

**THE ROLE OF LOCAL FOOD IN RESTAURANTS: A COMPARISON
BETWEEN RESTAURANTS AND CHEFS IN VANCOUVER, CANADA
AND CHRISTCHURCH, NEW ZEALAND**

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ABSTRACT

Restaurants and chefs have been recognised as potentially influential actors in efforts to promote local food systems. Yet their role is not well documented in academic literature. Using a pragmatic paradigm and comparative study approaches, this research examines foodservice establishments (hereby restaurants and chefs) perceptions, motivations, barriers and constraints in buying and promoting local food ingredients on their menus from local suppliers (hereby farmers and/or farmers' market vendors and wholesale distributors) in Vancouver (Canada) and Christchurch (New Zealand). This research also examines farmers and/or farmers' market vendors and wholesale distributors perceived barriers and constraints to working with restaurants and chefs. To date studies that examine farmers and/or farmers' market vendors and wholesale distributors' perspectives on the benefits and barriers to marketing local products and supply relationships directly to local restaurants are lacking. This study investigated these aspects using a mail survey of foodservice establishments (restaurants and chefs) complemented by in-depth semi-structured interviews with restaurants and chefs, farmers and/or farmers' market vendors, and wholesale distributors. A mail survey was administered with 759 establishments in Vancouver and 455 establishments in Christchurch. Interviews were conducted with 31 restaurants and chefs, 12 farmers and/farmers' market vendors, and six wholesale distributors in Vancouver. In Christchurch interviews were conducted with 28 restaurants and chefs, eight farmers and/or farmers' market vendors, and ten wholesale distributors.

The research found differences in local food perceptions, buying and/or selling experiences and perceived benefits and/or motivations and obstacles with local food sourcing activities. The results indicated Vancouver and Christchurch restaurants and chefs have a favourable attitude towards the purchase of local food products through farmers, farmers' market vendors, and wholesale distributors, though there is no consensus on what local means. The results also indicated that restaurants and chefs most preferred method of purchasing local food was through wholesale distributors in both samples because of the convenience with respect to time, price, quality, customer services, and logistics issues, while price fluctuations and the on-time delivery of products were mentioned as obstacles for sourcing from wholesale distributors by restaurants and chefs. Common barriers for purchasing local foods from farmers for restaurants and chefs and wholesale distributors included inconsistent quality, inadequate availability, and transportation and delivery logistics. Whereas, larger time commitment to source locally was

revealed as the major barrier to restaurants and chefs not purchasing locally in both samples. However, the higher price of products was reported as an obstacle by restaurants and chefs.

Barriers in selling to local restaurants and chefs by farmers and farmers' market vendors included small volume and placing the orders on-time, delivery costs, and cost of production; while, restaurants and chefs satisfaction with local wholesale distributors have created new opportunities for farmers to work collaboratively with them in including more local food products in their distribution channel. Stakeholders described economic factors, social interactions, and social-emotional goals for participating in local food systems. The findings demonstrated that relationship building with local farmers that allowed trust building over time appeared to be the key factor that affects local food purchasing decisions for restaurants and chefs and wholesale distributors in both study areas. Establishing personal relationships emerged as the primary reason reported by farmers for selling in the region. Several important distinctions of benefits and/or motivations also emerged between stakeholder groups. Restaurants and chefs and wholesale distributors were motivated by a desire to obtain fresher products and higher quality products in their purchasing decisions of local foods. The other reasons wholesale distributors favoured purchasing in region were customer demand, supplier loyalty, and faster availability of the products associated with shorter transport distances. From the perspective of farmers and/or farmers' market vendors strategies for selling regionally were personal satisfaction, products appreciation, and being paid fairly for products.

Results reveal that chefs are opinion leaders; chefs utilise wait staff, menu descriptions, and other form of communication tools (e.g. social media) to promote local foods to their customers in both samples. The study further indicated that local foods have an important role in the culinary tourism experience. Research results also revealed the most significant differences between Vancouver and Christchurch respondents in relation to their suppliers' performance in terms of: guaranteed consistent of product quality, food safety assurances, ability to deliver quantity needed or ordered, and convenience in order process.

