,076	,058	1,000	-,24	,09
		65-79	-,146	,059	,139	-,31	,02
	50-64	18-24	,295*	,086	,006	,05	,54
		25-34	,217*	,075	,039	,01	,43
		35-49	,076	,058	1,000	-,09	,24
		65-79	-,070	,050	1,000	-,21	,07
	65-79	18-24	,365*	,087	,000	,12	,61
		25-34	,287*	,076	,002	,07	,50
		35-49	,146	,059	,139	-,02	,31
		50-64	,070	,050	1,000	-,07	,21
InformationFutreEconomicResponsibility	18-24	25-34	,112	,122	1,000	-,23	,45
		35-49	-,192	,108	,749	-,50	,11
		50-64	-,289*	,101	,044	-,57	,00
		65-79	-,480*	,102	,000	-,77	-,19
	25-34	18-24	-,112	,122	1,000	-,45	,23
		35-49	-,304*	,096	,015	-,57	-,03
		50-64	-,401*	,088	,000	-,65	-,15
		65-79	-,592*	,090	,000	-,84	-,34
	35-49	18-24	,192	,108	,749	-,11	,50
		25-34	,304*	,096	,015	,03	,57
		50-64	-,097	,068	1,000	-,29	,10
		65-79	-,288*	,070	,000	-,48	-,09
	50-64	18-24	,289*	,101	,044	,00	,57
		25-34	,401*	,088	,000	,15	,65
		35-49	,097	,068	1,000	-,10	,29
		65-79	-,191*	,059	,013	-,36	-,02
	65-79	18-24	,480*	,102	,000	,19	,77
		25-34	,592*	,090	,000	,34	,84
		35-49	,288*	,070	,000	,09	,48
		50-64	,191*	,059	,013	,02	,36

* The mean difference is significant at the 0,05 level.

The results of the future information wants about product safety indicate statistically significant differences (p = ,006) between the respondents in the 18–24 age group and the respondents in the 50–64 age group. Statistically significant differences (p < ,001) are also found between the respondents in the youngest age group and the respondents in the oldest age group. Moreover, statistically significant differences are found between the respondents in the 25–34 age group and the 50–64 age group (p = ,039) as well as between the respondents from the 25–34 age group and the oldest age group (p = ,002).

As can be seen from the results of the one –way ANOVA presented in Table 36, the respondents belonging to the oldest age group want to get more information about product safety in the future than the respondents in the three youngest age groups (65–79: M = 4,43 and 18–24: M = 4,07; 24–34: M = 4,15 and 35–49: M = 4,29).

For the future information wants about economic responsibility, the results of the Bonferroni post hoc test indicate that, once again, there are statistically significant differences (p < ,001) between the respondents in the 18–24 age group and the respondents in the oldest age group. Statistically significant differences (p < ,001) are also found between the respondents in the 25–34 age group and the respondents in the 50–64 and the oldest age group. Statistically significant differences (p = ,013) are also found between the respondents in the 50–64 age group and the respondents in the oldest age group. Moreover, statistically significant differences are found between the respondents in the 25–34 age group and the 35–49 age group (p = ,015) as well as between the respondents from the 18–24 age group and the youngest age group (p = ,044).

As can be seen from the results of the one-way ANOVA presented in Table 36, the respondents belonging to the oldest age group want to get more information about economic responsibility in the future than all the respondents in the other age groups (M = 3,73). The least information about economic responsibility is wanted in the future by the respondents in the 25–34 age group (M = 3,14) and the respondents in the 18–24 age group (M = 3,25). For the other dimensions of food chain CR, the one-way ANOVA with post hoc test did not produce statistically significant differences between different age groups.

6.3.4 Summary of the survey results

Consumers' perceptions of food chain CR have been previously studied during a research project carried out in 2009 by Agrifood Research Finland and Finland's National Consumer Research Center. During this project it was noted that the importance of the different food chain CR dimensions depends on the consumer's perspective. The three possible perspectives identified were consumer as the user of the product, the social or global perspective, and the corporate operations perspective. Consumers were seen to perceive as more important those dimensions that were linked with either themselves or society.

However, the dimensions linked with corporate operations were perceived as less important (Forsman-Hugg et al., 2009).

These results of the consumer survey used as data for this study match, to some extent, the results of previous studies (Piiroinen & Järvelä, 2006; Kotro et al., 2011; Peltoniemi & Yrjölä, 2012; Banterle et al., 2013) showing that consumers view product safety and nutritional responsibility as the most important dimensions of food chain CR. This is because these dimensions may influence directly the consumer's own wellbeing and indicate the healthiness of food. The results of the survey show that the survey respondents certainly seem to be most interested in those dimensions of CR that are relevant to either themselves or society instead of those dimensions that are relevant to the internal operations of companies.

The results of the consumer survey indicate that consumers want to be informed about those dimensions that are concrete and close to them. Consumers seem to want information about those dimensions of CR that are relevant to either themselves or the society instead of those dimensions that are relevant to the internal operations of companies. Moreover, the results indicate that although consumers seem to receive information about nutritional responsibility and product safety that are of interest to them, considerably less information is received about animal health and welfare as well as about environmental responsibility, which are also important to consumers at the moment.

The results of the survey also suggest that local market presence and economic responsibility were ranked as the least important CR dimensions. Local market presence may remain an abstract and overly broad concept to consumers. In addition, the content and benefits of local market presence may remain vague to the consumers in relation to their everyday food choices (Rikkonen et al., 2013).

The results of this research also show that the biospheric themes of animal health and welfare as well as environmental responsibility were viewed to be of a slightly greater importance than nutritional responsibility. Animal welfare and environmental responsibility are dimensions that especially consumers with strong biospheric value orientations have knowledge about and consider important. In addition, previous research has indicated that consumers may perceive the high level of animal welfare as an indicator of food safety and quality. It is also socially acceptable and desirable to be concerned about animal health and welfare issues as well as the treatment of animals in food production (Harper & Makatouni, 2002; Maloni & Brown, 2006).

In Table 39, the dimensions of food chain CR that the consumers consider important are grouped under the three perspectives identified in previous research introduced in section 3.3, but also under the three value orientations influencing sustainable consumer behaviour introduced in section 2.1.2, hence the addition of the biospheric value orientation to the table. The dimensions that are closest to the consumer's own wellbeing (i.e. related to the egoistic value orientation) are product safety and nutritional responsibility. Related to

the altruistic value orientation and the best interest of the others and society are occupational welfare and local market presence (Heikkurinen et al., 2012).

In addition to the aforementioned three possible consumer perspectives (i.e. consumer as the user of the product, social perspective, and corporate operations perspective), the biospheric value orientation should be added as one additional perspective. Environmental responsibility and animal health and welfare are, after all, concerned with the best interest of the planet and animals. For consumers to appreciate that and perceive it as important requires, to some extent, the biospheric value orientation. However, one should bear in mind that, in reality, the classification is never this straightforward, since people may be interested in, for example, product safety because they are concerned for the wellbeing of their family members, that is, they have an altruistic motive rather than an egoistic one.

Moreover, the corporate operations perspective contains the economic responsibility dimension, which is very much internal to the corporations and not necessarily visible to the consumers during, for instance, daily grocery shopping, and thus consumers may feel that this dimension is not of interest to them (Forsman-Hugg et al., 2009; Heikkurinen et al., 2012). This dimension representing the corporate operations perspective cannot therefore be grouped under the three value orientations, but is presented in Table 39 in its own category.

TABLE 39 Food chain CR dimensions: three perspectives and three value orientations

Value orientation			
Egoistic → consumer as the user of product	**Altruistic → social perspective**	**Biospheric**	**Corporate operations perspective**
Product safety	Occupational welfare	Environmental responsibility	Economic responsibility
Nutritional responsibility	Local market presence	Animal health and welfare	

A rather surprising finding of this research was that the survey respondents ranked occupational welfare higher than local market presence both at the moment as well as in the future, although occupational welfare might be viewed as a dimension that has no apparent and direct connection to the consumer's personal wellbeing, especially if the consumer is not working in the food producing industry.

In terms of the information wants of consumers about sustainability or CR issues, it can be concluded that, in general, consumers become active and their involvement increases when a problem or issue is of importance to them (Heath and Douglas, 1990). Moreover, stakeholders, consumers included, have started to pay an increasing amount of attention to corporate responsibility issues and companies are obliged to communicate about their CR actions (Morsing & Schultz, 2006b; Du et al., 2010; Kotler, 2011). When examining what dimensions

of food chain CR the survey respondents want to be informed about, they seem to want information about those dimensions of food chain CR that are close to them and related to the egoistic value orientation, as was discussed previously in this section.

When considering what dimensions of CR the survey respondents want to be informed about, the egoistic, altruistic and biospheric value orientations can also be used to explain the information wants of consumers. Product safety and nutritional responsibility are directly linked to consumers as the users of the products. These dimensions, therefore, are of a great interest to the consumer and are directly linked to their wellbeing. As can be seen from the results of the survey, there already seems to be a considerable amount of information available on product safety and nutritional responsibility, but it is important to inform consumers about them also in the future.

Local market presence, environmental responsibility and animal health and welfare are dimensions that represent the altruistic and biospheric value orientations. As the results of the survey indicate, these dimensions are important to the survey respondents at the moment as well as in the future and information about them is wanted. However, the dimensions linked with personal health and wellbeing were still perceived as more important.

The results of this research indicate that the least important and interesting dimensions to the consumers are those connected to the internal operations of corporations. Consumers are considerably less interested in economic responsibility and occupational health and welfare, since they may be perceived as something that consumers have no impact on and they do not affect the consumers' own wellbeing. Although a rather broad definition of economic responsibility had been given to the survey respondents,[3] it may be that the survey respondents feel economic responsibility equals the profitability of the food producing companies. The assumption may be that food producing companies and other food chain actors will always take care of their economic responsibility (i.e. their profitability) come what may, and the consumers therefore need take no interest in it.

