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How does consumer knowledge affect environmentally sustainable choices? Evidence from a cross-country latent class analysis of food labels

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1 **How does consumer knowledge affect environmentally sustainable choices?**

2 **Evidence from a cross-country latent class analysis of food labels**

3

4 **Abstract**

5 This paper examines consumers' knowledge and lifestyle profiles and preferences regarding
6 two environmentally labelled food staples, potatoes and ground beef. Data from online choice
7 experiments conducted in Canada and Germany are analyzed through latent class choice
8 modelling to identify the influence of consumer knowledge (subjective and objective
9 knowledge as well as usage experience) on environmentally sustainable choices. We find that
10 irrespective of product or country under investigation, high subjective and objective
11 knowledge levels drive environmentally sustainable food choices. Subjective knowledge was
12 found to be more important in this context. Usage experience had relatively little impact on
13 environmentally sustainable choices. Our results suggest that about 20 % of consumers in
14 both countries are ready to adopt footprint labels in their food choices. Another 10 – 20%
15 could be targeted by enhancing subjective knowledge, for example through targeted
16 marketing campaigns.

17

18 **Key words:** carbon footprint; food; latent class analysis; objective knowledge; subjective
19 knowledge; water footprint

20 **Introduction**

21 Many dimensions of sustainability are relevant for socio-economic policy making related to
22 ecological issues, including the economic, societal and environmental pillars (Krajnc &
23 Glavič, 2005; Seghezze, 2009). In this regard, consumers are mainly concerned with
24 favorable economic outcomes and the environment, i.e., environmental sustainability (Choi &
25 Ng, 2011). Given personal and environmental consequences of choosing sustainable products
26 (e.g., IPCC, 2007), it is important for society and policy makers to better understand reasons
27 underlying environmentally responsible consumer behavior. For example, recent research
28 shows that many consumers are displaying an increasing awareness of and preferences for
29 environmental sustainability, as well as an increased willingness to pay for socially and
30 environmentally responsible products (Tully & Winer, 2014). Nevertheless, research is
31 lacking as to what drives such preferences and willingness to pay. In other words, better
32 understanding of the drivers of consumer choices associated with environmentally labelled
33 products is needed. This paper aims to analyze the role of consumer knowledge (objective,
34 subjective, and usage experience) regarding environmentally sustainable behavior, providing
35 evidence from latent class analysis of preferences towards selected sustainability labelled
36 food products, based on investigations in Canada and Germany.

37 Sustainability food labels have mainly been developed around the ecological footprint
38 concept of Rees (1992) that includes both the amount of CO₂ created (carbon emission) and
39 water used during production, processing, storage, packaging and distribution. The footprint
40 concept provides an intuitive framework for understanding the ecological bottom-line of
41 sustainability (Rees & Wackernagel, 1996; Wackernagel & Rees, 1997). A rapidly expanding
42 literature has provided water and carbon footprint assessments with corresponding consumer
43 and producer perspectives (e.g., Chapagain, Hoekstra, Aldaya, & Mekonnen, 2011;
44 Finkbeiner, 2009; Grunert, Hieke, & Wills, 2014).

45 To date, a number of countries and retailers have established pilot projects in support
46 of the reduction of carbon emissions by providing information through product labelling. The
47 first footprint labels were introduced in 2007 in the UK (Economist, 2011), followed by the
48 introduction of the first carbon footprint label in food retailing by Tesco in 2009. Tesco
49 cooperated with the Carbon Trust to implement the carbon footprint but discontinued
50 labelling products in early 2012 when it became clear that shoppers were unwilling to pay
51 premiums for labelled products and competitors did not follow suit in labelling their products
52 (Financial Times, 2012; Upham, Dendler, & Bleda, 2011). Consequently, even though a
53 majority of individuals were found to favor carbon labelling and agreed that this should be
54 mandatory (72% of EU citizens) (Minx, 2007; Upham, et al., 2011), there are only a few
55 footprint labels that have continued in the marketplace (e.g., Powers, 2011; Stancich, 2011).

56 Our research extends previous work (e.g., Grunert, et al., 2014; Grunert, Scholderer,
57 & Rogeaux, 2011; Mesías Díaz, Martínez-Carrasco Pleite, Miguel Martínez Paz, & Gaspar
58 García, 2012) by accounting jointly for consumers' subjective and objective sustainability
59 knowledge as well as for usage experience (e.g., with regard to previous "green" purchases)
60 in the context of food choices. Furthermore, our choice of products allows us to assess
61 possible differences in consumer responses for two staple food products by analyzing
62 consumers' choices for ground beef and potatoes labeled for environmental sustainability,
63 using the example of carbon and water footprints. We contribute to the literature of
64 sustainable food choices by identifying consumer segments in North America (Canada) and
65 Europe (Germany) regarding a variety of characteristics, such as membership in
66 environmentally active groups. Finally, we extend single-region focused literature by
67 accounting for differences in choice behavior across Europe and North America, thereby
68 contributing to the literature that has focused on cross-cultural comparisons (Loose &
69 Remaud, 2013). Specifically, the Canadian study was replicated with German consumers to

70 assess possible regional differences. Our results show that it is important to use a segmenting
71 approach to analyze choices. We include psychometric and demographic variables in latent
72 class choice models, to identify meaningful differentiations between segments (Boxall &
73 Adamowicz, 2002), and to provide novel insights on the underlying reasons for low self-
74 reported experience, complementing previous conjoint-based analyses (Grunert, et al., 2014).

75 From a marketing and policy perspective, we derive implications for information
76 provision and suggest target groups that can be addressed through distinct marketing
77 strategies.

78 The remainder of the paper is structured as follows. The next section reviews relevant
79 literature, followed by an outline of the methodological approach. Subsequently we present
80 the estimation results and finish with a discussion and conclusions.

81

82 **Literature**

83 *Environmental sustainability labels*

84 The focus of our paper lies on environmental sustainability food labels considering in
85 particular ecological footprints for carbon emission and water usage. Carbon emission and
86 water usage are credence characteristics that can usually not be verified by the consumer at
87 the point of purchase (Darby & Karni, 1973). One way to turn such credence quality
88 attributes into search quality attributes (that can be perceived by consumers) is the use of
89 environmental sustainability labels, which provide footprint information. However, there is a
90 distinction between different labelling schemes. While consumers nowadays are relatively
91 familiar with labels such as the nutrition facts panel, they are rather unfamiliar with the
92 primary unit of carbon labelling, lacking commonplace experience that would enable them to
93 contextualize CO₂ equivalents (e.g., Hartikainen, Roininen, Katajajuuri, & Pulkkinen, 2014;
94 Van Loo, Caputo, Nayga Jr, & Verbeke, 2014). The level of consumer awareness and

95 understanding related to carbon labelling therefore more closely resembles that found in eco-
96 labelling (e.g., Teisl, 2003) or ethical labeling, rather than in nutritional labelling (Upham, et
97 al., 2011). Interestingly, studies usually find a high degree of self-reported use of nutrition
98 labels but only a low observed use of nutrition labels (Grunert, Fernández-Celemín, Wills,
99 Storcksdieck genannt Bonsmann, & Nureeva, 2010). With regard to environmental labels,
100 consumers generally report not using them in the first place (Grunert, et al., 2014). This raises
101 the question of whether labels carrying specific information, such as carbon and water
102 footprints, could be an alternative to more general environmental labels in order to support
103 sustainable consumer behavior.

104 The literature on environmental sustainability labels has improved understanding of
105 various different drivers that may lead consumers to choose such labels and corresponding
106 products. Schumacher (2010) has shown that consumers' stated preferences for eco-labelled
107 goods increase with environmental consciousness and decrease with price-orientation. Some
108 studies have linked individuals' values to their preferences for footprint labeled foods
109 (e.g., Grebitus, Steiner, & Veeman, 2013; Grebitus, Steiner, & Veeman, 2015). Kempton
110 (1991) demonstrates that consumers' desire to preserve the environment for one's
111 descendants is a key concern to U.S. consumers when choosing products carrying eco-labels.
112 However, knowledge levels and understanding of environmental labels have been found to be
113 low, which could deter adoption of these labels when making food choices (Grunert, et al.,
114 2014). To address this issue, we investigate consumer sustainability knowledge, namely
115 subjective and objective knowledge as well as usage experience.