The major implication of the findings is that farmers need to give greater attention to volume requirements, delivery schedules, food safety assurance, information about product availability, and develop trust-based relationships with their buyers to create better market access for local foods. Policy makers can also help in facilitating food localisation. Furthermore, restaurants and chefs should be engaged in educating their staff about local food if they want to increase their sales and awareness of local foods. Finally, the findings highlighted the relationships between

hospitality businesses and wholesale distributors in the local food system which is yet to be significantly captured in the hospitality and local food literature.

MANUSCRIPTS AND PUBLICATIONS DURING PhD TENURE

- Hall, C.M., & Roy, H. (2013). Barriers and Constraints to the Use of Local Food in the Hospitality Sector: A Meta-Analysis. Paper presented at Tourism, Local Foods and Regional Development Conference, 30 September -1 October 2013, Linneaus University, Kalmar, Sweden.
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LIST OF ACRONYMS

AFI	Alternative Food Initiatives
AFN	Alternative Food Network
ANOVA	Analysis of Variance
B2B	Business-to-Business
BC	British Columbia
BSE	Bovine Spongiform Encephalopathy
CAFO	Concentrated Animal Feeding Operations
CRFA	Canadian Restaurant and Food Service Association
EU	European Union
GE	Genetic Engineering
GFS	Gordon Food Services
GMO	Genetically Modified Organism
HACCP	Hazard Analysis Critical Control Point
IPM	Integrated Pest Management
LPG	Locally Grown Produce
NGO	Non-Governmental Organisation
NMS	New Members States
NRA	National Restaurant Association
PDO	Protected Designation of Origin
PGI	Protected Geographical Indication
PIDS	Producer-Involved Distribution Systems
SARE	Sustainable Agriculture Research and Education
SFSC	Short Food Supply Chain
WOM	Word Of Mouth
WTP	Willingness to Pay

CHAPTER ONE

Introduction

1.0 Introduction

This research examines the relationships involved in the procurement of local food ingredients from local sources and how these shape restaurant menu offerings in Vancouver and Christchurch. This introductory chapter presents the overview of the thesis. The first section provides background to the research; the second section outlines the research objectives as well as the research questions that guided analysis. Finally the chapter concludes with an outline of the thesis.

1.1 Background to Research

Since the late 1990s interest in local foods has increased in popularity among the general public as well as in academic arenas. “Local food” is, of course, not new. Prior to the development of industrialised food systems food had to be sourced locally. Many regional culinary cultures developed because there were no alternatives either as a result of availability or cost (Askegaard & Madsen 1998). In contrast, this new local food trend is grounded in voluntary support of local foodways given the availability of other foods. Locally produced food and locally inspired dishes is a growing food trend in Europe and North America (Fonte 2008). However, the “buzz” over local food has captured the attention of consumers, chefs, journalists, politicians, academics, farmers, and food retailers (Mount 2012). Celebrity chefs promote local food that is “fresh”, “local” and “in season” (Inwood, Sharp, Moore & Stinner 2009). Better taste is often linked to seasonality (Chambers, Lobb, Butler, Harvey & Bruce 2007). The Slow Food movement and concepts like “eat your view” (Pollan 2006) and the “100 miles diet” have attracted substantial public interest (Miele & Murdoch 2002). In recent years consumer demand for local food has appeared to have grown substantially (Wormsbecker 2007; Central Oregon Intergovernmental Council 2012). Locally-based food movements have emerged in North America and Europe in response to the perceived failings and injustices of the global industrial food system on economic, environmental, health, and social indicators of equity (Blouin, Chopra & van der Hoeven 2009; Martinez et al. 2010; Gössling & Hall 2013). As a result, farmers’ markets, food box delivery programmes, community supported agriculture and other farm direct sales have grown in popularity since the late 1990s throughout much of the developed world to access fresh

foods; support local economy, farmers and community; and encourage social interaction (Hinrichs 2000; Feagan, Morris & Krug 2004; Hall 2004a, 2013, 2016; Guthrie, Guthrie, Lawson & Cameron 2006; Brown & Miller 2008; Seyfang 2008; Vecchio 2010; Hall & Gössling 2013a, 2016a).