According to the results of the online survey, the survey respondents feel that they receive quite little information about all the dimensions of food chain CR at the moment, in particular about product safety, nutritional responsibility and local market presence. They would like to get a great deal more information about all seven food chain CR dimensions in the future. These results match the results of previous studies that have shown that consumers view product safety and nutritional responsibility as the most important dimensions of food chain CR. These dimensions were seen as being the corporations' responsibility and communication about them was perceived as both important as well as interesting (Forsman-Hugg et al., 2009).

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3 Economic responsibility means paying reasonable wages to employees, supporting non-profit organisations, taking care of profitability and continuity and protection from market risks and price risks.

This may be explained by the Finnish consumers' increasing interest in CR and sustainability issues, which can be seen in Peltoniemi and Yrjölä (2012). Their results, presented in more detail in section 3.4, show that consumers place a greater importance on Fairtrade, animal welfare and on the local as well as the organic origin of food when compared with the results of the survey from 2005.

Another possible explanation is that, in general, consumers want to be informed about issues that are relevant for them, such as product safety and nutrition. Moreover, consumers may have become more aware of animal welfare issues and environmental problems related to food production, and they feel that they want food chain actors to do their bit in both environmental protection as well as trying to provide the industrial animals as good a life as possible.

The results of the online survey concerning the information wants of consumers can also, to some extent, be explained with the three different perspectives towards food chain CR introduced in section 3.3. Product safety and nutritional responsibility are directly linked to the consumer as the user of the product. These dimensions are, therefore, of great interest to consumers and directly linked to their wellbeing. The results indicate that, although the respondents seem to get a reasonable amount of information about product safety and nutritional responsibility, it is important to inform consumers about them also in the future, since these dimensions are important for consumers.

When looking at the statistical analysis of the significance of the means presented in section 6.3.1 and 6.3.2, the results of this research are in accord with previous studies indicating that women are more interested in sustainability than men are. The results of this research also support the idea that women are more interested in the dimensions of food chain CR then men are. The female respondents of the survey were consistently more interested in the different dimensions of food chain CR and wanted to receive more information about them than did the male respondents of the survey. As mentioned in the literature review, women have been shown to be more altruistic in their consumer behaviour the men. The results of this study support this statement, since the female respondents of the survey showed significantly greater interest in all dimensions of food chain CR then men did.

Especially notable differences between genders can be seen in how important animal welfare and local market presence occupational welfare, environmental responsibility and nutritional responsibility are perceived to be, whereas for product safety the differences between genders are less notable. However, the food chain CR dimensions are, nevertheless, not completely unimportant for the male respondents either, since the mean for all dimensions is either very close to 4 or well above 4 on a 5-point Likert scale.

When looking at the information wants, the female respondents would like to have more information about food chain CR dimensions than the male respondents do. However, it is worth noting that, overall, both male and female

respondents feel that they would like to receive a significant amount of information about the dimensions of food chain CR dimensions in the future.

As for the relationship between age and the interest in the dimensions of food chain CR, it can be concluded that the findings of this research are in agreement with the findings of previous research discussed in Chapter 5.7. The findings of this previous research (e.g. Stern & Dietz, 1994; D'Souza et al., 2007; Haanpää, 2007; Banyte et al., 2010) indicate that the middle-aged and the elderly are more interested in sustainable consumption, whereas the younger consumers are less interested in consuming in a sustainable manner. The results of the one-way ANOVA showed that there are statistically significant differences in how important the respondents belonging to the different age groups perceive the seven dimensions of food chain CR to be and how much they want to be informed about them.

However, not all seven dimensions produced statistically significant results. For the importance of the food chain CR dimensions at the moment statistically significant differences between the age groups were found for occupational welfare, nutritional responsibility, and economic responsibility; and these dimensions were more important for the respondents in the older age groups then for the younger ones. However, the dimensions of food chain CR were not unimportant for the younger respondents either.

As for the importance of the food chain CR dimensions in the future, statistically significant differences between the age groups were found for occupational welfare, product safety, nutritional responsibility and economic responsibility. However, the results of the multiple comparisons indicated that there were no statistically significant differences between the different age groups when looking at how important it is for the Finnish food chain to concentrate on occupational welfare in the future.

Statistically significant differences between age groups were found for product safety, nutritional responsibility and economic responsibility. For all these dimensions, once again, the biggest differences were between the youngest and the oldest age groups, with the respondents in the older age groups regarding the above-mentioned dimensions of food chain CR as more important than the younger respondents did.

When examining how much information the survey respondents feel that they are getting at the moment about the dimensions of food chain CR, the one-way ANOVA showed statistically significant differences between the age groups for occupational welfare and nutritional responsibility. The results of the multiple comparisons indicate that the respondents in the oldest age group feel that they are getting somewhat less information about nutritional responsibility than the respondents in the 25–34 age group do. As for the occupational welfare, the respondents belonging to the oldest age group seemed to be getting more information about it at the moment than the respondents in the other age groups and the respondents in the two youngest age groups seemed to be getting the least information about occupational welfare at the moment. Overall, it could be concluded that the survey

respondents of all ages seem to feel that they are not getting too much information about the seven dimensions of food chain CR at the moment.

When looking at the results for the one-way ANOVA of the information wants in the future, statistically significant differences were found between the age groups for occupational welfare, product safety, and economic responsibility. The results of the multiple comparisons indicate that the respondents belonging to the oldest age group want to get more information about economic responsibility in the future than all the respondents in the other age groups do. The least information about economic responsibility is wanted in the future by the respondents in the 25–34 age group and the respondents in the 18–24 age group. However, all in all, the results of the one-way ANOVA indicate that respondents in all age groups do want to be informed about all seven dimensions of food chain CR in the future, since the means for all dimensions were either very close to 4 or well above 4 on a 5-point Likert scale.

6.4 Consumer perceptions of communication channels used to inform consumers about sustainably produced food

In this section, the results concerning the different communications channels from both the focus group research as well as the results of the online survey are presented.

6.4.1 Communication channels: results from the focus groups

In terms of the different actors in the food supply chain and their responsibilities when promoting sustainably produced food products, clear responsibilities could be found. The results of the analysis of the data are illustrated in Table 40. The table shows the different actors of the food supply chain that were identified to have the possibility and the ability to promote sustainable consumption by informing consumers about sustainably produced food. In addition, the table depicts the different instruments of marketing communications that the different actors in the food supply chain use. For clarity, the different means of promotion and marketing communications identified from the data are named in the same manner as they are named in the marketing literature (e.g. Pickton & Broderick, 2005; De Pelsmacker et al., 2007; Hackley, 2010), although the focus group participants did not use these names during the discussions. The empty parts of the table signify that nothing was found from the focus group data concerning the combination of marketing communication instruments and supply chain actors.

TABLE 40 Marketing communication instruments and the supply chain actors

Marketing communication instruments ↓	**Supply chain actors →**	**Agricultural producers**	**Food processing industry**	**Food retailers**
Advertising		-Announcements in newspapers		
Sales promotions			- Distributing samples of sustainably produced products together with information leaflets	- Theme days in stores: tasting and sampling of foods - Producers invited to tell about products - Special offers
Personal selling		- Farmer's markets - Market halls, - Door to door selling - direct contact from consumer		- Agricultural producers coming to supermarkets to sell their products
Point-of-purchase communications (labels, packaging			- Packaging containing information about sustainability (e.g. about animal welfare or what Fair Trade is)	- Separate areas in stores for organic, locally produced and Fairtrade products - Information about environmental and ethical labels in stores - Sustainably produced products clearly indicated - Sales-people who know about the products
E-communications				- Online food stores with a large assortment of sustainably produced products

The focus group participants were not explicitly asked to discuss how appealing or reliable the different communication channels are. However, they were instructed to discuss their views on the factors that influence their buying behaviour of sustainably produced food products, so the focus group participants did discuss their perceptions of different communication channels and their effectiveness in providing consumers with information about sustainably produced food. Next the examples from the focus group data are used to illustrate the focus group participants' perceptions of the different

communication channels used to communicate about sustainably produced food.

Based on the data it can be stated that consumers feel that the food retailers have the main responsibility for informing consumers about sustainably produced food. Point-of-purchase communication (e.g. product packaging, ecolabels and leaflets distributed in the grocery store) was thought to be effective and a convenient communication channel. In addition, the focus group participants highlighted the need for sustainable food products to be clearly indicated in stores as well as the importance of having dedicated shelves and departments for sustainably produced food so that they could be easily located in the stores. The information should be clear and available at the point-of-purchase, as was stated by several focus group participants:

"Retailers should offer all kinds of products, but indicate clearly which products are the alternative (i.e. sustainable) food products." (respondent 4, woman, in her twenties)

"Organic and other alternative products should be easily found in stores. There could be own departments for organic products in stores." (respondent 15, woman, in her twenties)

"Of course some stores advertise organic products so that they mark the shelves of organic products with bigger labels saying that the products are organic. I tend to look through these shelves to see if there are any good products. So, yes it's good that those products stand out on the shelves." (respondent 3, man, in his twenties)

Since the retailers have a big role in deciding what sustainable products are available and how they are marketed, the focus group participants stated that the retailers could use their power to enhance the visibility and sales of sustainably produced products by organising special offer campaigns and theme days.

"Organic products could be more often on offer in stores. You see very seldom that there is a discount on organic products. Even a small discount would make the products more appealing to consumers." (respondent 4, woman, in her twenties)

"Stores should organise theme days to promote sustainably produced food, for example Fairtrade days." (respondent 18, woman in her twenties)

Information that is available at retail stores was trusted more than information coming from agricultural producers or sellers at the farmers' market, as respondent 18 stated:

"If it says "Organic" on the product, I trust it. I think that we can still trust the retailers that they really sell what they claim to sell." (respondent 16, woman, in her fifties)

"A big store cannot say that they are selling conventional products as organic products, but at the farmer's market you can never be sure." (respondent 10, woman, in her fifties)

However, not all respondents perceived the retailer as a trustworthy communication channel for information about organic as can be seen from the comment by respondent 18.