116

117 ***Carbon and Water Footprint Labelling***

118 Consumer preferences for water usage footprints have been investigated for various products
119 and markets, including global cotton consumption (Chapagain, Hoekstra, Savenije, &

120 Gautam, 2006), coffee and tea (Chapagain & Hoekstra, 2007), pork (Galloway, et al., 2007),
121 tomatoes (Chapagain & Orr, 2009), as well as pasta sauce and candy (Ridoutt & Pfister,
122 2010), suggesting widespread interest in the application of this labelling concept. Research
123 related to carbon labelling includes a food-based labelling survey of Japanese undergraduate
124 students (Kimura, et al., 2010), suggesting that willingness to pay is higher if information has
125 to be obtained actively. Recent carbon label studies have been conducted on locally grown
126 fresh apples, applying an equilibrium displacement model on US consumer responses to
127 labels (Onozaka, Hu, & Thilmany, 2015), and a double bounded dichotomous choice analysis
128 for fluid milk and bread in Chile (Echeverría, Moreira, Sepúlveda, & Wittwer, 2014). Closest
129 to our analysis are two articles that focus on the power of human values to predict Canadians'
130 choices of unprocessed ground beef products labelled for environmental footprints (Grebitus,
131 Steiner, et al., 2013), and Germans' choices of potatoes labeled for environmental footprints
132 related to human values and trust (Grebitus, et al., 2015). Although those articles also employ
133 attribute-based choice experiments, they differ from this analysis in focusing on only one
134 country and one product, while considering only individuals' value orientation and trust,
135 rather than focusing on the role of other psychometric variables and assessing groupings of
136 consumers with similar preferences as consumer segments. Our focus on the two selected
137 countries and staple foods was primarily motivated by our goal to analyze the robustness of
138 our predictions, irrespective of the cultural background of the respondents. Furthermore, in
139 contrast to the previous studies, which conducted multinomial and mixed logit analyses, we
140 use latent class analysis to identify distinct segment classes based on choice behavior and
141 psychometric variables. The results can be used to infer recommendations for marketers to
142 target potential customers and policy makers to develop socio-economic policies related to
143 ecological issues.

144

145 *Consumer Knowledge*

146 We focus on consumer knowledge in this paper, assessing the relationship between
147 preferences for environmental labeling and three aspects of consumer knowledge: subjective
148 knowledge (i.e., what individuals think they know), objective knowledge (i.e., what is
149 actually memorized) and usage experience (Brucks, 1985; Carlson, Vincent, Hardesty, &
150 Bearden, 2009; Lee & Lee, 2009; Raju, Lonial, & Glynn Mangold, 1995).

151 Previous work has shown that subjective knowledge affects the quality of consumers'
152 choices (e.g., Moorman, Diehl, Brinberg, & Kidwell, 2004). Consumers make an effort to
153 achieve consistency between subjective and objective knowledge such that objective
154 knowledge increases the likelihood that consumers will locate themselves close to stimuli
155 consistent with their subjective knowledge (Moorman, et al., 2004). This leads to substantial
156 correlation between both types of knowledge (Brucks, 1985; Raju, et al., 1995), although this
157 was found to be stronger for products relative to non-products (e.g., financial or medical
158 services) and public relative to private goods (Carlson, et al., 2009). Divergence between
159 subjective and objective environmental knowledge has been observed, with subjective
160 knowledge having more influence on actual environmental behavior (Aertsens, Mondelaers,
161 Verbeke, Buysse, & Van Huylenbroeck, 2011; Ellen, 1994). In contrast, early adoption of
162 new labels, such as carbon or water footprint labels, was attributed more to objective
163 knowledge (Thøgersen, Haugaard, & Olesen, 2010), leading us to assess both types of
164 knowledge in this study. Improving knowledge in general by educating consumers with
165 regard to carbon footprint information was shown to increase intentions to purchase products
166 with a lower carbon impact (Wikoff, Rainbolt, & Wakeland, 2012).

167 The role of knowledge has also been assessed in the context of the nature of product
168 attributes, distinguishing extrinsic (e.g., price) from intrinsic (e.g., functional) attributes, and
169 was found to play a significant role in consumer decision making (Park & Lessig, 1981; Raju,

170 et al., 1995; Rao & Monroe, 1988). Rao and Sieben (1992) have identified a U-shaped
171 relationship between knowledge and extrinsic/intrinsic attributes, suggesting that with
172 increasing levels of knowledge, importance of extrinsic attributes first decreases, then
173 subsequently increases relative to intrinsic attributes. In the context of our analysis, we focus
174 on consumers' preferences for the key extrinsic attribute (price) relative to the attribute which
175 is the major functional aspect of the products under consideration, namely their carbon and
176 water footprint levels. Therefore we are most interested in benchmarking our findings with
177 those of Rao and Sieben (1992), who find that low-knowledge consumers place a greater
178 weight on extrinsic attributes relative to intrinsic ones, as well as with Raju et al. (1995), who
179 suggest that high-knowledge consumers may attend to both intrinsic and extrinsic attributes
180 in a more balanced fashion than consumers with lower levels of knowledge.

181 Previous work has also assessed the role of consumer knowledge in the context of
182 usage experience, in particular, relative to consumers' previous environmentally friendly
183 behavior and the lifestyle characteristics associated with such behavior (e.g., Ellen, Wiener,
184 & Cobb-Walgren, 1991; Thøgersen, et al., 2010). In particular, consumers who had
185 previously purchased environmentally friendly products were observed to show a greater
186 likelihood of choosing products with lower carbon and water footprints (Thøgersen, et al.,
187 2010). Similarly, consumers who were members of environmentally active groups were
188 found to be more likely to choose products with lower carbon and water footprints (e.g.,
189 Ellen, et al., 1991). Further, in their cluster analysis of a survey that asked U.S. respondents
190 to recall a recent opportunity to purchase a green product, Gleim, Smith, Andrews and Cronin
191 Jr (2013) found that one of the main barriers to green consumption is consumers' lack of
192 shopping expertise (perceived understanding about green products).

193 Against this background, this study aims to assess the impact of these three types of
194 knowledge on environmentally sustainable choices via four hypotheses:

195 Our **first hypothesis** is that higher levels of subjective and objective knowledge
196 increase the likelihood to choose products with lower carbon and water footprints, because
197 both subjective and objective knowledge increase consumers' ability to assess and select
198 products (Moorman, et al., 2004) .¹

199 To benchmark our work to previous analyses, our **second hypothesis** is that
200 subjective and objective knowledge have a different effect on consumers' decision making
201 associated with footprint labeling. More specifically, our second hypothesis is that subjective
202 knowledge is more important in driving environmentally sustainable choices than objective
203 knowledge (Aertsens, et al., 2011; Alba & Hutchinson, 1987; Moorman, et al., 2004).²

204 Considering usage experience (Brucks, 1985; Raju, et al., 1995) regarding previous
205 environmentally sustainable purchases (Thøgersen, et al., 2010) and membership in
206 environmental groups (e.g., Ellen, et al., 1991), our **third hypothesis** is that consumers who
207 are characterized by higher levels of such usage experience are more likely to choose
208 products with lower carbon and water footprints (Ellen, et al., 1991; Thøgersen, et al., 2010).

209 Benchmarking our analysis to Raju et al. (1995), our **fourth hypothesis** is that high-
210 knowledge consumers weigh intrinsic and extrinsic attributes more evenly than consumers
211 with lower knowledge levels.

212

213 **Methods**

214 *Sample description*

215 This study applies data from two online surveys—Grebitus et al. (2013) and Grebitus et al.
216 (2015) have used these surveys in the past—one conducted in Canada between December
217 2010 and February 2011 and a second similar survey applied in Germany between December

¹ The authors argue that subjective knowledge can influence decision making by increasing the likelihood that consumers will search in locations consistent with subjective knowledge (Moorman, et al., 2004).

² Moorman et al. (2004, p. 674) suggest that it is not necessary to have objective knowledge to act consistently.

218 2011 and January 2012. Our aim was to compare responses from North America to responses
219 from Europe. While both, Canada and Germany, are developed countries, they differ
220 in features of their economic structure, history and culture. Germany, the largest economy in
221 Europe in GDP terms, is a major exporter of finished and industrial goods, with much less
222 dependence on fossil fuel use domestically than Canada, which has a smaller population, a
223 larger land base, and a high dependence on the export of raw materials and fossil-fuel based
224 energy. In this paper, we use the data of a set of questions that asked respondents to indicate
225 their knowledge and usage experience relative to environmental issues and products, and
226 related this to respondents' choices of two staple food products. These staple products,
227 namely ground beef and potatoes, were chosen since there are considerable differences in
228 carbon emissions and water usage between different groups of food such as meats and
229 vegetable produce.