Canadian municipalities and their counterparts in the United States and other countries have begun to put relocalising the food system on the municipal agenda by forming food policy councils, drafting food charters and adopting mandates to develop “just and sustainable food systems” for cities (Mendes 2008). The key components of such initiatives include the (re)development of urban and regional agriculture and the encouragement of shorter local food supply chains, of which the most visible is farmers’ markets (Hall & Sharples 2008). Farmers markets are also important for urban regeneration projects for their capacity to enliven public space and contribute to local economies (Hall 2016). In Canada, for example, Farmers Markets Canada (2009) report over a billion dollars of sales annually with an overall impact of more than three billion dollars.

While there is no consensus on defining “local” and what constitutes a local food system (Pearson et al. 2011), most definitions are based on a general idea of where local food comes from (Dunne, Chambers, Giombolini & Schlegel 2011; Hall 2013). Local food systems are variously described as face-to-face agricultural markets (Hinrichs 2000), local food networks (Jarosz 2008), politically constructed boundaries (Selfa & Qazi 2005), and as an alternative to conventional food systems (Mount 2012). They are also closely related to ideas of “sustainable culinary systems” which, as the name suggests, focus on the social, environmental and economic dimensions of food systems including the role of restaurants, catering and foodservices (Hall & Gössling 2013b).

Although not receiving as much attention as other parts of the culinary system, restaurants have not been completely neglected in local food studies (Starr et al. 2003; Ilbery & Maye 2006; Inwood et al. 2009; Sims 2010). Restaurants are important partners in building support for local food and can respond quickly to “take advantage of the latest trend almost as quickly as the fashion world” (Slavens 2005, p.16), and one of the latest trends in the restaurant purchasing sector is local food (Tanyeri 2008). Restaurants are an extremely significant stakeholder in local food systems to purchase, promote and provide local foods. To increase customer interest, restaurants have a number of communication tools (such as menus and promotions) that they utilise to convey important information about local foods to their customers (Pratten 2003).

Restaurants' recent increased use of local foods has also been noted (Alfnes and Sharma 2010). The US National Restaurant Association's (NRA) *What's Hot* publication has consistently claimed that locally grown products are the number one trend for restaurants over multiple years from 2009 to 2015 (NRA 2009, 2013, 2015). In Canada, according to the Canadian Restaurant and Food Service Association (CRFA) 2012 Canadian Chef Survey conducted in early 2012, local foods were the hottest trend and the hottest menu trend for the third straight year. The 2013 survey conducted by the CRFA had locally sourced foods topping the trend list again.

The growing trend of local food in restaurants is also reflected in the desire by many visitors to experience a local culture through its foodways (Hjalager 2002; Fields 2002) as well as domestic support for local foods. Local styles of preparation, ingredients, and presentation are integral to the cultural culinary experience. As Richards (2002) noted:

As competition between tourism destinations increases, local culture is becoming an increasingly valuable source of new products and activities to attract tourists. Gastronomy has a particularly important role to in this, not only because food is central to the tourist experience, but also because gastronomy has become a significant source of identity formation in postmodern societies. (Richards, 2002, p.3)

Restaurants are not only a place to eat; they can be an experience (Müller 1999) and an attraction within the tourism sector (Apfel 1998). However, sourcing ingredients locally has become a critical issue for better-quality restaurants in maintaining quality food tourism products (Jones & Jenkins 2002).