"Once my friend and I started to look in a store for a product that was labelled organic by the retailer, but we noticed that it really wasn't certified organic." (respondent 18, woman, in her twenties)

In addition, separate sections or departments for sustainably produced food were not unconditionally thought to be a good way for making sustainably produced foods more conveniently available or for differentiating them from conventional food products as can be seen from the quote by respondent 1:

"Separating all the organic or Fairtrade products into their own corner would not work. For some people it might be that if you are seen going into that corner you might be stigmatised. Imagine if your neighbour sees you buying the tree huggers' carrots…" (respondent 1, man, in his thirties)

The internet and other electronic communication channels were not discussed in detail in the focus groups. However, the convenience of grocery shopping was valued by many of the focus group participants and online stores were mentioned as a possibility for making sustainably produced foods more available and raising consumer awareness about these alternative foods. Respondent 7 brainstormed about an ideal online grocery store:

"It would be great if there would be an online grocery store from which you could order organic, locally produced and Fairtrade food products and have them delivered to your home. You could see the special offers of today just with one click, and when you would place the order the products would be carefully selected and even the organic tomatoes would be flawless." (respondent 7, woman in her forties)

Agricultural producers were also thought to be key players in informing consumers about sustainably produced food and sustainable food consumption, since both the participants of the focus group discussions as well as the survey respondents valued direct contact with the food producers, for instance at a farmer's market, as a reliable source of product information. This demonstrates the importance of the relationship between consumers and food producers in the alternative food supply chains, as is illustrated by a quote from respondent 17 of the focus group discussions:

"We always buy from the same farmer at the farmer's market and we have done that for many years. I trust him and the products he sells." (respondent 17, woman, in her fifties)

The focus group participants said that in order to reach the consumers, agricultural producers should use traditional communication channels such as newspaper advertisements and door-to-door sales as stated by respondents 8 and 9. Personal selling was also valued at the farmer's market, as suggested by respondent 17. According to respondent 19, buying directly from the farm was also perceived as a good way to get information about the products.

"Berry farmers could put advertisements in local newspapers so that people would know when to go and pick the berries." (respondent 9, woman, in her forties)

"It would be great to have farmers and fishermen come to your door to sell their products. Once a fisherman came to my door to sell vendace and they were really fresh and good!" (respondent 8, man, in his forties)

"I know the farms from which I buy products and I can trust them." (respondent 19, woman, in her fifties)

According to previous research (e.g. Kollmuss & Agyeman, 2002; De Pelsmacker et al., 2003; Bjørner et al., 2004; D'Souza, 2004; D'Souza et al., 2006; Vermeir & Verbeke, 2006; Karstens & Belz, 2006; Belz & Peattie, 2009), sustainability labels are one of the most widely used marketing communication instruments when informing consumers about sustainably produced products. The results from the focus group data indicate that the participants did not perceive environmental or ethical labels as an effective means of motivating sustainable consumption or informing consumers about sustainably produced food products.

The results of the focus group research indicate that other marketing communications instruments may be more effective than labels. The findings from the focus group data corroborate the findings of previous research where labels have been found to be confusing, since there are far too many of them at the moment and difficulties were also experienced when trying to find out what the environmental and ethical labels mean (Thøgersen, 2000; de Boer, 2003; D'Souza, 2004; Polonsky, 2011; Stanieri et al., 2010; Umpfenbach et al., 2014), focus group respondent 5 explains:

"There are millions of all kinds of labels. What is homegrown and what is environmentally friendly and what is fair…It's really confusing and it's impossible to be on the ball about what the labels mean." (respondent 5, man in his fifties)

However, the younger focus group participants seemed less apprehensive about labels. Still, it should be noted that in order for the label to be an effective means of communication, consumers should know what the label means. In order to make the meaning of the various labels more widely known, the labels should also be marketed, as respondent 15 illustrates:

"And, for example, the Fairtrade label, you would think that almost every Finn knows it and knows the basic idea behind it. The Fairtrade label has been advertised and the advertising has had positive impact, because more people know the label." (respondent 15, woman in her twenties)

The food producing industry was also thought to have a role in informing consumers about sustainably produced food. The concrete way for the food producing industry to promote the consumption of sustainably produced food was to make it less risky and more appealing for the consumers to test sustainably produced food products. According to the focus group participants, this could be done by sales promotions at the point of purchase by distributing samples of sustainably produced products and possibly giving out informational leaflets together with the product samples, as stated by respondents 15 and 16:

"When I started my studies we got a small sample of Fairtrade coffee and an info leaflet about Fairtrade. (…) I think that this kind of advertising may have an influence on those who have not previously used Fairtrade products." (respondent 15, woman, in her twenties)

"If there would be possibilities to taste the products in the store people might be willing to buy them when they know the taste is good." (respondent 16, woman in her fifties)

Although consumers were not perceived to be responsible for informing each other about sustainably produced food, they were not seen as completely passive supply chain actors either. Consumers were said to be able to promote the consumption of sustainably produced food by organising organic food circles through which consumers can order organic and/or locally produced foods directly from the producers. These food circles are a perfect example of the so-called alternative or short supply chains where emphasis is put on the relationship between consumers and food producers by giving consumers information about the origins and production methods of the food products (Marsden et al., 2000). One of the focus group participants (respondent 15) had very positive experiences of the food circle organised by the student union volunteers, which offers the possibility to obtain organic and locally produced food conveniently and at an affordable price.

"So, somehow, it has felt good. It is also affordable to order through the Organic Food Circle. The food comes from nearby municipalities. And all that is added is a delivery fee of 40 cents." (respondent 15, woman, in her twenties)

During the focus group discussions it was also brought up that the retailers should find out about the local food producers and establish contracts with them, thus increasing the assortment of locally produced and possibly organic food products in the stores. Cooperation between retailers and local agricultural producers was seen as one way to successfully promote locally produced food. This would also benefit the consumer, since it would be easier to know where your food comes from, as respondent 19 says:

"Well, it's the cooperation. Retailers should start to find out who produces what in the areas nearby, establish contacts with them and then use these contacts to get locally produced food to stores. The origin of the products could be shown with a label in the store; this product is from Laukaa, or Kangasniemi. People would buy, I'm sure, when they would see where the product comes from." (respondent 19, woman, in her fifties)

Cooperation between agricultural producers and retailers was also mentioned as one way to get sustainably produced food products more conveniently available at grocery stores. However, it was acknowledged that it is rather challenging for the small-scale producers of organic or locally produced food to manage to get their products to the retailers via the large wholesale businesses. One of the focus group participants gave the following suggestion for solving this problem:

"Small-scale producers of organic and locally produced food should unite and form networks in order to increase the availability of these foods." (respondent 8, man, in his forties)

In addition, it was stated that the retailers should not offer the consumer various choices but rather decide for them what they can purchase by limiting the food product range to only sustainably produced products. One of the focus group participants rationalises this by saying:

"By limiting the assortment only to sustainably produced products, they can guide the consumers and advertise themselves as a store that sells only locally produced, organic or Fairtrade food products." (respondent 1, man, in his thirties)

Despite the fact that NGOs and the government are usually argued to have a major role in influencing consumer behaviour and promoting sustainable consumption (Schaefer & Crane, 2005; Wheale & Hinton, 2007: Schrader & Thøgersen, 2011), the focus group participants did not mention NGOs or civil society as important actors when promoting sustainable consumption by informing about sustainably produced food. NGOs such as Finfood, whose responsibility it is to market certified organic food products in Finland, were briefly mentioned, but they were not seen as important promoters of sustainably produced food or sustainable consumption.

"There should be a list of organic and local farmers online so that consumers could find one from their area." (respondent 8, man in his forties)

Only advertising was perceived as being a negative phenomenon, since it was experienced to be irritating, associated with manipulation and promotion of uncontrollable consumption as well as increasing the price of the product. The perception of advertising as unappealing and even as the complete opposite of objective information was brought up by several focus group participants:

"Advertising is not needed, only no-nonsense information." (respondent 2, woman, in her forties)

Not all focus group participants perceived advertising as something bad, since it all depends on to whom it is targeted:

"I think that nowadays advertising is used to inform young people. (…) I think that this kind of advertising may have an influence on those who have not previously used Fairtrade products." (respondent 15, woman, in her twenties)

However, some of the focus group participants also admitted that they have not seen advertising of sustainably produced food:

"I've never seen any advertisements for organic products. Perhaps they are advertised in some special trade journals." (respondent 1, man, in his thirties)

6.4.2 Communication channels: results from the online survey

The online survey respondents were asked about their perceptions of the different communication channels used to communicate food chain CR in terms of how appealing and reliable they are. The respondents were given 15 alternatives out of which they were to choose the three most appealing and most reliable communication channels. The available alternatives included the following: product packaging, labels,[4] leaflets and other material distributed in grocery stores, contact with company representatives, contact with agricultural producers, websites of food producing companies, company reports, information published by NGOs, bulletins and websites of food agencies, publications and websites of research institutes, mobile applications, social media, news in media, advertisements on TV and radio as well as in magazines and newspapers, and word of mouth.

These communication channels were chosen in order to provide the respondents a comprehensive assortment of both company-controlled and independent communication channels that have, according to the previous research presented in more detail in section 4.2, been used for communicating CR to consumers (Pomering & Dolnicar, 2009; Du et al., 2010). These communication channels include official documents such as CR- and annual reports, press releases and dedicating a section of the corporate website to CR. In addition to these, print and TV commercials and billboards can be used to communicate CR efforts to consumers. (Du et al., 2010) In addition to these channels, point-of-purchase communication such as leaflets distributed in the grocery stores and product packaging (Dawkins, 2005; Collins et al., 2007; Khosro et al., 2009;) as well as informal communication channels (Du et al., 2010; Kotler, 2011) were included in the answer options of the survey.

In addition, the respondents were given the possibility to name some other communication channel alternative or state that they cannot choose. The differences between men and women are presented, since clear differences between gender as to what communication channels are appealing and reliable emerged from the data.