230 The survey was pretested with an initial focus group comprised of 14 randomly
231 recruited adult members of the public in Edmonton, Canada. Data were subsequently
232 collected by an international marketing company. This company was responsible for sample
233 recruitment in both countries and charged with collection of a reasonably representative
234 sample of adult grocery buyer respondents in each case. Surveys were completed by n=1551
235 participants in Canada and n=1579 participants in Germany. An overview of the demographic
236 characteristics of the two samples is provided in Table 1. The share of female participants is
237 52% in the Canadian sample and 55% in the German sample. On average, Canadian
238 respondents were 48 years old and the average age of German participants was 45 years,
239 relative to an average age of 41 years for the total Canadian population, indicated by the 2011
240 Census of Canada (Statistics Canada, 2011) and an average of 44 years from the 2011
241 German Census (Statistisches Bundesamt, 2014). Household size ranged from 1 to 9
242 individuals in Canada (Mean=2.5) and from 1 to 7 individuals in Germany (Mean=2.2),

243 which compares to a mean census household size of 2 in both countries (Statistics Canada,
244 2011). In both countries at least one child was present in approximately 20% of the
245 households in the sample. Roughly one third of respondents in both the Canadian and
246 German samples held a university degree. Consequently the Canadian sample is slightly more
247 highly educated than the total Canadian population: in 2011 some 26% of Canadian adults
248 aged 25 to 65 held a university degree, according to Canada's National Household survey
249 (Statistics Canada, 2015a, 2015b). The German sample is also slightly better educated than
250 the German population (German statistical office year 2005). Average annual household
251 income before taxes reported for respondents was CAD \$42,500 (Canada) or 28,000 Euros
252 (Germany), whereas the respective 2012 census gross household income in Germany is 3,989
253 Euro/month (Destatis, 2015) and the median after-tax household income for all households
254 was CAD \$47,100 in 2010 (Statistics Canada, 2011).

255 **Table 1. Socio-demographic characteristics of the two samples**

	Canada	Germany
n	1551	1579
Female	52 %	55 %
Age groups		
18-24	5.8 %	4.9 %
25-34	16.8 %	20.9 %
35-44	18.3 %	24.8 %
45-54	23.9 %	25.2 %
55-64	23.4 %	17.3 %
65-74	9.5 %	6.0 %
>74	2.2 %	0.9 %
Education*		
Volks-/Hauptschule (low school education)	N/A	13.8 %
Mittlere Reife (modest school education)	N/A	31.3 %
High School Diploma (Germany: University entrance diploma, i.e., high school education)	22 %	21.5 %
University degree	N/A	29.4 %
Some college	22 %	N/A
Technical School Diploma	17 %	N/A
Bachelor's Degree	24 %	N/A
Master's Degree	7 %	N/A
Doctorate	1 %	N/A
Other	7 %	N/A
Mean household size	2.5	2.2
Households with at least one child under 12 years of age	20.1 %	18.9 %
Average annual household income	€ 30,421 ³	€ 28,000

256 Note: *Germany and Canada differ in their education systems. Therefore, education levels were measured based
 257 on country specifications.

258

259 ***Choice experiments***

260 In the following empirical analysis, we use data from attribute-based choice experiments
 261 (Louviere, Hensher, Swait, & Adamowicz, 2000). By presenting respondents with a set of
 262 product choice alternatives, described in terms of product attributes, the preferred product
 263 choices allow attribute preferences to be revealed without directly asking participants about
 264 their subjective valuation of specific product attributes. This approach reduces social
 265 desirability bias (Norwood & Lusk, 2011), which can be expected to be an issue in

³ We assume an exchange rate of 0.7158 CAD/Euro.

266 investigations of green consumer behavior, given increasing societal awareness of this topic.
 267 Since there are considerable differences in carbon emissions and water usage between
 268 different groups of food such as meats and produce, we consider two staple foods, ground
 269 beef and potatoes. In the choice experiments, participants could choose between different
 270 product options described by combinations of three attributes, price, carbon emission
 271 equivalents and water usage. Each attribute has three levels (Table 2) which were randomly
 272 varied among the choices presented to participants. The figures that are presented as carbon
 273 emission equivalents and water usage measures are based on estimates from previous
 274 research (see e.g., Chapagain & Hoekstra, 2004). To identify the prices used in the
 275 experiment we collected actual market prices for ground beef and potatoes at different
 276 grocery stores in a major city in each of the two countries chosen for the study (Edmonton,
 277 Canada and Bonn, Germany). Based on these observations we identified price levels based on
 278 an assessment of the mean price, in addition to plus and minus one standard deviation (see
 279 e.g., Grebitus, Jensen, Roosen, & Sebranek, 2013).⁴

280

281 **Table 2. Design of Choice Experiments (prices in Euro for Germany and in CAD \$ for**
 282 **Canada)**

	Product	Quantity	Price	Carbon emission	Water usage	Categorical level
Levels	Ground beef	1 kg	5.19 € /CAD\$ 6.75	19.49 kg	13175 l	Low
			6.11 € /CAD\$ 7.95	22.93 kg	15500 l	Medium
			7.02 € /CAD\$ 9.14	26.37 kg	17825 l	High
	Potatoes	1 kg	0.72 € /CAD\$ 1.63	0.51 kg	173.66 l	Low
			0.85 € /CAD\$ 1.92	0.60 kg	204.30 l	Medium
			0.98 € /CAD\$ 2.20	0.69 kg	234.95 l	High

283

⁴ It should be noted that the point of sale prices we collected were for products that were not labelled for water usage or carbon emission equivalents.

284 A random parameter panel efficient design with 20 choice sets was generated using
 285 Ngene software (Choice Metrics, 2014). We used a block design with 10 blocks containing
 286 two choice sets each to avoid fatigue effects, where a given respondent was randomly
 287 assigned to one block for each product category.⁵ Each choice set consisted of three
 288 alternatives: alternative A, alternative B and the “no choice” option of choosing “None of
 289 These” (allowing opting-out). The order of presentation and allocation to respondents of the
 290 various choice sets was randomized. Figure 1 presents an example choice set.

291

292 **Figure 1 Example choice set in the Canadian survey**

Imagine you are in your usual grocery store and you would like to purchase 1 kg of ground beef you usually buy: Do you choose Alternative A, Alternative B or Alternative C?

1 kg of ground beef	Alternative A	Alternative B	Alternative C
Carbon (CO ₂) emission equivalents	22.93 kg	26.37 kg	None of these
Water usage	13175.00 l	13175.00 l	
Price	6.75 CAD \$	9.14 CAD \$	
I would choose:			

293

294 In line with similar work (e.g., Grebitus, Lusk, & Nayga Jr, 2013), carbon emission and water
 295 usage were described prior to the choice experiments to provide a common definition of the
 296 concepts:

297 *“Carbon emission equivalents are the amount of Carbon Dioxide (CO₂) created by the*
 298 *grocery product and refer to greenhouse gas emissions over the whole life of a product. [For*

⁵ Since this study was part of a larger project, there were four product categories in total. Here, we report results on ground beef and potatoes; two product categories tested (a household essential and dairy) are not reported on.

299 *example, from the time an apple was grown and picked from a tree until its presentation at*
300 *the point of sale, e.g., in a supermarket]. The lower the emissions, the better for the*
301 *environment.”*

302

303 *“Water usage refers to the water used to produce, store and distribute a grocery product.*
304 *[For example, the water used in the orchard to grow an apple until it is picked from a tree*
305 *and then until its presentation at the point of sale, e.g., in a supermarket]. The lower the*
306 *water usage, the better for the environment.”*

307 ***Knowledge assessment***

308 To assess respondents’ *subjective knowledge*, questions were asked on how well informed
309 respondents considered themselves to be about various ways to reduce greenhouse gas
310 emissions, climate friendly food production, and carbon footprint in production, as well as
311 water usage in production, prior to the experiment. Each item was rated on a scale ranging
312 from 1 = no knowledge, to 5 = very knowledgeable, similar to Grebitus, Jensen, Roosen and
313 Sebranek (2013). These values were averaged for each participant to create a “subjective
314 knowledge index” intended to measure subjectively perceived knowledge (e.g., Flynn &
315 Goldsmith, 1999).

316 To assess *objective knowledge*, participants were asked, after completion of the choice
317 experiments, to indicate the extent of their agreement with four statements about climate
318 friendly production, water usage and carbon footprint, using a scale ranging from 1 = do not
319 agree, to 5 = fully agree. Responses were re-coded and averaged for each participant to create
320 an “objective knowledge index”. Table 3 displays the statement items used in the
321 questionnaire.