The growing interest in local foods has been explored largely from the consumer's perspective (e.g. Kneafsey et al. 2008; Martinez et al. 2010) and the role of farmer's markets (Hall 2013), with relatively less attention being given to the other actors in the local food system such as restaurants, producers and foodservice wholesalers and the interrelationships between them. In particular, there are few studies on chefs' perceptions of the benefits of local products, guests' interest in local ingredients, or challenges in purchasing local ingredients (e.g. Strohbehn and Gregoire 2002, 2003; Smith & Xiao 2008; Inwood et al. 2009; Murphy & Smith 2009; Casselman 2010; Sims 2010; Duram & Cawley 2012; O'Donovan, Quinlan & Barry 2012; Sharma, Moon & Strohbehn 2014; Kang & Rajagopal 2014).

The demands for local foods by restaurants are clearer. For instance, studies have argued that restaurants use local foods to differentiate their products and add value (Alfnes & Sharma 2010). The products produced by local food systems are frequently equated with notions of quality,

freshness, wholesomeness and superior flavour (Inwood et al. 2009). Some of the other perceived benefits of local food purchasing by restaurants include good public relations, supporting local producers, safer food and superior taste, supporting the local economy, ability to purchase small quantities, and improved customer satisfaction (Mitchell & Hall 2004; Thilmany & Watson 2004; Green & Dougherty 2008; Inwood et al. 2009; Schmit, Lucke & Hadcock 2010). Nevertheless, a number of perceived barriers to restaurant purchase of local food have been identified in studies including payment procedure conflicts; lack of knowledge; inconvenient ordering and delivery times; limited availability; variable costs, packaging and handling; and inadequate distribution systems (Feenstra, Lewis, Hinrichs, Gillespie & Hilchey 2003; Green & Dougherty 2008; Curtis & Cowee 2009; Inwood et al. 2009).

Despite the known barriers (Green & Dougherty 2008; Curtis & Cowee 2009; Inwood et al. 2009; Casselman 2010), local food sourcing has been linked to enhanced economic development in local communities and providing opportunities for both producers and restaurants to promote environmental sustainability and create positive perceptions with customers (Hall et al. 2000; Hall et al. 2003; Hall 2004a; Hall & Mitchell 2008; Jensen 2010). As Bachmann (2004, p.1) suggests, “selling to local chefs is among the alternatives that will help to build a diverse, stable regional food economy and a more sustainable agriculture”. Sharma et al. (2014, p.130) also argue that “direct marketing to restaurants can be an important factor in the economic and financial viability of local food networks”.

However, producer and wholesale distributors’ perspectives on the benefits and barriers to marketing local products and supply relationships directly to local restaurants are less clear in empirical research. Furthermore, in contrast to the image portrayed in the food media with respect to the chef regularly purchasing supplies from the farmers’ markets (Scoop Media 2011; CUESA 2012; Martell 2012), little is known about the role of restaurants and chefs as purchasers and users of local food from farmers’ markets. This research therefore, examines restaurants and chefs’ perceptions, motivations, barriers and constraints of buying and promoting local food ingredients on their menus from local suppliers. A comparative analysis between Vancouver (Canada) and Christchurch (New Zealand) is conducted to attempt to identify the extent to which different governance strategies and interventions may affect the use of local foods as well as the relationships between restaurants and chefs, farmers and/or farmers’ market vendors, and wholesale distributors. The study will help to identify strategies for a more successful sustained local purchasing and/or selling by these supply chain actors.

1.2 Research Objectives and Research Questions

The objectives of this research can be summarised as follows:

1. To identify how the notion of local food is defined by restaurants and chefs, farmers and/or farmers' market vendors, and wholesale distributors;
2. To identify the motivations and constraints surrounding the supply of local food to restaurants and chefs from farmers and/or farmers' market vendors, and wholesale distributors; and
3. To investigate how restaurants and chefs promote local food on their menus.