As shown in Figure 19 below, the majority of the respondents consider product packages and labelling as the most appealing means of CR communication. This is in line with the results of previous research claiming that when being informed about sustainability issues consumers tend to prefer marketing sources that are conveniently available at the point of purchase, such as labels or other information on product packaging (Jones et al., 2007; McDonald et al., 2009; Umpfenbach et al., 2014). However, the findings of the current study do not support the previous research (McDonald et al., 2009; Du et al., 2010; Kotler, 2011) with regards to consumer preference of informal information sources, such as word of mouth and social media. Based on the

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4 In this research ecolabels are considered to be communication channels,[4] since labels disseminate verified, product-level information with the help of symbols and claims related to the type of sustainability a product has to offer (D'Souza, Taghian & Lamb, 2006; Delmas & Burbano, 2011).

results of this research, rather surprisingly, social media or word of mouth was not perceived as an appealing means of communication for receiving information on food chain CR whereas leaflets distributed in grocery stores were thought to be an appealing means of communication.

In addition, company reports were perceived as less appealing than, for example, the websites of food producing companies and direct contact with a company representative or agricultural producer. On the one hand these results agree with the findings of other studies in which company reports are more suitable for addressing experts in the CR field, such as researchers, reporters and authorities (Hedberg & von Malmborg, 2003; Dawkins, 2005; Farneti & Guthrie, 2009; Spence, 2009; Halme & Joutsenvirta, 2011). However, on the other hand, a somewhat unanticipated finding was that NGOs as well as other independent, seemingly objective communication channels, such as the bulletins and websites of food agencies as well as publications by research institutes, were perceived as less appealing than marketer-controlled channels, such as product packaging. This is somewhat contrary to the findings of previous research stating that NGOs and research institutions are in a key role in providing free, transparent and credible information about both sustainable as well as healthy food choices (Verbeke, 2008; Hartmann, 2011).

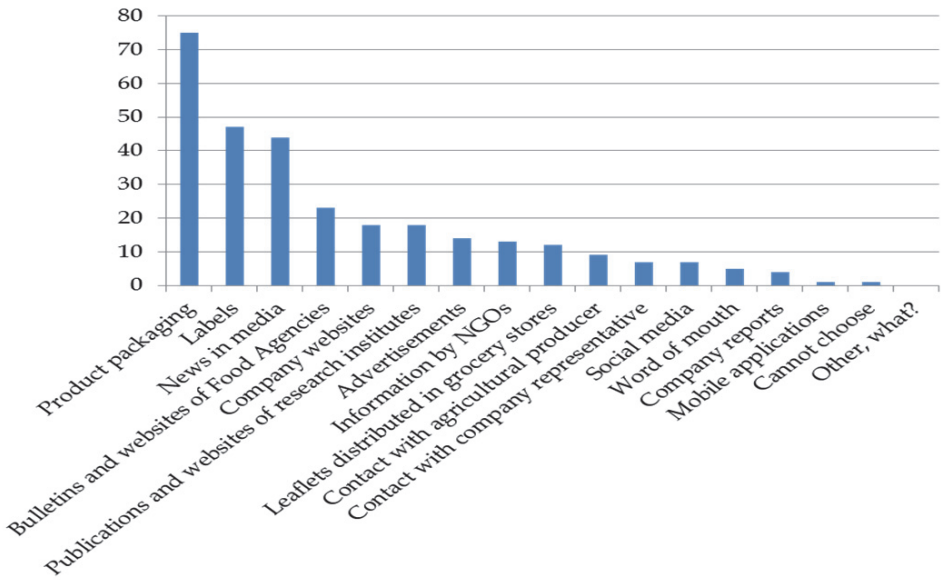

FIGURE 19 Appealing communication channels for receiving CR information (all respondents)

As Figure 20 indicates, women prefer labels more than men do whereas men find the bulletins and websites of food agencies and the websites of food

producing companies more appealing than women do. Men also seem to prefer direct contact with either company representatives or agricultural producers more than women do.

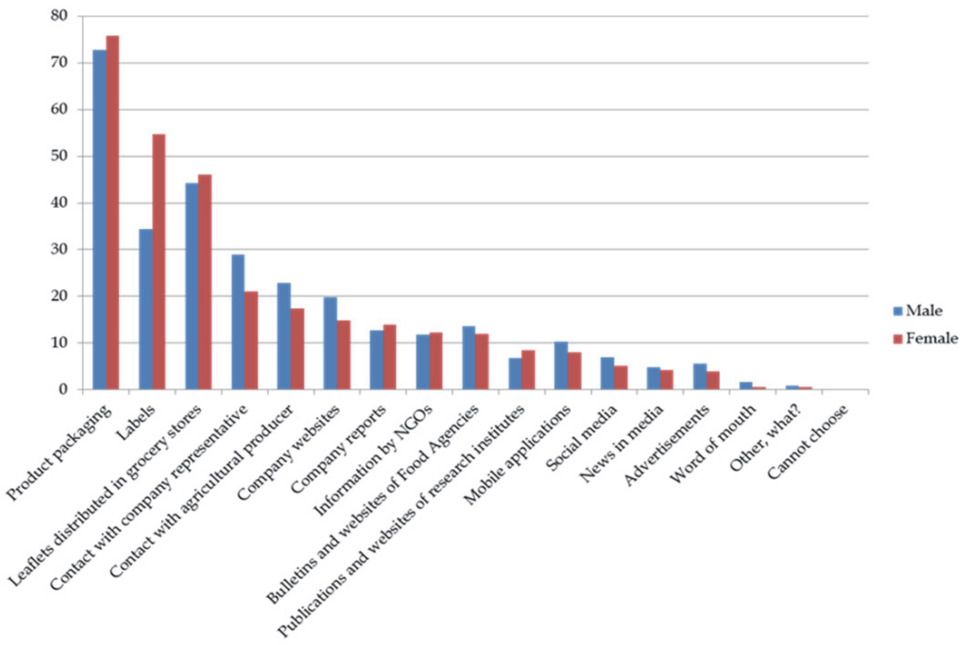

FIGURE 20 Appealing communication channels for receiving CR information (by gender)

As shown in Figure 21, in terms of reliability, advertisements and the websites of food producing companies were considered the least reliable communication channels. These results match those observed in earlier studies showing that consumers tend to be sceptical towards advertising (Obermiller & Spangenberg, 1998; Maignan & Ferrel, 2001). The most reliable communication channels were the bulletins and websites of food agencies as well as the publications and websites of research institutes followed by the point of purchase channels of labels and product packaging.

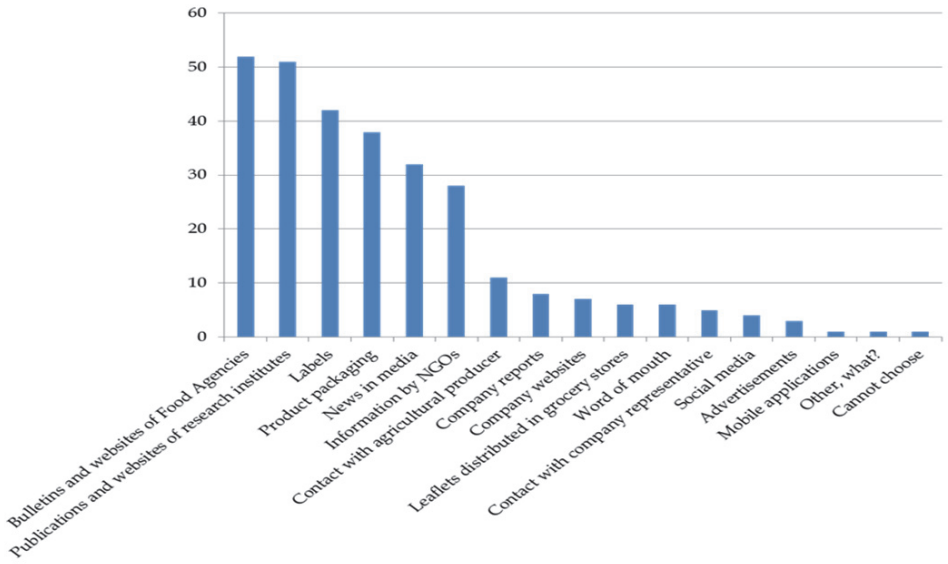

FIGURE 21 Most reliable communication channels for receiving CR information (all respondents)

Product packaging and labels were considered to be reliable in addition to being appealing and they therefore seem to be good communication channels for food chain CR information. This finding highlights the key role of retailers and food producers, which has also been identified in previous studies (Bhaskaran et al., 2006; Duffy et al., 2005; Jones et al., 2009; Kottila, 2009; Marsden et al., 1998; Morsing & Schultz, 2006; Picket-Baker & Ozaki, 2008) in empowering consumers to make more sustainable food choices by giving them sustainable choice options that are clearly indicated by a label and making the information conveniently available at the point of purchase on the product packaging. Based on the results of this research, access to clear, reliable information that is conveniently available can be an important factor when making a purchase decision, since credible information about the product can help increase consumers' trust in the credence attributes of the product (Karstens & Belz, 2006; Belz & Schmidt-Riediger, 2010).

Although NGOs as well as other independent, seemingly objective communication channels were perceived as less appealing than marketer-controlled channels, such as product packaging, these independent communication channels were, nevertheless, perceived to be reliable. This finding is in line with the findings of previous research stating that NGOs and research institutions play a key role in providing free, transparent and credible information about both sustainable as well as healthy food choices (Verbeke, 2008; Hartmann, 2011).

The findings of previous research have claimed that if consumers feel the available information cannot be trusted, they may, instead of official information (e.g. labels), resort to social information, that is, look to other

people for an indication about desired behaviour and using word of mouth as an information source (Vermeir & Verbeke, 2006; Umpfenbach et al., 2014). Contrary to this, the findings of this research do not indicate that the survey respondents either trust or prefer word of mouth more than official and marketer-controlled information sources, as can be seen from Figures 19 and 21.

According to previous research, labelling has a crucial role in marketing food and other fast moving consumer goods (Belz & Peattie, 2009; McDonald et al., 2009; Belz & Schmidt-Riediger, 2010; Banterle et al., 2013). This is also visible in the findings of this current research, since the survey respondents perceive labels as both appealing as well as rather reliable channels for communicating food chain CR.

As indicated in Figure 22, there are gender differences. The most striking result to emerge from the data is that women find labels and information published by NGOs to be much more reliable than men do. Once again, men seem to find personal contact with either company representatives or agricultural producers more reliable than women do.