322 We separated the assessment of subjective and objective knowledge in order to
323 prevent carryover effects between the two concepts. Subjective knowledge was, therefore,

324 assessed in the earliest part of the survey, while objective knowledge was assessed upon
325 completion of the choice task as part of a general questionnaire component about knowledge
326 and lifestyle factors. The statements to assess objective knowledge were developed to not
327 closely resemble the definitions, so as to prevent simple recall of the definitions. Instead, the
328 items were designed to require some transfer of knowledge, so that these could only be
329 answered correctly if the concept was understood.

330

331 **Table 3. Statements used to assess objective knowledge about climate friendly**
332 **production**

1. Climate friendly products are those products that are low in water usage.
2. Carbon footprint and ecological footprint are the same.
3. A carbon footprint measures the amount of CO₂ emitted in producing, distributing and marketing the product.
4. Climate friendly products are those products that are high in carbon emissions

333 Note: Items were rated on a 5-point scale, where 1 = do not agree and 5 = fully agree. Items 2 and 4 were
334 reversed to calculate the index.

335 To assess *usage experience*, we explored whether participants pursue climate friendly
336 shopping behavior by asking whether they had purchased any climate friendly grocery
337 products in the last four weeks. In addition, we controlled for whether or not the respondent
338 was a member of a group that supports the environment.

339

340 ***Latent class choice analysis***

341 Latent class models draw on the assumption of finite mixture modelling, i.e., instead of
342 assuming one homogeneous population, it is assumed that a mixture of unobserved segments
343 exists in a population (e.g., Wedel & Kamakura, 2000). These segments are characterized by
344 segment-specific sets of identifiable parameters. In latent class choice experiments it is

345 assumed that the utility an individual derives from a certain attribute is not individual-specific
 346 but depends on the unobservable class membership to one of $q = 1, 2, \dots, Q$ latent classes. The
 347 probability of class membership q depends on individual i choosing alternative j at time t ,
 348 which consists of a certain set of observable attributes x' (Greene & Hensher, 2003):

$$349 \quad (1) \text{ Prob}_{jit|q} = \frac{\exp(x'_{it,j}\beta_q)}{\sum_{j=1}^J \exp(x'_{it,j}\beta_q)}$$

350 It is assumed that there exist a total of Q latent preference classes, which results in the overall
 351 log-likelihood:

$$352 \quad (2) \ln L = \sum_{i=1}^N \ln \left[\sum_{q=1}^Q C_{iq} \left(\prod_t^T \text{Prob}_{jit|q} \right) \right]$$

353 with C_{iq} being the probability that individual i belongs to class q . While this allows
 354 segmenting a population based on the observed response pattern, these classes are not
 355 informative as to why the utility derived from the given attributes differs. In order to describe
 356 the latent classes with the consumer characteristics of interest, we follow the approach
 357 described by Boxall and Adamowicz (2002) to incorporate relevant psychometric constructs
 358 and socio-demographic characteristics to explain segment membership.

359 All product attributes entered the model as effects coded variables. Due to the
 360 different scaling of the environmental attributes and to ensure comparability of the price level
 361 between countries we opted for categorical variables instead of linear effects. The underlying
 362 utility function we assume is as follows:

$$363 \quad (3) U_{ijt|q} = \beta_{CO2|q} CO2_{ijt} + \beta_{H2O|q} H2O_{ijt} + \beta_{pl|q} P_{ijt} + \mathcal{E}_{ijt|q},$$

364 where CO2 is the level of carbon emission, H2O is the level of water usage and P denotes the
 365 price level; \mathcal{E} is the error term and subscripts follow the definitions above.

366

367 **Empirical results**

368 *Descriptive statistics*

369 Table 4 provides descriptive statistics for the postulated independent variables included in the
370 analysis. It is evident that both Canadian and German participants tend to view themselves as
371 moderately knowledgeable (subjective knowledge). Participants' objective knowledge ranges
372 around a value of 3.5, also indicating a moderate objective knowledge level.⁶ The measured
373 constructs were only mildly correlated, with a significant Pearson correlation coefficient of
374 $r = .11$ for Germany and $r = .17$ for Canada. Regarding usage experience, the percentage of
375 respondents who claim to buy climate friendly products is twice as high in Germany, with
376 35 % of the total, compared to 17% in Canada. An opposite tendency is observed regarding
377 membership in an environmental group. Only 8 % of the German respondents reported being
378 a member, while such membership was reported for 12 % of the Canadian sample.

379

380 **Table 4. Descriptive statistics of relevant consumer characteristics**

		Canada (n=1552)	Germany (n=1579)
Index: subjective knowledge ⁷	Mean (SD)	2.46 (0.90)	2.54 (0.86)
Index: objective knowledge ⁸	Mean (SD)	3.59 (0.52)	3.53 (0.55)
Shop climate friendly	% yes	17	35
Member of environmental group	% yes	12	8

381

382 *Econometric results*

383 All models were estimated using Latent Gold Choice 4.5 software. An aggregate multinomial
384 logit (MNL) model was estimated to serve as a reference model for each country and product
385 category. As shown in Table 5, all choice attributes of the model – price, carbon and water

⁶ Since we provided information regarding the meaning of high and low carbon emission and water usage, respectively, this figure might be higher than had respondents not received such information.

⁷ The Cronbach's alpha for the Canadian sample was 0.89, and for the German sample it was 0.86.

⁸ We do not apply and report Cronbach's alpha values for objective knowledge because it is a formative, not reflective construct

386 footprint – were significant, suggesting that each was relevant in the decision process.
387 Inclusion of the no choice option in the model improved model fit substantially in all
388 models.⁹ Relative attribute importance was included as measure of the importance of an
389 attribute in the respondent’s decision. It is calculated as the ratio of the utility of an attribute
390 to the sum of the utility of all attributes (Kallas, Realini, & Gil, 2014; Vermunt & Magidson,
391 2005). It therefore follows that attributes with a high coefficient will have a higher relative
392 attribute importance. For the no choice option, this could result in a higher attribute
393 importance relative to the other available choices, even if the no choice option was not
394 chosen, or in other words if participants derived utility from *not* choosing the no choice
395 option. The ratio was highest for price, which explained 27 % to 47 % of variance in
396 respondents’ choices. Carbon emissions explained between 12 % and 23 %. Water usage
397 explained 24% to 30 % of variance for both countries. The no choice option was of almost no
398 relevance for German respondents’ stated ground beef choices, but explained about 25 % of
399 the variance of stated choices for potatoes in both countries.

400

401 *General results of latent class modelling*

402 To benchmark findings across the two countries, in this section we describe the results for the
403 Canadian sample in more detail and refer to the German sample only where results deviated.
404 Empirical results of the latent class modelling are presented in Table 6 for the Canadian
405 sample and Table 7 for the German sample. In addition, Figure 2 summarizes the relative
406 importance of attributes for each of the product categories and countries.

⁹ The no choice option was chosen in 18 % of the ground beef and 7 % of the potato choices in the Canadian sample, and in 26 % of the ground beef and 9% of the potato choices in the German sample.

407 **Table 5. Aggregated MNL choice models for both countries and product categories**

408

<i>Model for Choices</i>	<i>Canada</i>						<i>Germany</i>						
	<i>Ground beef</i>			<i>Potato</i>			<i>Ground beef</i>			<i>Potato</i>			
Pseudo-R ²	0.21			0.29			0.14			0.21			
n	1552			1552			1579			1579			
<i>Attributes</i>	<i>Class1</i>	<i>Wald</i>	<i>Importance</i>	<i>Class1</i>	<i>Wald</i>	<i>Importance</i>	<i>Class1</i>	<i>Wald</i>	<i>Importance</i>	<i>Class1</i>	<i>Wald</i>	<i>Importance</i>	
CO2	Low	0.52***	155.33***	18%	0.49***	123.58***	12%	0.57***	195.95***	23%	0.64***	245.67***	19%
	Medium	-0.17***			-0.18***			-0.18***			-0.19***		
	High	-0.35***			-0.31***			-0.39***			-0.45***		
H2O	Low	0.69***	176.67***	24%	1.05***	366.98***	29%	0.73***	217.44***	30%	1.04***	369.37***	28%
	Medium	-0.19***			-0.16***			-0.24***			-0.45***		
	High	-0.50***			-0.88***			-0.50***			-0.59***		
Price	Low	1.24***	720.97***	47%	1.28***	716.36***	36%	1.03***	537.53***	43%	0.85***	414.56***	27%
	Medium	-0.10*			-0.17***			-0.23***			-0.15***		
	High	-1.13***			-1.12***			-0.79***			-0.70***		
No choice option		-0.28***	128.47***	11%	-0.81***	528.66***	23%	-0.08***	13.90***	4%	-0.77***	549.34***	26%
	LL = -2689.57, AIC(LL) = 5393.15, AIC(LL)/N = 3.48, BIC(LL) = 4727.23, BIC(LL)/N = 3.05			LL = -2226.28, AIC(LL) = 4466.56, AIC(LL)/N = 2.88, BIC(LL) = 4503.99, BIC(LL)/N = 2.90			LL = -3022.02, AIC(LL) = 6058.05, AIC(LL)/N = 3.84, BIC(LL) = 6095.60, BIC(LL)/N = 3.86			LL = -2474.37, AIC(LL) = 4962.75, AIC(LL)/N = 3.14, BIC(LL) = 5000.3, BIC(LL)/N = 3.17			

