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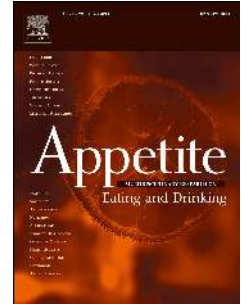
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**Title page****How does consumer knowledge affect environmentally sustainable choices?****Evidence from a cross-country latent class analysis of food labels**

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

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

**Key words:** carbon footprint; food; latent class analysis; objective knowledge; subjective 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 CO<sub>2</sub> 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 CO<sub>2</sub> 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 (Greibitus,  
131 Steiner, et al., 2013), and Germans' choices of potatoes labeled for environmental footprints  
132 related to human values and trust (Greibitus, 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).<sup>1</sup>

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).<sup>2</sup>

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

---

<sup>1</sup> 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).

<sup>2</sup> 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 <sup>3</sup>	€ 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  
266 investigations of green consumer behavior, given increasing societal awareness of this topic.

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

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).<sup>4</sup>

280

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

	<b>Product</b>	<b>Quantity</b>	<b>Price</b>	<b>Carbon emission</b>	<b>Water usage</b>	<b>Categorical level</b>
<b>Levels</b>	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

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

<sup>4</sup> 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.

286 two choice sets each to avoid fatigue effects, where a given respondent was randomly  
 287 assigned to one block for each product category.<sup>5</sup> 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 <sub>2</sub> ) 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 (CO<sub>2</sub>) created by the*  
 298 *grocery product and refer to greenhouse gas emissions over the whole life of a product. [For*  
 299 *example, from the time an apple was grown and picked from a tree until its presentation at*

<sup>5</sup> 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.

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 CO<sub>2</sub> 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:

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

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.<sup>6</sup> 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 <sup>7</sup>	Mean (SD)	2.46 (0.90)	2.54 (0.86)
Index: objective knowledge <sup>8</sup>	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

<sup>6</sup> 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.

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

<sup>8</sup> 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.<sup>9</sup> 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.

---

<sup>9</sup> 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 <sup>2</sup>	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&lt;0.05; \*\*p&lt;0.01; \*\*\*p&lt;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 environment alism</i>	<i>Avid environmentalist</i>	<i>Low knowledge</i>		<i>Price sensitive</i>	<i>Avid environmentalist</i>	<i>Open to environment alism</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 <sup>2</sup>		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 <sup>2</sup> = 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 <sup>2</sup> = 0.73					

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

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

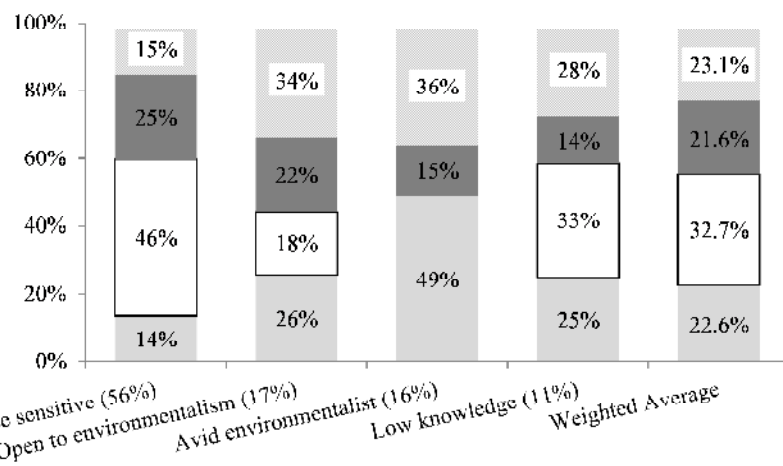
<i>Model for Choices</i>		<i>Ground beef</i>					<i>Potato</i>				
		<i>Class1</i>	<i>Class2</i>	<i>Class3</i>	<i>Class4</i>	<i>Overall</i>	<i>Class1</i>	<i>Class2</i>	<i>Class3</i>	<i>Class4</i>	<i>Overall</i>
		<i>Price sensitive</i>	<i>Open to environmental alism</i>	<i>Avid environmentalist</i>	<i>Low knowledge</i>		<i>Price sensitive</i>	<i>Avid environmentalist</i>	<i>Low knowledge</i>	<i>Open to environmental alism</i>	
Absolute size		711	426	332	111	1579	632	568	253	126	1579
Relative size		45%	27%	21%	7%		40%	36%	16%	8%	
R <sup>2</sup>		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<sup>b</sup></i>	<i>Class4</i>	<i>Wald</i>
CO <sub>2</sub>	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 <sub>2</sub> O <sup>a</sup>	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 <sup>2</sup> = 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 <sup>2</sup> = 0.70					