These objectives will be pursued through the following series of subsidiary research questions:

Restaurants and chefs:

1. How do the restaurants and chefs define local food?
2. What motivations and challenges do restaurants and chefs have for accessing local foods from the farmers and/farmers' market vendors, and wholesale distributors?
3. What types of relationships do restaurants and chefs have with farmers and/or farmers' market vendors and wholesale distributors?
4. How do restaurants and chefs communicate messages about local foods to their consumers?
5. How do the restaurants and chefs view culinary tourism?
6. What are the future prospects of purchasing local foods from local sources?

Farmers and/or farmer' market vendors and wholesale distributors:

1. How do the farmers and/farmers' market vendors, and wholesale distributors define local food?
2. What motivations and barriers do farmers and/or farmers' market vendors and wholesale distributors have for selling their products to restaurants and chefs?
3. What types of relationships do farmers and/or farmers' market vendors and wholesale distributors have with restaurants and chefs?

4. What is the farmers' and/or farmers' market vendors' future prospects of selling local foods to the restaurants and chefs?
5. What is the wholesale distributors' future prospects of purchasing local foods from farmers and/or other suppliers?

1.3 Overview of Research Methodology

This thesis adopts a pragmatic research paradigm to provide participants with a “voice” (Creswell 2009; Wilson 2014) and to stress the methodological importance of reflexivity where the researcher is an insider to the study (Bell 2005; Chavez 2008). This research used a comparative mixed methods approach in two different locations: Vancouver and Christchurch. Triangulation of data sources and methods, and combining qualitative and quantitative techniques enables a richer understanding of restaurants and chefs purchasing experiences with local food products (Creswell & Clark 2007; Creswell 2009). A postal survey of foodservice establishments was complemented by semi-structured interviews with restaurants and chefs, farmers and/or farmers' market vendors, and wholesale distributors. A survey was conducted on the entire target population for both areas and data were collected using a semi-structured questionnaire. Cronbach's alpha or coefficient alpha was used to test the reliability of scales in this study (Pallant 2011). Purposive sampling (McBurney & White 2004; Neuman & Robson 2009) was used to select restaurants and chefs participants in this study, while a convenience sampling technique was used to identify farmers and/or farmers' market vendors and wholesale distributors (Hair, Babin, Money & Samouel 2003). Research methods will be discussed in more depth in Chapter Four.

1.4 Thesis Outline

This thesis is presented in nine chapters. The current chapter (Chapter One) establishes the broader context of the research presented in the thesis. It outlined the research background, objectives of the research and questions, and methodology.

Chapters Two and Three comprehensively review the contemporary literature related to local foods. The research methodology is presented in Chapter Four and discusses the research philosophy, research design, research setting, sampling, and data collection techniques. Chapter Five presents the analysis and results of the survey carried out with foodservice establishments in

Vancouver and Christchurch. Chapters Six and Seven report and discuss findings from semi-structured interviews with restaurants and chefs, farmers and/or farmers' market vendors, and wholesale distributors in Vancouver and Christchurch. Chapter Eight integrates and explores in more depth the main research findings. Finally, Chapter Nine summarises the findings, revisits the objectives, and discusses the academic, managerial, and public policy implications of the results along with the study's limitations and suggestions for future research. The concluding remarks draw together some general reflection on the findings and contribution of the research.

1.5 Chapter Summary

This Chapter has presented an introduction to the thesis. It has outlined the background to the study, identified the research gaps, and stated the research objectives and questions. A brief overview of the research methodology was provided. The next chapter will discuss the definition of local food literature as the first main area of interest in this study.

CHAPTER TWO

Defining and Debating Local Food

2.0 Introduction

This chapter presents one of the main areas of interest in this research: the definition of local food. Hence, this chapter reviews the literature by tracing how various scholars and practitioners have articulated the local and consider some of the elements that influence what counts as local food. This chapter indicates that the concept of local foods is pluralistic in its definition (Holt & Amilien 2007), and can be characterised by reference to a geographical origin, cultural subjectivity, and the social and political environment.