Note: *p<0.05; **p<0.01; ***p<0.001

409

Table 6. Latent class models for both product categories, Canadian sample

<i>Model for Choices</i>		<i>Ground beef</i>					<i>Potato</i>				
		<i>Class1</i>	<i>Class2</i>	<i>Class3</i>	<i>Class4</i>	<i>Overall</i>	<i>Class1</i>	<i>Class2</i>	<i>Class3</i>	<i>Class4</i>	<i>Overall</i>
		<i>Price sensitive</i>	<i>Open to environmentalism</i>	<i>Avid environmentalist</i>	<i>Low knowledge</i>		<i>Price sensitive</i>	<i>Avid environmentalist</i>	<i>Open to environment</i>	<i>Low knowledge</i>	
Absolute size		869	264	248	171	1552	931	404	140	78	1552
Relative size		56%	17%	16%	11%		60%	26%	9%	5%	
R ²		0.68	0.06	0.49	0.36	0.75	0.74	0.54	0.06	0.55	0.77
<i>Attributes</i>		<i>Class1</i>	<i>Class2</i>	<i>Class3</i>	<i>Class4</i>	<i>Wald</i>	<i>Class1</i>	<i>Class2</i>	<i>Class3</i>	<i>Class4</i>	<i>Wald</i>
CO2	Low	1.47***	4.19*	1.61***	-1.05***	136.30***	0.75***	1.51***	0.36	0.31	101.27***
	Medium	-0.33	0.26	-0.16	0.39		2.23*	-0.25	0.30	-2.01*	
	High	-1.14***	-4.45	-1.45***	0.66**		-2.98*	-1.27***	-0.67*	1.70*	
H2O	Low	2.19***	3.45*	0.83**	-0.31	114.06***	3.96**	2.85***	0.18	-2.31*	73.52***
	Medium	-0.14	-1.34	-0.43*	0.55**		0.07	-0.31*	0.44*	0.18	
	High	-2.04***	-2.11*	-0.40	-0.24		-4.03**	-2.54***	-0.62*	2.13*	
Price	Low	4.21***	1.51		1.05***	156.64***	7.65**	0.67***	0.60**	-1.10	33.86***
	Medium	-0.60***	1.61		-0.03		-0.37*	0.20	0.26	-2.22*	
	High	-3.60***	-3.12*		-1.02***		-7.28**	-0.87***	-0.86**	3.33*	
No choice option		-1.16***	3.32**	-2.09**	-0.78***	193.95***	-2.54***	-3.49	1.07***	-4.49	139.12***
<i>Model for Classes</i>											
Intercept		-1.44**	-1.43**	-2.63***	5.49***	21.12***	0.48	-2.66***	-0.25	2.43*	17.24***
Index: subjective knowledge		-0.21**	0.11	0.12*	-0.02	12.62**	-0.22***	0.10	0.09	0.02	11.22**
Index: objective knowledge		0.79***	0.31*	0.66***	-1.77***	32.46***	0.37**	0.90***	-0.14	-1.13***	30.06***
Female		-0.10*	0.08	0.04	-0.02	5.50	-0.06	0.33***	0.15*	-0.43***	20.87***
Shop climate friendly		-0.42***	-0.13	0.30**	0.25*	20.00***	-0.26**	0.23*	-0.27*	0.30*	23.28***
Member environmental group		0.00	0.09	0.07	-0.15	1.08	0.03	0.20	0.16	-0.38	3.15
LL = -2169.48, AIC(LL) = 4426.97, AIC(LL)/N = 2.85, BIC(LL) = 4662.25, BIC(LL)/N = 3.00, pseudo-R ² = 0.75						LL = -1832.22, AIC(LL) = 3829.87, AIC(LL)/N = 2.47, BIC(LL) = 4002.41, BIC(LL)/N = 2.58, pseudo-R ² = 0.73					

Note: *p<0.05; **p<0.01; ***p<0.001. Classes are ordered by size, not by name.

Table 7. Latent class models for both product categories, German sample

<i>Model for Choices</i>		<i>Ground beef</i>					<i>Potato</i>				
		<i>Class1</i>	<i>Class2</i>	<i>Class3</i>	<i>Class4</i>	<i>Overall</i>	<i>Class1</i>	<i>Class2</i>	<i>Class3</i>	<i>Class4</i>	<i>Overall</i>
		<i>Price sensitive</i>	<i>Open to environmentalism</i>	<i>Avid environmentalist</i>	<i>Low knowledge</i>		<i>Price sensitive</i>	<i>Avid environmentalist</i>	<i>Low knowledge</i>	<i>Open to environmentalism</i>	
Absolute size		711	426	332	111	1579	632	568	253	126	1579
Relative size		45%	27%	21%	7%		40%	36%	16%	8%	
R ²		0.64	0.06	0.53	0.65	0.75	0.78	0.67	0.05	0.07	0.70
<i>Attributes</i>		<i>Class1</i>	<i>Class2</i>	<i>Class3</i>	<i>Class4</i>	<i>Wald</i>	<i>Class1</i>	<i>Class2</i>	<i>Class3^b</i>	<i>Class4</i>	<i>Wald</i>
CO ₂	Low	1.30***	1.19***	1.78***	-2.77***	185.64***	0.77*	2.78***		1.18*	65.64***
	Medium	-0.27	-0.13	-0.33*	1.28**		3.20**	-0.18		-0.06	
	High	-1.03***	-1.06***	-1.45***	1.49**		-3.97**	-2.60***		-1.12*	
H ₂ O ^a	Low		1.70***			170.41***	4.25***	4.86***		1.52*	71.51***
	Medium		-0.20**				-1.40***	-0.95***		-1.20*	
	High		-1.51***				-2.86***	-3.91***		-0.32	
Price	Low	3.64***	0.91***		0.97**	210.37***	7.78***	0.24	0.28*	0.22	55.97***
	Medium	-0.61***	0.30		0.85*		0.61***	1.33**	-0.53**	0.76*	
	High	-3.02***	-1.21***		-1.82***		-8.39***	-1.57***	0.24	-0.98*	
No choice option		-1.05***	1.72***	-1.44***	-3.84*	621.45***	-3.11***	-5.92*	-0.78***	1.43***	114.66***
<i>Model for Classes</i>											
Intercept		-0.36	0.42	-1.67**	1.61*	10.90**	-0.41	-1.72***	3.06***	-0.93	16.23***
Index: subjective knowledge		-0.11	-0.10	-0.02	0.22	2.89	-0.17*	-0.02	0.22*	-0.03	6.83
Index: objective knowledge		0.33**	0.08	0.51***	-0.92***	16.30***	0.35**	0.64***	-1.09**	0.11	32.30***
Female		-0.07	0.10*	0.19**	-0.21	10.69**	-0.20***	0.10	0.07	0.03	11.35**
Shop climate friendly		-0.39***	-0.12*	0.37***	0.15	43.86***	-0.38***	0.51***	-0.04	-0.09	61.82***
Member environmental group		-0.23*	0.06	-0.10	0.27*	5.24	-0.15	-0.26*	0.18	0.23*	8.89*
LL = -2458.76, AIC(LL) = 4993.51, AIC(LL)/N = 3.16, BIC(LL) = 5197.368, BIC(LL)/N = 3.280, pseudo-R ² = 0.75						LL = -2058.90, AIC(LL) = 4201.80, AIC(LL)/N = 2.66, BIC(LL) = 4427.11, BIC(LL)/N = 2.80, pseudo-R ² = 0.70					