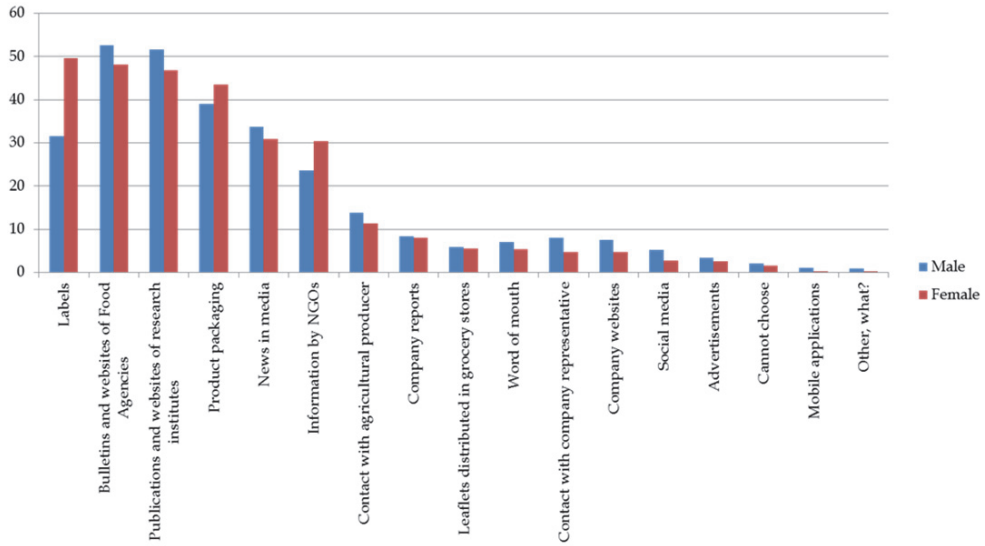

FIGURE 22 Most reliable communication channels for receiving CR information (by gender)

Moreover, it is worth noting that the communication channels that are the most appealing to consumers (see Figure 18) are not perceived as the most reliable ones and vice versa.

6.4.3 Summary of focus group and survey data: communication channels

Although it has been shown that the most effective sources of information tend to be personal (Kotler & Armstrong, 2012), and that communication channels not directly controlled by the corporation are said to be in a key role in CR

communication (Pomering & Dolnicar, 2009; Du et al., 2010), the findings of this research indicate that the significance of both third party communication channels, media coverage and company or marketer-controlled communication channels should not be entirely forgotten when informing consumers about issues related to sustainability or CR.

Another important finding of this study is that those marketing communications instruments that involve either personal contact with the seller, concrete experiences of the product, (e.g. sampling the food product), or take place at the point-of-purchase may be rather effective in trying to persuade consumers to change their habitual behaviour and perhaps try a new, more sustainable food product alternative.

Furthermore, there are the results of this current study regarding what consumers' perceptions are of the different communication channels used to inform consumers about sustainably produced food products. The results from the focus group study seem to be consistent with the findings of previous research that highlights the focal role of retailers and information within the food supply chain. Retailers and especially supermarket chains are significant promoters of food, whether sustainably produced or conventional, since they reach a large number of consumers due to the fact that in the Western countries supermarkets are the main place to do grocery shopping for many consumers (Lindgreen et al., 2009; Belz & Schmidt-Riediger, 2010; Grunert, 2011). Retailers may, therefore, motivate sustainable consumption by providing information in the form of marketing communications to consumers, as the focus group participants suggested.

In addition to the major role of the retailers, agricultural producers were also thought to be active actors in the supply chain of sustainably produced food products, since farmers' markets and direct contact with the agricultural producers were valued as a source of product information. This demonstrates the importance of the relationship between consumers and food producers in the supply chains of alternative (i.e. more sustainable) food.

Although sustainability labels are one of the most widely used marketing communication instruments when informing consumers about sustainably produced products (Belz & Peattie, 2009; McDonald et al., 2009; Belz & Schmidt-Riediger, 2010), the results of the focus group study indicate that consumers perceive other marketing communications instruments to be far more effective than labels. Labels were found to be confusing because there are currently far too many of them and difficulties were also experienced when trying to find out what the environmental and ethical labels mean. However, in the online survey, labels were perceived as both appealing as well as reliable and this was the main difference between the findings from the focus groups and from the online survey. The result of the online survey may be explained by convenience. Consumers may interpret labels as a sign that the product is generally acceptable or somehow of better quality than similar products without the label (Golan, 2000; De Boer, 2003; D'Souza 2004; Bhaskaran et al., 2006), even though the actual message of the label might remain unclear.

The convenience of finding information about sustainably produced product alternatives was perceived to be important for the focus group participants. During the discussions many participants stated that they have no time to look for information and it should, therefore, be readily available at the point of purchase. The convenient availability of information may also explain the fact that the survey respondents considered product packaging to be reliable as well as appealing communication channels for food chain CR information. The fact that product packaging was considered to be both appealing and reliable is an interesting finding, since the information on them is very much controlled and decided by the food producing companies and the results of previous research have indicated that consumers tend to trust the information coming from food producing companies less than information coming from, at least seemingly objective, third party sources, such as NGOs, food safety authorities and research institutions.

The information on product packages and provided by labels may be appealing because it is in a sufficiently simple format, assuming the meaning of the label and packaging information is understood. In this the results from the survey are similar to the findings from the focus group data, since point of purchase communication, apart from labels, was also discussed in the focus groups and perceived as an effective means for communicating about sustainably produced food.

The results of the focus group research indicate that those marketing communications instruments that involve personal contact with the seller, concrete experiences of the product (e.g. sampling the food product), or which take place at the point-of-purchase were the ones that the focus group participants found to be most effective when informing consumers about sustainably produced food. Similar results were also visible in the online survey, where contact with the agricultural producers and company representatives were perceived as an appealing, albeit unreliable, means of obtaining CR information, since it is very convenient to be able to ask about the products and the company straight from its representative or food producer at a grocery store or a farmer's market. It should also be noted that since the bulletins and websites of food agencies and publications and websites of research institutes are perceived as a reliable communication channel, companies should actively seek to be mentioned in these channels and thus receive reliable publicity for their CR endeavours.

Another finding from both the focus group data as well as from the survey data was that advertising in the mass media – such as TV, radio or print advertising – was not perceived to be an effective means of delivering information. These results are, to a great extent, explained by the fact that, due to the credence nature of most CR claims, information coming directly from the company itself may be targeted with greater scepticism than information coming from unbiased sources, as stated in previous research by Pomering and Dolnicar (2009).

To some extent the results produced by the online survey corroborate the findings of previous work in this field. As stated in Chapter 4, consumers are indeed interested in CR and want and expect to be informed about it (Carrigan & Attalla, 2001; Dawkins, 2004; Pomering & Dolnicar, 2009). In addition, the results of this research are, to some extent, consistent with those of other studies and suggest that labels are an appealing and practical communication channel for CR information (Belz & Peattie, 2009; McDonald et al., 2009; Belz & Schmidt-Riediger, 2010; Banterle et al., 2013). Especially noteworthy, among the findings from the consumer survey, is the popularity of labels among the women. However, it is interesting to note that men seem to prefer the internet and direct contact with agricultural producers and company representatives as sources of CR information, although they do not find them reliable.

In contrast to earlier findings from Morsing and Schultz (2006), presented in section 4.5, the respondents of this study's online survey are not in favour of inconspicuous CR communication and the so-called minimal releases, such as CR reports, are not the most appealing or reliable communication channel for CR communication. On the contrary, the survey respondents seem to prefer and trust more product packaging that is essentially a company-controlled communication channel.

However, the need for unbiased information is visible, since both men and women respondents of the survey tend to trust and find rather appealing the non-corporate communication channels, such as information published by NGOs, media coverage, the bulletins and websites of food agencies, and the publications and websites of research institutes. Another surprising finding was the fact that both social media and word of mouth were perceived as neither appealing nor reliable. Although previous research has shown that word of mouth plays a big role in shaping consumer decisions (Vermeir & Verbeke, 2006; Du et al., 2010; Kotler, 2011; Umpfenbach et al., 2014), the findings of this research indicate that the respondents of the survey prefer and trust the so-called official sources of information more than word of mouth or social media.

In addition, company websites were not considered very reliable but they were still perceived as a rather appealing communication channel. This finding is contrary to the findings of previous research, discussed in Chapter 4, which claims that the significance of the internet as a communication channel is still rather small and that it has still not managed to totally replace printed media. The findings of this study suggest that the internet is indeed used as a source of CR information but not necessarily by searching for information from company websites. Instead, consumers combine the use of company websites with the websites of food agencies and research institutes.

The focus group participants emphasised the need for clear and understandable information about the sustainability of food products, which would be communicated mostly at the point of purchase. This finding is consistent with findings from previous research claiming that, since both food chain CR as well as sustainability are somewhat complex phenomena, when informing consumers about them the information should be simple, easy to

read and truthful in order to be effective (Banterle et al., 2013; Kortelainen et al., 2013). Moreover, consumer education should not only be limited to mass media campaigns, but a combination of different channels should be used and policymakers, schools and other actors should be also held responsible (Thøgersen, 2005).

In terms of gender differences in the preference of the different communication channels, the focus group data did not present any differences between the male and female participants. However, the results of the survey showed differences between men and women. For instance, women found labels appealing whereas men considered "unbiased, third-party" information, such as the bulletins and websites of food agencies, to be more appealing than labels.

The most striking result to emerge from the data is that women found labels and information published by NGOs to be much more reliable than men did, whereas men seemed to prefer direct contact with either company representatives or agricultural producers more than women did. Moreover, it is an interesting finding that those communication channels that were considered, by the survey respondents, to be reliable were not necessarily perceived to be the most appealing ones.

7 CONCLUSIONS

The overall aim of this research was to contribute to the discussion on the promotion of sustainably produced food and food and examine the value orientations in sustainable food consumption. As has already been said, this was done by establishing three aims. First aim was to understand and describe what values are associated with sustainably produced food. The second aim was to provide information on consumers' perceptions of the importance of the different dimensions of CR in the Finnish food sector and what food chain CR dimensions consumers want to be informed about. Finally, the third aim was to provide insight into consumers' perceptions of the communication channels used to promote sustainably produced food to consumers.