2.1 Defining Local Food

Despite increased media attention and policy awareness, research indicates that the definition of “local food” is complex as are the implications for small scale producers (Winter 2003; Morris 7 Buller 2003; Eden, Bear & Walker 2008; Duram & Oberholtzer 2010; Ballute & Berger 2014; Trivette 2015). It is a socially constructed and contested concept which incorporates geographical locations, institutions and actors including producers, consumers and customers (Watts, Ilbery & Maye 2005). Dunne et al. (2011, p.50) noted that most definitions used are “based on a general idea of where local food is coming from” but there is no consistent definition of “local food” (e.g. Blake, Mellor & Crane 2010; Martinez et al. 2010; Pearson et al. 2011; Hall 2013).

To some extent local food is idiosyncratic and by definition not universal. For example, the understanding of the local food varies with the location of the consumer and may be part of its appeal. According to Futamura (2007, p.220), the term local does not specify whether it refers to the site where the raw food product is grown, the site where it is processed, or the site where it is prepared for home or commercial consumption. Local food means different things to different people in different contexts. Sonnino and Marsden (2006) point out that “local” has a series of different meanings in the context of food that relate to the place and methods of production and exchange, the factors that drive consumer demand, and the influence of producers in the food system. Morris and Buller (2003) also stress that local food to be food that is produced, processed, marketed and consumed within a geographically circumscribed area. Not having a

fixed definition contributes to the complexity and fluidity of the term and the debates surrounding it. However, four domains of 'local' proximity can be identified: geographical proximity, relational proximity, social, economic and environmental proximity, and value added proximity.

2.1.1 Local food as geographical proximity

Proximity here is defined in terms of specific physical (territorial) locality, distance and/or radius within which food is produced (originates), retailed, consumed, and/or distributed. The proximity criterion can often be arbitrary. For example, food and place “are intertwined in robust ways in the geographic imagination” (Feagan 2007, p.23), however, “distances recognizable as 'local' are neither precise nor constant, but contextual” (Hinrichs & Allen 2008, p.342). Born and Purcell (2006) argue that any given scale, e.g. the local, the regional, the national, or the global, is socially produced. But the particular qualities of a given scale are never fixed and can be described in many ways. Bosona and Gebresenbet (2011) and Pearson et al. (2011) stated that local food includes food produced, retailed, and consumed within a specific area. Schönhart, Penker and Schmid (2008) also indicated that local means food grown within a region and regional borders may range from the municipal to the country level or even beyond, and can vary for different types. Morris and Buller (2003) differentiates between local in terms of regions within which products are produced and sold, or in terms of “speciality” or “locality” foods which are intended as value-added products for export to other countries or regions. The food products that are distinguished and coming from defined geographical areas, but may not be necessarily be purchased or consumed in that place, can be referred to glocalism or global localisation (Robertson 1995). Glocal food refers to local-based food characteristics for a specific locality that have been improved for acceptance outside the place of origin (Wilhelmina, Joost, George & Guido 2010).

Defining proximity as distance or radius can also be arbitrary. Rose et al. (2008, p.273) suggest “local food is grown or processed within 100 miles of an individual's residence”. While Smith and MacKinnon (2007) popularised the idea of the “100-mile diet”, the geographical limits set by various initiatives are quite diverse: 74km in Iowa, 250km in Washington D.C. (Halweil 2002); 30-40 miles in most of the UK, and 100 miles in London (La Trobe 2002). Blake et al. (2010, p.423) also conclude that local food “defined in terms of miles is arbitrary and for some inadequate, as to achieve a healthy varied diet might be radius while consumers prefer a 100-mile radius that would give them greater variety in their food choices impossible given the

climatic and physical characteristics of an area”. Food miles are also linked to carbon emissions, climate change, and food security issues. To some extent, this has “served to radically shift the food miles argument away from sustainable agriculture production systems per se to food distribution and retailing and, in particular, the use of carbon in transport” (Coley et al. 2009, p.150). Although Edwards-Jones (2010) claimed that transport is only one part of the food system responsible for emitting greenhouse gases with other parts such as farming methods also responsible.