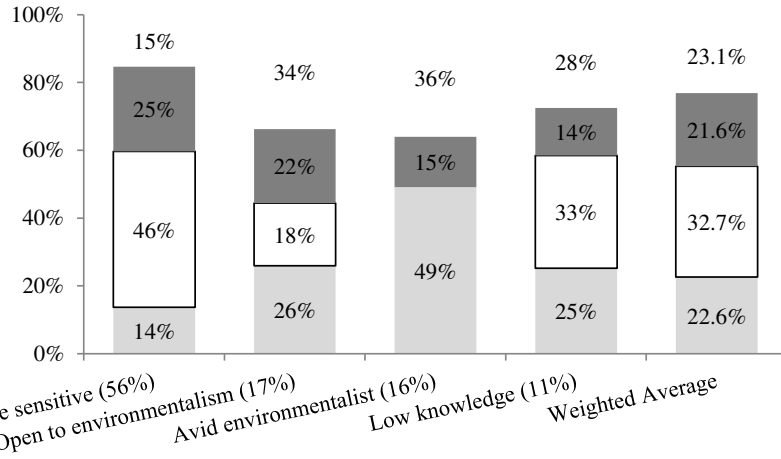
Note: *p<0.05; **p<0.01; ***p<0.001; Classes are ordered by size, not by name.

^aCoefficients for H₂O were restricted to be equal across segments for ground beef; ^bCoefficients for CO₂ and H₂O were restricted to 0 for Class 3 for potatoes

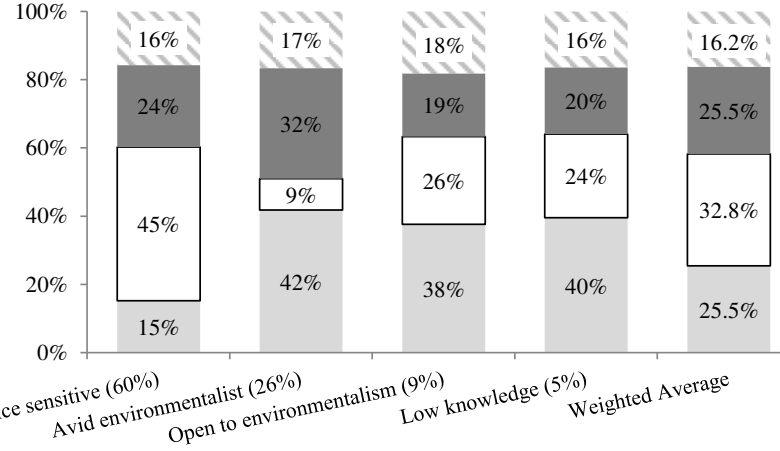
414 **Figure 2** Relative importance of attributes for each of the product categories and countries

Canada

Ground beef

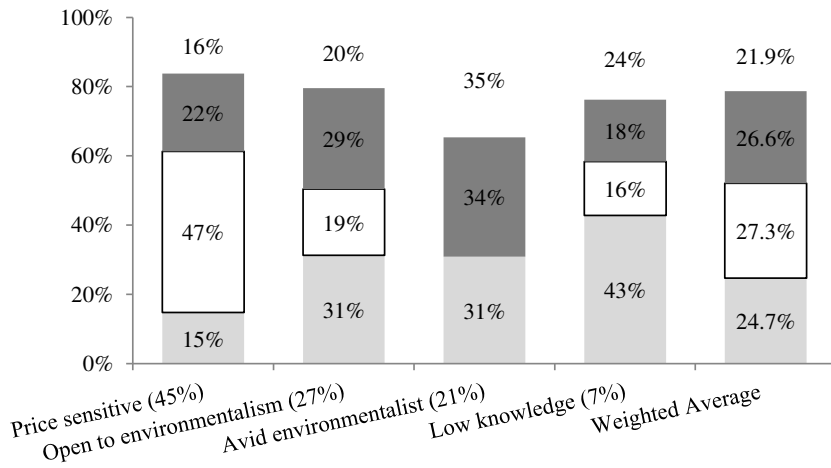


Potato

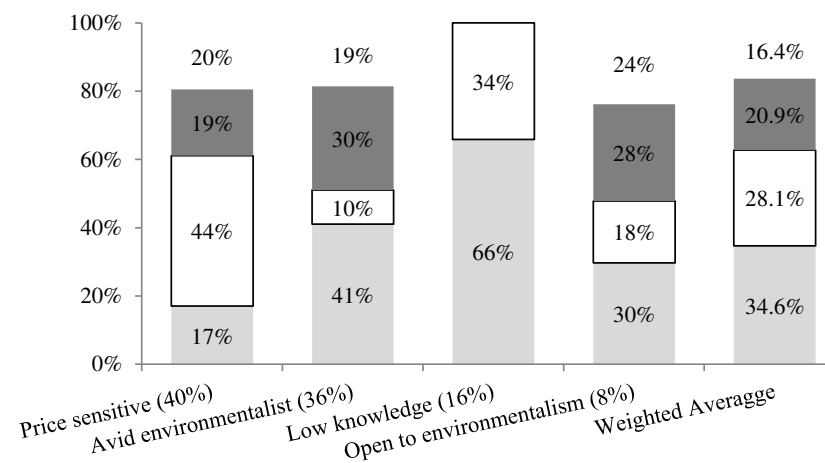


Germany

Ground beef



Potato



CO2 H2O Price No choice

415

416 Note: Relative class sizes are displayed in parentheses following the class name. Classes are ordered by size, not by name.

417 For both samples and products, a four-class model fitted the data best in terms of model
418 selection criteria and fit statistics (Table 6 & 7). In the case of ground beef, for the Canadian
419 sample, there were no significant differences between attribute levels for price in class 3, leading
420 us to constrain these parameters to zero. This reduced the BIC value from 4672.62 to 4662.25
421 and increased the pseudo from R^2 0.74 to 0.75. The model of potato choices did not have to be
422 further constrained for the Canadian sample. For the German sample, the coefficients for water
423 usage in the ground beef model did not differ between classes, so we constrained these to be
424 equal in order to improve model fit from a BIC of 5242.34 to 5197.37. For class 3 potato
425 choices, there were no significant differences for the attribute levels of the two environmental
426 attributes, consequently these coefficients were constrained to zero, reducing the BIC from
427 4466.04 to 4427.11.

428 Overall, latent class modelling improved model fit for both product categories and
429 countries relative to the baseline MNL models. For all non-constrained attribute levels, the Wald
430 statistic confirmed significant differences both between attribute levels as well as between latent
431 classes. As can be seen from Table 6 and Table 7, participants overall preferred low prices and
432 low values of the environmental attributes. In the following we first describe results for ground
433 beef choices and then for potato choices. In both cases we describe results for Canada in-depth
434 and then point out similarities and differences between Canada and Germany.

435 *Ground beef choices*

436 For **ground beef**, the largest class comprised 56 % of respondents, which we label the
437 “*price sensitive class*”. Members of this class 1 derived the highest utility from the lowest price
438 level and disutility from the two higher price levels. Participants in this class were more likely to
439 report feeling less knowledgeable, compared to the other classes, as indicated by the negative

440 coefficient of the subjective knowledge index. However, they were more likely to score high on
441 the objective knowledge questions as indicated by the significant positive coefficient of the
442 objective knowledge index. These consumers also preferred the environmentally friendlier
443 option, lending support to *hypothesis one* that knowledge increases green choices as primarily
444 indicated by the positive coefficient for objective knowledge. However, low prices were even
445 more important for participants in this class, suggesting that a high level of objective knowledge
446 is not sufficient to buy green products irrespective of price. The negative coefficient on
447 subjective knowledge lends support to *hypothesis two* indicating that subjective knowledge is
448 more important for behavior than objective knowledge. Unsurprisingly, participants in this price-
449 sensitive class were less likely to state that they had bought climate friendly products in the last
450 four weeks, thus scoring low on usage experience. Male respondents were slightly
451 overrepresented in class 1.

452 Table 6 shows further that the second largest class (17 % of respondents) derived highest
453 utility from the lowest levels of environmental attributes and preferred other attributes and
454 attribute-level combinations (the “no choice” option). Members of class 2 were more likely to
455 derive disutility from the highest price level, but were indifferent towards the two lower price
456 levels, indicating members of this group are less price sensitive than those in the first segment.
457 This segment could be described as “*open to environmentalism*”, since they score high on the
458 objective knowledge index, relative to the two remaining segments, were less price sensitive and
459 gained utility from low footprint levels.