As a result, this dissertation contributes to existing literature on sustainable food consumption by showing that sustainable food consumption is not only "green" or "environmentally friendly" consumption of organic products that is motivated by pro-social and pro-environmental values. The results of this research indicate that sustainable food consumption is motivated by a plethora of value orientations and their combinations. Although similar findings have been brought forth particularly in consumer culture theory – oriented research, in the field of 'green' or sustainability marketing research sustainable consumption is still thought to be primarily motivated by altruistic and/or biospheric value orientations leaving out the hedonistic nature of (sustainable) food consumption completely.

In addition, the results indicate that consumers are indeed interested in the different dimensions of food chain CR, and the dimensions – such as animal welfare, environmental responsibility and product safety – are also often linked to the overall sustainability of food products and they want to be informed about them. The results also shed light on the different communication channels that could be effective when communicating the responsibility and sustainability of the food chain to consumers.

The conceptual contributions this study makes to the existing literature on marketing communications, in particular on advertising research and promoting sustainably produced food, and CR literature are presented in the

following chapter, followed by the practical implications of this research. The next two chapters focus on the evaluation of this study as well as its limitations. Possible suggestions for further research are presented in the final chapter.

7.1 Conceptual contributions

The results of this research offer three main analytical implications that contribute to marketing communication research and CR research. First, sustainable food consumption is not purely an altruistic act for consumers, but more motivated by egoistic value orientations related to personal health, safety and wellbeing. This is visible both in the advertisements of sustainably produced food as well as in the results from the focus group data. As the definitions of sustainable consumption, introduced in section 1.5.2, indicate, traditionally sustainable consumption is mainly seen as an altruistic or biospheric act. This is because its main idea is to keep in mind the future generations' ability to fulfil their needs and at the same time try to avoid causing irreversible damage to the natural environment.

As discussed in Chapter 2, the egoistic and altruistic/biospheric value orientations have usually been seen as opposites. In the Schwartz value circumplex, the values related to personal pleasure, such as hedonism, are placed opposite universalism and benevolence both of which emphasise the welfare of others and are thought to be the antecedents of pro-environmental and sustainable behaviour. The values opposite each other in the circumplex are in conflict with each other and rarely held strongly by the same person (Schwartz, 1992; Hitilin and Piliavin, 2004; Hansla et al., 2008; Thøgersen, 2010). According to this, it would be rather unorthodox to appeal to egoistic value orientations or self-enhancement values at the same time as appealing to altruistic or biospheric value orientations or self-transcendence values.

However, research has shown that egoistic, altruistic and biospheric value orientations may co-exist in an individual and influence behaviour (Stern, 2000: Dietz et al., 2005; Jackson, 2005; De Groot & Steg, 2008). Based on this and the results of this study, the traditional definition of sustainable consumption in the marketing communication context should be challenged and a more heterogeneous value base in sustainable consumption should be acknowledged. Sustainable (food) consumption is not synonymous with 'green consumption' motivated only by biospheric or altruistic value orientations as often is the underlying assumption behind promotion efforts and information campaigns (Akenji, 2014), but it can also be motivated by egoistic value orientations, namely personal enjoyment and wellbeing. Egoistic values (i.e. personal pleasure) do not necessarily leave out altruistic or biospheric value orientations (i.e. the greater good) as the basis of advertising appeals related to sustainability.

The main result of this study suggests that the different value orientations are not necessarily mutually exclusive when considering sustainable

consumption, and that sustainable consumption can be associated with personal enjoyment and the greater good, thus making the benefits and the added value of purchasing sustainably produced food perhaps more tangible and appealing even to those consumers whose main priority might not be to make as sustainable food choices as possible.

The use of sustainability appeals in marketing communication and when informing consumers generally relies on the assumption that consumers are rational in their decision-making and that they are fully aware of the consequences of their consumption decisions (Esty & Winston, 2006; Polonsky, 2011; Kronrod et al., 2012; Umpfenbach, 2014). However, research has shown that pro-environmental or sustainable consumer behaviour depends not only on the individual consumer but also on the external context (Thøgersen, 2010).

The majority of consumers often base their food choice decisions on factors other than sustainability concerns. As discussed in section 2.2, consumer behaviour is not only influenced by values, but factors such as habits, specific attitudes, preferences and opportunities to engage in sustainable consumption play an important role (Thøgersen, 2001; Vermeir & Verbeke, 2006; Tarkiainen & Sundqvist, 2009).

Moreover, as the results of previous research suggest, appeals based only on biospheric values may even be counterproductive. Research has shown that consumers are either not aware of the environmental and social problems, or their purchase decisions and behaviour are influenced by short-term thinking where future outcomes and consequences are not incorporated into decision-making (Dolan, 2002; Moisander, 2007; Polonsky, 2011; Umpfenbach, 2014).

The use of claims related to sustainability, such as environmental appeals or labelling, relies on the assumption that consumers understand the complex environmental or social problems, believe that their actions can make a difference, and that environmental or social problems are not merely something that will happen somewhere in the distant future or in a faraway country. In addition, promoting some food products to consumers as the most sustainable alternative, highlighting only the environmental or social sustainability of the food products might not be a viable communication strategy, since some consumers may be quite critical and sceptical about the actual contribution of these so-called sustainable products to sustainable food consumption in reality.

Assertive environmental messages may, therefore, appeal only to environmentally concerned consumers, leaving the general audiences and those consumers who are less concerned about the environment or other issues related to sustainability completely oblivious to the possible added value of sustainably produced (food) products, since it has been shown that environmental and social issues are rather complex to understand for the majority of consumers (Esty & Winston, 2006; Kong & Zhang, 2012; Kronrod et al., 2012; Umpfenbach, 2014). Thus, through socialisation and the promotion of multiple values in communication campaigns, sustainable consumption may be facilitated in the long run (Ölander & Thogersen, 2001; Thogersen, 2011).

Second, previous research has suggested that consumers are increasingly interested in CR and that CR actions may potentially have an impact on consumer behaviour (Dawkins, 2005; Hartmann, 2011). Moreover, according to polls and consumer surveys, consumers are indeed interested in learning more about CR initiatives and will support companies that pursue CR endeavours (Carrigan & Attalla, 2001; Dawkins, 2004; Pomering & Dolnicar, 2009). There is also evidence that an increasing number of consumers will want to buy from a company that cares about CR, so companies should therefore actively disclose their CR initiatives and performance (Kotler, 2011).

As mentioned in the literature review, consumers' food choice, whether sustainable or conventional food products, is motivated by personal health, food quality, safety and taste as well as food price. For the majority of consumers, the sustainability of food is merely an added value if the other motivating factors are already present (Grunert, 2002; Grunert, 2005; Weatherell et al., 2003; Hughner et al., 2007; Buenstorf & Cordes, 2008; Hjelmar, 2011; Thøgersen, 2011). In addition, consumers are most interested in information concerning food product origin, process and food safety attributes. The attributes related to the food production process, such as the environmental impacts and animal welfare, were the ones consumers were interested in but at the same time wanted more information about (Banterle et al., 2013).

Research done in the Finnish food chain context has shown that consumers consider the healthiness of food as the most important factor followed by product safety, animal welfare and the use of local raw materials. The least important dimension was occupational welfare, and among the least important dimensions were also the environmental impacts of food production and economic responsibility (Kotro et al., 2011). However, the findings of this current research indicate that occupational welfare is a dimension consumers are interested in and will be interested in in the future as well. According to the findings of this research, the survey respondents feel that, out of the seven food chain CR dimensions, occupational welfare is the one about which they receive the least information.

Taken together, the findings of this research contribute to the growing body of literature on consumers' interest in CR, particularly in the context of the food chain. The findings suggest that consumers value environmental responsibility and local market presence, but the dimensions of food chain CR that are concretely close to the consumer and their wellbeing (e.g. product safety, nutritional responsibility) are still the ones that consumers are the most interested in. Although sustainable consumption is mostly understood as pro-environmental consumption, the results of this research indicate that the environmental dimension of sustainability, especially when looking at the food chain, is but one of the dimensions and perhaps not even the one that is of the most importance to the majority of consumers. When communicating food chain CR and sustainability to consumers it should, therefore, be noted that information about the other CR dimensions should also be available to consumers.

In addition, the results of this research suggest that when communicating food chain CR issues to consumers, the focus of the message should not be only on, for instance the environmental responsibility or environmental issues, since these issues are not the most important ones for consumers. Based on the results of this research, it would be worthwhile to focus on both those dimensions that are most important to consumers, such as product safety, and then bring added value to the product by communicating issues related, for example, to environmental responsibility, animal health and welfare or local market presence. Moreover, when communicating CR-related issues to consumers and other stakeholders, their values and other motivational aspects, such as consumer involvement, should be taken into account (Schrader et al., 2006).

Third, previous research in the context of communicating sustainability and CR indicates that consumers do not trust the communication channels that are directly associated with the company (e.g. advertising) and that they prefer informal sources of information (Jones et al., 2007; McDonald et al., 2009; Umpfenbach et al., 2014), inconspicuous channels such as reports (Morsing & Schultz, 2006) or informal, non-marketer sources such as consumer networks (McDonald et al., 2009; Du et al., 2010), word of mouth and social media (Du et al., 2010; Kotler, 2011).

However, one implication of the findings of this current research is the possibility that the most reliable communication channels are not the ones that are the most appealing. The popularity and appeal of marketer sources that are conveniently available at the point of purchase, such as labels or product packaging may be explained by convenience, since product packaging and labels are a convenient and easy way of finding out about CR issues. Convenience of information availability seems, in the light of the results of this current research, to override the fact that product packaging is very much a formal, marketer- and producer-controlled communication channel. Nevertheless, the findings of this research indicate, as does a considerable body of previous research (see e.g. Thøgersen, 2000; de Boer, 2003; D'Souza, 2004; Bhaskaran et al., 2006; Pickett-Baker & Ozaki, 2008 Polonsky, 2011; Stanieri et al., 2010; Umpfenbach et al., 2014), that ecolabels are not without problems. Consumers experience difficulties when trying to identify the different labels and their meanings and find it therefore difficult to trust the labels.