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

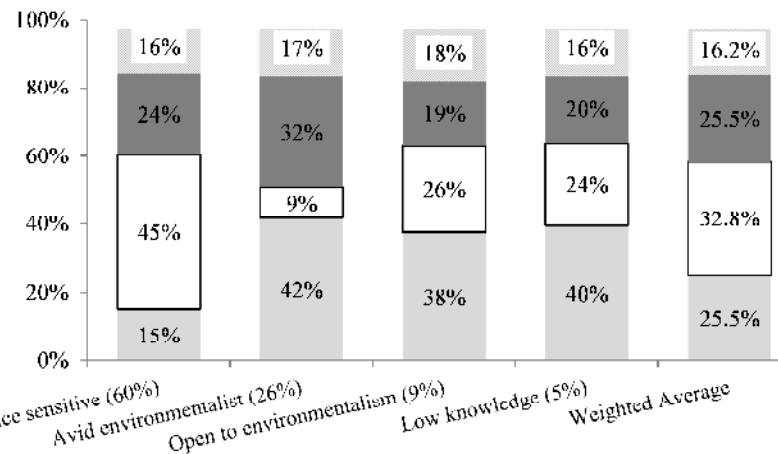
<sup>a</sup> Coefficients for H<sub>2</sub>O were restricted to be equal across segments for ground beef; <sup>b</sup> Coefficients for CO<sub>2</sub> and H<sub>2</sub>O were restricted to 0 for Class 3 for potatoes

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

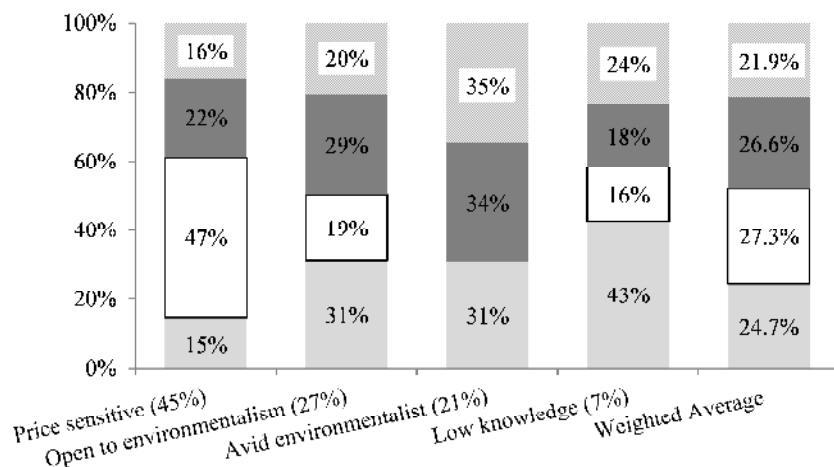
## Ground beef



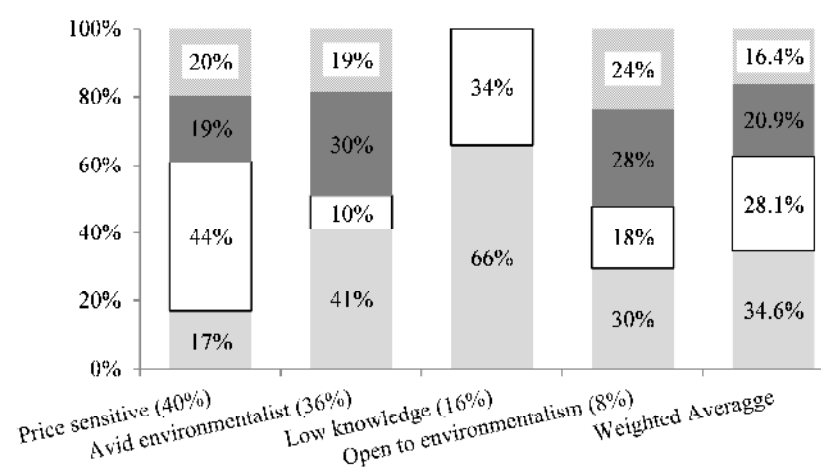
## Potato

*Germany*

## Ground beef



## Potato



■ CO2 ■ H2O □ Price ■ No choice

414

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

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

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

#### 434 *Ground beef choices*

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

#### 500 *Potato choices*

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

554

## 555 **Discussion**

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

659

## 660 **Conclusions**

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

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

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

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

697

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ACCEPTED MANUSCRIPT

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?

<b>1 kg of ground beef</b>	<b>Alternative A</b>	<b>Alternative B</b>	<b>Alternative C</b>
Carbon (CO <sub>2</sub> ) 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:			

**Highlights**

- Test role of subjective and objective knowledge, usage experience on choice making
- Analysis of psychometrics, demographics, preferences for environmental footprinting
- Latent class choice modelling carried out for data from Canada and Germany
- Choices made for ground beef and potatoes labeled for carbon emission and water usage