460 The third largest class, accounting for 16 % of the sample, could be considered as “*avid*
461 *environmentalist*.” Class 3 members derived high utility from the lowest levels of the
462 environmental attributes of carbon and water use, and prices did not play a significant role in

463 their stated choices for the beef product. Members of this class were more likely to claim to have
464 shopped for environmentally friendly products, to have high subjective knowledge and to score
465 high on the objective knowledge questions. This group seems to be ready to adopt a carbon and
466 water footprint label to guide environmentally responsible choices. With regard to *hypothesis*
467 *four*, we would have expected participants in this class to weigh extrinsic and intrinsic attributes
468 evenly, which is, however, not the case. Price, an extrinsic attribute, was mostly ignored for
469 ground beef choices by those in this class.

470 The smallest class 4, which represented 11 % of the sample, appeared to derive utility
471 from high levels of carbon emission and medium levels of water use. Class 4 was characterized
472 by a negative coefficient for the objective knowledge index. Participants in this group, termed
473 the “*low knowledge*” class, stated that they shop for climate friendly products; however, this is
474 contradicted by the stated choices that they made, which were indeed for the less climate friendly
475 options. It is possible that consumers in this group misinterpreted the environmental label
476 specifications, or wanted to signal a greater environmental consciousness than is actually the
477 case, by over-stating their past environmentally-friendly shopping behavior.

478 Overall, Figure 2 shows that price was the most important attribute for Canadian
479 consumer ground beef choices in the “*price sensitive*” class, accounting for 46 % of variance.
480 For the “*open to environmentalism*” class, the environmental attributes accounted for 56% of
481 variance. The next largest segment of “*avid environmentalist*” made their decisions irrespective
482 of price. For the “*low knowledge*” segment, price was the most important attribute, accounting
483 for 33 % of variance.

484 Table 7 and Figure 2 show that generally the same classes applied for the German
485 sample, however, this sample included a smaller share of “*price sensitive*” consumers and a

486 considerably higher share of both “*open to environmentalism*” and “*avid environmentalist*”
487 consumers than the Canadian sample. This could have been expected from the higher share of
488 Germans that indicated shopping for climate friendly products and is also reflected in the
489 relatively more evenly balanced weighted average attribute importance shares in Figure 2. With
490 regard to the German classes, Figure 2 shows that price was the most important attribute for the
491 “*price sensitive*” segment, as expected. For both the “*open to environmentalism*” and “*avid*
492 *environmentalist*” segments, water usage is the most important attribute, a major difference
493 relative to the Canadian sample. The much smaller German “*low knowledge*” class is far less
494 price sensitive than is the Canadian “*low knowledge*” class. Overall, German consumers were
495 less price sensitive than the Canadian sample, which was not anticipated as GDP per capita is
496 higher in Canada than in Germany for the period under investigation.¹⁰ Notably, for the German
497 sample, participants in the “*Low knowledge*” segment were more likely to indicate membership
498 of an environmental group, suggesting that this may not be a good proxy for environmental
499 behavior. Furthermore, the results suggest that usage experience is not closely related to
500 subjective and objective knowledge, as was also found in previous studies (Raju et al. 1995).

501 *Potato choices*

502 As shown in Table 6 and Figure 2, and as was the case for ground beef, participants
503 preferred low prices as well as low carbon emission and water usage values for their **potato**
504 choices. The largest segment for the Canadian sample was comprised of 60 % of the participants;
505 these derived highest utility from the lowest price level and disutility from the two higher price
506 levels. This “*price sensitive*” class also preferred the lowest carbon emission and water usage
507 levels, but to a smaller extent compared to price. Similar to the price-sensitive beef consumers,

¹⁰ <http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/NY.GDP.PCAP.CD>

508 participants in this segment were more likely to indicate that they feel less knowledgeable about
509 environmentally friendly products, even though they score high on the objective knowledge
510 index. As with ground beef choices, in this class with low subjective knowledge, other attributes
511 than carbon emissions and water usage are more important. Similar to the case of ground beef,
512 *hypotheses one and two* are supported. In particular, regarding the second hypothesis, subjective
513 knowledge appears to drive environmentally friendly behaviors (Aertsens, et al., 2011; Ellen, et
514 al., 1991).

515 Participants in the second largest class for potato choices (26 % in this case) were “*avid*
516 *environmentalist*.” Class 2 members derived highest utility from low footprint values and placed
517 less importance on price (Table 6 and Figure 2). Participants in this class were more likely than
518 others to state that they shop for climate friendly products and were more likely to be female.

519 The third largest class (9 % of participants) showed a pattern for potato choices similar to
520 class 2 beef choices (see Table 6). This group appeared to derive disutility from high footprint
521 values (i.e., from less sustainable levels) and preferred low prices. It seems that this segment,
522 with average levels of consumer knowledge, may try to evenly weigh extrinsic and intrinsic
523 attributes as suggested by hypothesis four. Members of this segment were more likely to opt out
524 of making a choice than those in the other segments, indicating that their preferences were not
525 accommodated by the choice alternatives presented to them. They were less likely than those in
526 other segments to state that they shop for environmentally friendly products. This suggests that
527 even though they derived disutility from high carbon emissions and water usage, they have not
528 adopted a habit of environmentally sustainable behavior. We therefore consider this class to be
529 “*open to environmentalism*.”

530 Similar to beef choices, we find a fourth class of “*low knowledge*” consumers who derive
531 utility from high footprint values and are likely to score low on the objective knowledge index.
532 Again in this class, participants were more likely to indicate shopping for climate friendly
533 products, suggesting that either this self-reported assessment is not a good indicator of climate
534 friendly behavior or that class members misinterpreted the footprint value characteristics.

535 As indicated by Figure 2, and similar to beef choices, price was the most important
536 attribute for the Canadian “*price sensitive*” segment. Interestingly, the “*price sensitive*” segment
537 is even larger than for beef choices. Price played a slightly greater role for the “*avid*
538 *environmentalist*” in the Canadian sample when deciding between potato choices relative to beef
539 choices, but the combined environmental attributes still account for 49 % of variance in this
540 segment. Also, for the “*open to environmentalism*” class, the combined environmental attributes
541 accounted for the larger share of explained variance (37 %), but price was more important than
542 for beef choices. Interestingly, for all classes, water usage was more important than carbon
543 emissions.

544 For the German sample, we found some of the same general patterns as for the Canadian
545 classes, although with a considerably smaller “*price sensitive*” and a larger “*avid*
546 *environmentalist*” segment than for the Canadian sample (Table 7 and Figure 2). Price was the
547 most important attribute for the “*price sensitive*” class as expected. Members of the “*avid*
548 *environmentalist*” class in the German sample were significantly less likely to be a member of an
549 environmental group than was the case for the Canadian group. The “*open to environmentalism*”
550 class was less price sensitive than the Canadian class—similar to the choices for beef. The
551 German “*low knowledge*” class was indifferent between carbon emission and water usage
552 values. Also, for the “*low knowledge*” German segment, the subjective knowledge coefficient

553 was positive, suggesting that self-judged (i.e., subjective) knowledge alone is unlikely to be
554 sufficient to make environmentally friendly choices (see Table 7).

555

556 **Discussion**

557 The main objective of this study was to determine how consumer knowledge (objective,
558 subjective and usage experience) affects consumer choices of food labeled for environmental
559 sustainability. We conducted similar choice experiments for both ground beef and potatoes in
560 Canada and Germany. Using a latent class choice modeling approach, we identified four
561 consumer segments that are similar for two countries and two product categories, though with
562 differing levels of knowledge and choice behavior. The covariate model in the latent class choice
563 model suggests that inclusion of subjective and objective knowledge regarding environmental
564 attributes, as well as usage experience, can significantly improve the identification of choice
565 patterns of the identified consumer segments.

566 *Hypothesis one* is only partially supported by our findings, in that respondents who
567 scored high on the objective knowledge index were not consistently more likely to make
568 environmentally friendly choices. However, those consumers who scored low were far less likely
569 to make environmentally sustainable choices. This is reflected in the choices by respondents in
570 the “*low knowledge*” class, who appeared to derive utility from high water usage and high
571 carbon emissions. While subjective and objective knowledge about environmental issues often
572 diverged as predicted, subjective knowledge was found to be more important for
573 environmentally friendly choice behavior, supporting our *hypothesis two*, which is in line with
574 previous work (Aertsens, et al., 2011; Ellen, 1994). In the “*low knowledge*” segments, a positive
575 coefficient for the subjective knowledge index could frequently be found, suggesting that both

576 types of knowledge need to be positively aligned to foster environmentally sustainable choices.
577 At the same time, while “*price sensitive*” consumers scored high on objective knowledge, they
578 scored low on subjective knowledge, which is consistent with *hypothesis two*.