In addition, this research shows that sustainable food consumption decisions are very much guided by habits and convenience. The evidence from this study suggests that consumers want to be informed about food chain CR and its dimensions related to sustainability, but they are not necessarily willing to look for the information from various communication channels that require additional effort or specific expertise, since, based on the findings of this research, the most trusted and reliable communication channels are those that are rather convenient and located at the point of purchase. This highlights the focal role of retailers in motivating sustainable food consumption not only by making sustainable food product alternatives readily available for consumers,

but also by assuring that clear and understandable information about sustainable food consumption is conveniently available for consumers at the point of purchase.

However, it is not only the retailers that can be held responsible for promoting sustainably produced food. The possible development of a comprehensive marketing programme for sustainably produced food would require cooperation between all the food supply chain actors as well as the development of new ways of communicating the impacts of food consumption and the environmental and social advantages of sustainably produced food (Bhaskaran et al., 2006; Belz & Schmidt-Riediger, 2010).

In terms of the profile of the sustainable consumer, namely to whom food chain CR information should be communicated, the results of this research support the previous research into this area by confirming that women and the elderly are the most interested in sustainability as well as food chain CR issues. In order to effectively communicate information about sustainable food consumption and food chain CR, information could be targeted to middle-aged and older women. However, this does not mean that men and the younger age groups should be completely left out. As the results of this research indicate, consumers – men and women, old and young – are interested in both sustainability and food chain CR and want clear, reliable and conveniently available information about these issues.

7.2 Practical implications

Despite its exploratory nature, in addition to the aforementioned analytical implications, this study also offers new practical insights into and direct practical implications to communicating the sustainability of sustainably produced food to consumers. The findings of this research yield new information about how sustainably produced food has been advertised to Finnish consumers and what values are portrayed in the advertisements for sustainably produced food. Moreover, the findings of this research may have implications for planning CR communication to consumers and consequently for promoting sustainable consumption.

Sustainability and CR are abstract concepts that may be difficult for the consumer to understand. Moreover, based on both the results of this research as well as those of previous research, it is possible to conclude that consumers seldom have the time to look for information about sustainably produced food or to go to many stores in search of certain products. They are, therefore, inclined to purchase the same, conventional products that they are used to, since this makes grocery shopping easy and convenient.

In addition, sustainably produced food is not an unequivocal concept, and consumers may have different perceptions of sustainably produced food and its attributes that may or may not influence their buying behaviour. For instance, the results of this study imply that consumers do not have enough information

about Fairtrade food products and do not trust them as much as they trust organic or locally produced food. Moreover, the findings of this study suggest that, when promoting sustainably produced food to consumers, abstract credence attributes can be used, but the most important concrete attribute, namely taste, should not be left out.

Another important practical implication is that when communicating food chain CR issues to consumers, the focus of the message should not be only on, for instance, the environmental responsibility or environmental issues, since these issues are not the most important ones for consumers. Previous research supports this idea because appeals based only on biospheric values may be counterproductive and assertive environmental messages may appeal only to the environmentally concerned consumers, leaving the general audience and consumers who are less concerned about the environment or other issues related to sustainability completely oblivious to the possible added value of sustainably produced (food) products. Advertising and other marketing activities of sustainably produced food products should, therefore, be aimed at the majority of consumers that may be potential green or sustainable consumers by attaching features such as health and naturalness to the products instead of relying chiefly on sustainability aspects.

The results indicate that CR dimensions that are important to consumers are related to similar issues that consumers value in sustainably produced food, such as health and safety, but also good taste. When the sustainability of food products to consumers are communicated, this research suggests that it would be worthwhile to focus on both those dimensions that are most important to consumers, such as product safety, and then bring added value to the product by communicating issues related, for example, to environmental responsibility, animal health and welfare or local market presence. In addition, it would be worthwhile to consider how the concept of CR could be illustrated with the help of a combination of facts and concrete examples, thus providing consumers with information that is both comprehensible and accessible.

Furthermore, the findings of this research advocate that not only emotional appeals tapping into altruistic values should be used when advertising sustainably produced food to consumers. The more advisable way would be to utilise a mixture of appeal types based on different underlying value orientations. For instance, a sustainably produced product could be advertised appealing to the egoistic values in the form of enjoyment and good taste, but at the same time indicating that the product is a responsible choice for those who want to 'do good' for others and/or nature. Consequently, sustainable consumption does not have to mean sacrificing personal pleasure and enjoyment for the sake of the greater good. In addition, the appeals used to promote sustainable consumption choices should seek to evoke positive emotions, since it is said to be a more successful strategy than appealing to feelings of fear, shame or guilt.

The results of this study indicate that overt communication channels and point-of-purchase communication are successful means for communicating

food chain CR. To enhance their effectiveness, companies should consider combining them with informal marketing channels such as word of mouth. In addition, because consumers are interested in and concerned about various issues specific to the food chain and its CR, such as nutrition and product safety, these issues should be particularly openly communicated in order to increase consumers' trust. However, food producers and other food chain actors should not only limit their communications of food chain CR to nutritional and product safety issues, as it is clear that if consumers become more aware of sustainably produced food the promotional efforts reach their target group better, and if the products can be easily found in stores, food consumption practices may be steered towards greater sustainability in the future. Moreover, it would be important for the supermarket chains to promote their assortment of sustainably produced food products, to inform their customers, give these products more clearly indicated shelf space or provide the opportunity for consumers to taste these products

In an ideal situation, food producing companies, retailers and other actors in the food supply chain should actively engage consumers, along with other stakeholders, in dialogue in order to try and create a relationship with them instead of relying only on one-way promotion activities from the company to consumers. However, since food purchase is often influenced by habits and other non-product related factors, such as lack of time or convenience (see section 2.2), consumers might not see the point in engaging in an active and reciprocal stakeholder engagement with food producers and retailers. In addition, the significance of the internet as well as consumers' abilities to access online information wherever and whenever they want supports the fact that the internet should definitely be used as one of the communication channels, albeit not the main one, for communicating food chain CR to consumers.

7.3 Evaluation of the study

As this research consists of both qualitative and quantitative elements, different evaluation criteria should be used for the different parts of the study. The traditional criteria of evaluating the appropriateness of research, that is, the reliability and validity, have their roots in positivist research and are therefore not ideal for evaluating, for instance, interpretivist research (Eriksson & Kovalainen, 2008; Bryman & Bell, 2011). Moreover, as this current research is pragmatic and driven by research questions instead of by paradigmatic assumptions (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004), the evaluation criteria chosen should serve best to document the accuracy of the research process and its results (Creswell, 2012). The two phases and their appropriateness shall be assessed separately in the following chapters.

7.3.1 Assessing the qualitative phase

Various criteria have been adapted and proposed for the purpose of evaluating qualitative research. One of the most often used evaluation criteria frameworks is the one developed by Lincoln and Cuba (Eriksson & Kovalainen, 2008; Bryman & Bell, 2011). In this framework, reliability and validity have been replaced by the concept of *trustworthiness*. This trustworthiness consists of four elements: credibility, transferability, dependability and conformability (Lincoln & Cuba, 1985). Although these criteria are especially recommended for evaluating constructivist research, they may also be used for any qualitative research that "does not rely on realist or critical realist conceptions of the social world" (Eriksson & Kovalainen, 2008, p. 294).

Even though this research is not constructivist but more interpretivist in nature, credibility, transferability, dependability and conformability are chosen as the evaluation criteria. These criteria are well suited for documenting the accuracy of the qualitative phase of this study, since it is an accepted set of criteria for evaluating qualitative research and it encompass all the aspects of research which need to be evaluated in order to determine the goodness and accuracy of a piece of research (Eriksson & Kovalainen, 2008). Moreover, it is advisable to choose, out of the cornucopia of different evaluation criteria for qualitative research, those that the author or researcher is comfortable with (Creswell, 2012).

The credibility of this study is ensured by maintaining a logical structure for the research process throughout the study, starting with a research plan, followed by a review of relevant theories, data collection and analyses. During the research process the findings were discussed with colleagues, a thesis supervisor and, in the case of the focus group part of this research, with co-authors. This systematically executed research process may enable another researcher to be able to make relatively similar interpretations and agree with the claims made in this study.

The idea of transferability is not to replicate studies, but to attempt to find some degree of similarity between the specific research context in question and other research contexts (Eriksson & Kovalainen, 2008). According to Morgan (2007), transferability can be understood in a purely pragmatic sense to focus on the usefulness of the knowledge produced by research, and in particular how much of this knowledge can be used in a new set of circumstances. This study aimed at increasing our understanding of some aspects of sustainable food consumption in the Finnish context. Through that approach, some practical transferability may exist. In addition, comparisons between the findings of this research and findings from previous research on sustainable food consumption carried out in the Finnish context as well as in other countries have been made in order to increase the transferability.

Dependability means the researcher's responsibility to inform the readers about how the research has been conducted and that the research process has been logical, traceable and documented, thus increasing the trustworthiness of

research (Eriksson & Kovalainen, 2008). In order to confirm the dependability of this study, the focus group discussion data were recorded and transcribed**.** The researcher was present at all of the focus group discussions although she did not facilitate them, because the data was also used in another research project. Although the focus group discussions were transcribed by a third-party service provider, the researcher of this study thoroughly read the detailed transcripts and the analysis of the data. Additionally, the findings were discussed with co-authors and colleagues. As for the advertisement data, it was collected and analysed by the author of this study. In addition, the data was carefully described and the analysis process was carried out according to the specifics of qualitative content analysis.

The conformability of the study refers to linking the findings and interpretations to the data so that they can be understood by others and are not just imagination (Eriksson & Kovalainen, 2008). Conformability can be ensured by using triangulation. Triangulation is a common trait of mixed methods studies and one of the most often used means of evaluating mixed method research (Creswell, 2009). Denzin (1978, p. 28) states "because each method reveals different aspects of empirical reality, multiple methods of observation must be employed. This is termed triangulation."

Triangulation can also be understood as looking at a research phenomenon from multiple perspectives instead of a single perspective, and answering the same research question with different data (Neuman, 2011). The triangulation process is therefore used to refine and clarify the findings of the research with the help of multiple perspectives on the research phenomenon (Denzin, 1978; Eriksson & Kovalainen, 2008). Four different triangulation methods can be identified. These are presented in Table 41.

TABLE 41 Different triangulation methods (Denzin, 1978)

Data triangulation	The use of various data sources
Investigator triangulation	The use of several researchers
Theory triangulation	The use of multiple theoretical perspectives to interpret the study
Methodological triangulation	A combination of methodologies are used in the study of the same phenomena

The three different sets of empirical data used in this study enable the researcher to increase the reliability of this research by using data triangulation. The use of a mixed methods research design fulfils the conditions of methodological triangulation, since both qualitative and quantitative data are used to study the same phenomena and answer the research problem (Denzin, 1978; Jick, 1979). In addition, the participation of other researches in the collection and analysis of the focus group data qualify as investigator triangulation.

In addition to the aforementioned evaluation criteria, the importance of the topic can be used as one of the criteria of research validity in qualitative

research (Altheide & Johnson, 1994). A similar idea is introduced in pragmatist research as the choice of research topic is guided by the researcher's personal value system, steering the researcher towards topics that he/she feels are important and worth studying (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998). Since food consumption has a vital role in a human's life and the environmental impacts of food production, in particular, are rather extensive, and because both information and values have been noted to play a key role in consumer behaviour, the topic of this research can be said to be both important as well as a current topic worth researching.

7.3.2 Assessing the quantitative phase

The traditional evaluation criteria of quantitative studies are reliability and validity. However, these criteria are best suited for evaluating quantitative studies the purpose of which is to test hypotheses, or to conduct and experiment (Bryman & Bell, 2011). As was mentioned in section 5.7, the purpose of the quantitative survey data as used in this research was to serve as an information source providing insights into consumers' perceptions of corporate social responsibility in the Finnish food chain and their conceptions of the different communication channels used to inform consumers about the different dimensions of food chain CR. The quantitative part of this research was an exploratory study, where the numerical data produced by the online survey is analysed by using statistical analysis tools. The aim of the quantitative part of this research was not to be a confirmatory study where models or hypotheses are tested, but it was used to provide a numeric description of opinions of a population.

Nevertheless, the reliability and validity of the quantitative part of this research should be considered. Reliability is used to refer to the study's ability to produce results that are systematic and can be reproduced with the similar methodology (Joppe, 2000). In this study, reliability was taken into account by giving detailed descriptions of the quantitative survey data, its collection process and the analysis process together with results that were presented in detail. However, since the focus of the quantitative part of this study is the opinions of Finnish consumers about CR in the Finnish food chain, the results of this study are not generalisable outside the population or geographical area. In addition, the survey was conducted in 2011, and it is possible that the opinions and perceptions of Finnish consumers with regards to food chain CR and the communication channels may have changed during these years after the survey, and this may also make it impossible to reproduce the results of this study.

Validity in quantitative research is used to determine if the research measures what it is supposed to measure and how truthful the results are (Joppe, 2000). The internal validity of research means the ability of the research to establish causal relationships between two variables (Saunders et al., 2012). In this research, internal validity was established by associating the questions concerning consumer perceptions of the importance, as well as the questions

concerning the information wants, of the dimensions of Finnish food chain CR with the gender and age variables. Then appropriate tests of statistical significance – namely independent samples *t*-test for gender and one-way ANOVA for age groups – are used to test the causal relationship between the chosen variables.

The content validity of the survey refers to the ability of the measurement device (i.e. the survey questions) to provide adequate results and measure what it is intended to measure (Saunders et al., 2012). In this research, the content validity of the survey questions was established by using the members of the FoodChainCR research project to assess the survey questions used in this research. Before conducting the online survey, a pilot group of respondents was also used to test the survey. However, it should be noted that social desirability bias may have had an impact on the results of the quantitative survey, since sustainability and CR issues are such that it is in general socially more acceptable to be in favour of, for instance, animal health and welfare or environmental protection, than to openly declare that they are of no interest to you. The survey respondents may, therefore, have answered in a way they have thought would be socially acceptable and desirable. However, this is something that researchers have very little control over.

In addition to reliability and validity, representativeness and generalisability can be used as criteria for evaluation (Korsunova, 2010; Creswell, 2012). Representativeness is connected to the size and quality of the sample. The data comprise a representative weighted sample of the Finnish population, based on distributions of age, geography and gender, as can be seen from Table 3. The survey was carried out by a Finnish market research company. Based on this information it can be concluded that the representativeness of the sample (n = 1326) is rather good because it comprises both male and female respondents from all age groups and various geographical regions from all over Finland. However, an online survey ruled out respondents that do not have access to the internet or are not willing to use it. The representativeness of the sample is related to the generalisability of the results, and it means the possibility to generalise the findings beyond the boundaries of the particular context where the research was conducted. The more representative the sample is, the better the generalizability of the findings (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998; Bryman & Bell, 2011). When considering the survey data used in this research, it is possible to say that the large, representative sample of respondents does enhance the generalizability of the results of this study.

7.3.3 Contribution of the mixed method approach to the value of this study

As stated in section 5.2, in pragmatism the main focus is on the research problem and all available qualitative and quantitative data are used in order to provide the best possible understanding of the research problem instead of focussing on research methods (Creswell, 2009; Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). In this study the mixed method research approach was utilised in a way that is

centred on the research problem and oriented to real-world practice (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998; Creswell, 2009; Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011).

Both qualitative and quantitative methods were used in this study in order to provide a comprehensive picture of how the sustainability of sustainably produced food is communicated to consumers to consumers. In this research the quantitative survey was used to provide a numeric description of opinions of a population and the qualitative research, focus groups and content analysis of the advertisements was used to explore the research phenomenon in an in-depth manner.

In terms of the mixed methods strategy, this research represents a sequential mixed method approach where the findings of one method (focus groups and qualitative content analysis) are elaborated on with another method and the qualitative and quantitative phases of the study are conducted separately. The design of this research represents a partially integrated mixed methods approach where quantitative and qualitative phases are not mixed across research stages.

Although exploring the phenomenon of interest from many viewpoints in one study is rather demanding, the chosen strategies of inquiry have made the process possible. The survey enabled data to be acquired from a large number of Finnish consumers, whereas the focus groups and the analysis of the advertisements helped to explore consumer perceptions in an in-depth manner as well as to reveal the perspective of food producers and marketers.

7.4 Limitations of the study

This study, like all research, has its limitations. One of the limitations of the whole study is that all the data is collected from Finland. Thus, the results must be considered as an outcome of the Finnish cultural and socioeconomic context and cannot be generalised to other cultural contexts. The results can, therefore, be generalised to a wider population and to different countries only on a theoretical level by comparing the results to the results of previous research carried out in this field. Since this study is limited in scope, similar studies in other countries would increase the understanding of sustainable food consumption.

Furthermore, this study focuses only on consumers' experiences of marketing communications and food chain CR. Consequently, further research should be done to elaborate on the promotion of, communication channels for and values related to sustainably produced food products from the point of view of, for instance, retailers or agricultural producers.

Moreover, the qualitative data used have their limitations. In addition, the food advertisements were collected from Finnish magazines. Further research using advertisement data from magazines from various countries would be required to elaborate on the values used in the magazine advertisements of sustainably produced food products.

The limitations of the quantitative part of this study are not related to the size or representativeness of the sample, but more to the formulation of the multiple choice questions about the communication channels, since the multiple choice formulation of the survey questions concerning the appealing and reliable communication channels prevents the use of tests for statistical significance. In addition, one of the limitations of the quantitative data is that the survey was carried out by a Finnish market research company and they have set weights to eliminate any bias that could have been caused by the fact that the youngest age group (18–24 years) was somewhat underrepresented in the unweighted data. In addition, the quantitative data were collected using an online survey, thus making the data biased towards internet users.

7.5 Suggestions for further research

This study has gone some way towards enhancing our understanding of the complex phenomenon of promoting sustainable food consumption. As the results indicate, it is indeed relevant to examine the role of values in sustainable food consumption as well as the significance of informing consumers about sustainably produced food. However, this study has also raised many questions in need of further investigation. First, the current study has examined communicating the sustainability of sustainably produced food to consumers only in the Finnish context. Further research using data collected from other countries is therefore required to still elaborate this issue.

Second, the primary perspective in this study is a consumer perspective, although the advertisements do present the perspective of food producers and marketers. Thus, this study focuses almost solely on consumers' experiences of values, CR dimensions and communication channels. More research is required to elaborate on the promotion of sustainably produced food products from the point of view of the other actors in the food supply chain, such as retailers or agricultural producers.

Third, this present research on the advertisements has mainly focused on the textual aspects, such as texts and slogans, of the food advertisements. Research focusing on the pictures of the advertisements advertising sustainably produced food and their analysis would be a fruitful area for further work. Moreover, it would be intriguing to explore the different styles of appeals used in the advertising of sustainably produced food. For instance, the promotion of sustainable consumption is often done by using guilt appeals. However, as has been discussed in section 4.8 these fear- and guilt-inducing appeals seldom manage to either empower consumers or motivate behaviour change towards more sustainable consumer behaviour (Thøgersen, 2005). It would, therefore, be interesting to conduct a longitudinal study focusing on the appeals used for advertising sustainably produced food in order to examine the style of appeals as well as any possible changes in the style of appeals used.

In addition, this study has not elaborated on the different policy tools or instruments promoting sustainable consumption, or their relevance to informing consumers about sustainable food consumption. This is the case despite the abundance of different policy initiatives for promoting sustainable consumption. This issue is an intriguing one which could be usefully explored in further research.

Moreover, further research could be carried out to investigate the possible counterproductive impacts of informing consumers about sustainable consumption choices, since research (e.g. Longo et al., 2017) has indicated that providing too much information can affect consumer behaviour negatively and even disempower consumers instead of empowering them and offering choice.

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