579 Respondents characterized by low usage experience (who indicated not to have
580 purchased environmentally friendly products in the last four weeks) were more likely to be
581 guided by low prices. However, reporting having bought environmentally friendly products did
582 not necessarily increase the likelihood of choice of low footprint alternatives. Similarly, being a
583 member of an environmental group did not contribute to explaining group membership or choice
584 patterns. These two findings suggest rejection of *hypothesis three*, which stated that high usage
585 experience (measured both in terms of previous eco-purchases and membership in environmental
586 groups) would characterize choices of lower footprint alternatives. To the contrary, we found
587 that for the German sample, members of the “*low knowledge*” class were more likely to be a
588 member of an environmental group, suggesting that such self-reported measures may not be
589 sufficient to explain environmental behavior. It could be that membership in an environmental
590 group was interpreted more broadly or that these participants simply do not see their food
591 choices as an avenue for environmentally friendly behavior. Future research could investigate the
592 relationship between membership in environmental groups and this influence on food choices
593 more closely to better explain the behavioral discrepancy that we observe.

594 We did not find support for *hypothesis four*, that consumers with higher knowledge levels
595 balance extrinsic and intrinsic attributes. Quite the reverse, we found that for those segments that
596 score high on all three knowledge dimensions, the extrinsic attribute of price was ignored. This
597 finding suggests that there is highly price in-elastic demand by highly knowledgeable consumers,
598 which is also consistently found for organic food purchasing patterns (Aschemann-Witzel &

599 Zielke, 2015; Hempel & Hamm, 2016). Relative to the highly knowledgeable consumer segment,
600 the segment with an average level of knowledge showed a more balanced pattern of choices,
601 balancing both price and environmental attributes. Whether we did not specify a critical price
602 threshold that would lead to a tradeoff between price and footprint values for “*avid*
603 *environmentalist*” remains subject to future research.

604 Overall, while we observe a generally similar pattern of segments for the two product
605 categories and countries, some interesting differences can be observed. The Canadian sample, for
606 example, was somewhat more price sensitive than the German sample. This cross-cultural
607 feature is interesting in the context of another eco-label study, which found European consumers
608 to be more willing to pay price premiums for eco-labeled wood and paper products than North
609 American consumers (Aguilar & Cai, 2010). For potatoes, in particular, the German “*price*
610 *sensitive*” class was 20 % smaller than in the Canadian sample and the “*avid environmentalist*”
611 class was larger in the German sample for both product categories, suggesting a generally higher
612 ecological orientation in this sample.

613 Water usage was the more important environmental attribute for the “*avid*
614 *environmentalist*” segment for potato choices in both countries. For the German “*open to*
615 *environmentalist*” classes and the Canadian “*price sensitive*” classes, water was more important
616 for both product categories. Possibly participants were more sensitive to the higher numerical
617 values cited for water usage relative to carbon emissions and weighted these more in their
618 choices.

619 In terms of policy and marketing implications, our results suggest that both subjective
620 and objective knowledge need to be positively aligned for footprint labels to have the anticipated
621 effect of influencing choices. Increasing both subjective and objective knowledge levels – rather

622 than focusing on higher levels of usage experience per se – appears likely to increase the
623 effectiveness of using carbon footprint labels to enhance environmentally sustainable
624 consumption patterns.

625 In line with previous research from Germany, Spain, Sweden and Poland (Grunert, et al.,
626 2014), we find that price sensitive segments are slightly overrepresented by men, while segments
627 characterized by consumers for whom prices are not major drivers but who derive high utility
628 from the choice of low levels of carbon emitted and water usage (our “*avid environmentalist*”)
629 were slightly dominated by women. The “*avid environmentalist*”, who account for some 20 % of
630 the Canadian sample and about 30 % of the German sample, can clearly be identified by positive
631 coefficients for both knowledge indices (thus supporting *hypothesis one*) as well as by high
632 usage experience, based on claims to have recently shopped for environmentally friendly
633 products. These characteristics are also consistent with the previous finding that early adopters of
634 new labels are well informed and indicate intent to purchase a product carrying the new label
635 (Thøgersen, et al., 2010).

636 The class we called “*open to environmentalism*” has some similarities to the “*avid*
637 *environmentalist*” segment in terms of their responses to water and carbon levels, although they
638 are more responsive to lower prices than are “*avid environmentalist*”. Also, the “*open to*
639 *environmentalism*” group tended to opt out of the choice when they encountered alternatives that
640 did not correspond to their preferences. However, the results from the covariate model indicate
641 that this “*open to environmentalism*” group generally does not feel highly knowledgeable about
642 environmental issues and does not buy this type of products. Nonetheless, members of this class
643 may be possible targets for footprint labelling, in that our analysis suggests that they have
644 understood the concept and are less price sensitive than the “*price sensitive*” class. Providing

645 information that increases these consumers' subjective knowledge may influence the choices
646 they are making. A useful future research avenue could be to investigate the means to increase
647 consumers' subjective knowledge levels and determine the features that led them to opt out of
648 many of the choices presented to them. Addressing these issues by future research on
649 environmental sustainability labeling might aid in determining whether providing more
650 information about environmental labelling, and different label designs, might encourage
651 environmentally friendly choices. Clarification of why some participants chose to opt out would
652 aid in understanding motivations for stated choices to prevent information-overload and
653 confusion. Future research could prompt participants with an open-ended question of why they
654 chose the no choice option every time they do. These insights could then be used to interpret
655 results and design future studies more appropriately.

656 It could also be worthwhile to assess consumers' reactions to the display of one critical
657 footprint value only (e.g., only the value for water if this is the more critical attribute).
658 Determination of specific critical thresholds could therefore be another avenue for future
659 research.

660

661 **Conclusions**

662 This study set out to explore to what extent consumer knowledge affects environmentally
663 sustainable behavior. It identifies distinct benefits from target marketing of footprint-labelled
664 food products focusing on knowledge and lifestyle factors. Focusing on the role of consumers'
665 subjective and objective knowledge and usage experience, and contrasting large samples of
666 consumers from Canada and Germany, we show that including psychometric and demographic
667 variables in latent class choice models allows for a novel and meaningful differentiation between

668 consumer segments in the context of environmentally sustainable choices. Our results also
669 indicate a general preference among many consumers towards products labeled with carbon and
670 water footprints. Contrary to nutrition labelling (see Grunert, et al., 2010), where it is found that
671 understanding of label information is high but motivation or expected utility from purchasing the
672 healthier option is low, our results suggest that knowledge of environmental issues is low,
673 indicating an issue of importance for public policy.

674 We find that environmentally friendly choices are observed mostly for segments with
675 high objective and subjective knowledge. For segments with only high objective knowledge, we
676 find that price is the most important attribute. These segments show a preference for
677 environmentally friendly alternatives, but only if prices are low. For those classes with high
678 objective and subjective knowledge, we find that price plays only a minor role. Usage experience
679 – measured both in terms of previous eco-purchases and membership in environmental groups –
680 as third dimension of consumer knowledge, was found to be less important in influencing
681 environmentally sustainable food choices. The relatively large shares of segments characterized
682 by low objective knowledge indicate that educating consumers in terms of environmentally
683 friendly behaviors is still an important task for those who want to encourage environmentally
684 sustainable choice behavior. In terms of education, it is likely important not only to improve
685 objective but also subjective knowledge. Keeping in mind that subjective knowledge was
686 observed to be a stronger driver for environmentally friendly choices, it appears relevant not only
687 to provide information for the target consumers, but also to raise general awareness to make
688 shoppers feel that they are informed and equipped to make a better choice for the environment.
689 Roughly one fifth of the respondents can be termed “*avid environmentalist*,” who can be
690 expected to be appreciative of a label which could guide their choices toward sustainability.

691 Our findings suggest specific avenues of action for marketers to improve consumer
692 targeting with a focus on consumer knowledge and awareness of environmental issues. In sum,
693 our comparative analysis of consumer samples from both North America and Europe suggests
694 that footprint information may be a useful tool for food marketers to help consumers make
695 environmentally sustainable choices, especially in countries where the general level of awareness
696 and knowledge of environmental issues is already high. It is, however, crucial to use a targeted
697 campaign that addresses both objective and subjective knowledge.

698

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