2.1.2 Local food as relational proximity

Proximity here is defined in terms of relations between actors. Local food constitutes complex networks of relationships between actors, such as producers, distributors, retailers, and consumers, for example, what is sometimes termed as “locavores” (Dunne et al. 2011). According to Mount (2012), local food is often presented as reconnecting the food system through the direct exchange between producer and consumer. For Hinrichs (2000, p.295) relational proximity between producers and consumers is often presented as “immediate, personal and enacted in shared space” and as creating “responsibility, communication, and care for each other and the land” (Kloppenborg, Lezberg, De Master, Stevenson & Hendrickson 2000, p.184). Hinrichs (2000) argues that this type of relational experience is not available to consumers shopping at supermarkets or to farmers selling through conventional commodity markets. Besides bringing the consumers closer to the origins of their food via direct-to-consumer markets, “farmers also engage in direct-to-retail sales with a variety of venues including restaurants, retail stores, and institutions such as hospitals and schools” (Cunningham 2011, p.1094). In this regard, Hinrichs (2000) noted that the face-to-face links between producers, consumers and others, present a counterpoint to large scale, industrialised systems of food production and distribution.

2.1.3 Local food as social, economic and environmental proximity

Proximity here is defined in terms of environmental, economic, and social and cultural dimension of local food and it depends on the participants as well as the methods used to get the local food to the consumers. A study by Smithers, Lamarche and Joseph (2008) found that customers’ motivations for using farmers’ markets varied considerably, from the need to purchase a particular item to the desire to support a local vendor. The latter finding suggests that social relationships, which tend to characterise these food systems, can have economic

implications. In older studies it has been noticed that the “market experience” such as the increased social interactions and higher returns are the most important motives for farmers (Davis 1978; Lyson, Gillespie & Hilchey 1995), while consumers looked for quality and freshness (Lockeretz 1986). Hinrichs (2000) therefore argues that both consumers and farmers have instrumental motives for participating in local food initiatives. Though some are utilitarian (e.g. fresher food for the consumer, higher returns for the farmer) and others moral (e.g. supporting the local economy out of a sense of solidarity, building social relationships in the community), they are nevertheless instrumental concerns. Feagan (2007, p.23) noted that “being conscious of the constructed nature of the “local,” “community” and “place” means seeing the importance of local social, cultural and ecological particularity in our everyday worlds”. Thus, the concept of local food systems explicitly links these wider social, economic and environmental concerns with locality. A local food system is defined as “collaborative effort to build more locally based, self-reliant food economies-one in which sustainable food production, processing, distribution, and consumption is integrated to enhance the economic, environmental and social health of a particular place” (Feenstra 2002, p.100), with the “local” nature of the food system becoming a means to an end. This is even more explicit in Friends of the Earth UK’s definition (La Trobe 2002, p.13) which stipulates local food should deliver:

- Economic welfare benefits to producers and local communities;
- Food security (feeding the ‘food deserts’) and health benefits (‘fresh food’);
- Environmental benefits through diversification of agriculture;
- Environmental and health benefits by minimising the carbon footprint;
- Environmental and health benefits through sustainable farming practices; and
- Social benefits through closer contact between producers, consumers, and the land.

These variations in defining local food reflect the theoretical and methodological challenges to understanding and analysing local food systems, and the potential dissimilarities of local food systems among different regions and localities.

2.1.4 Local food as values of proximity

Proximity here is defined in terms of different values that different actors attribute to local food. Values associated with local food “typically include environmental, environmental sustainability, social justice, organic production, support of local and regional farmers, as well as eating seasonally” (Duram & Oberholtzer 2010, p.100). Additional values of proximity include

convenience, health, and status (Blake et al. 2010); embeddedness, trust, and care (DuPuis & Goodman 2005); social equity and democracy (Tregear 2011); and pesticide free or simply better (Ostrom 2006). The literature on local food systems frequently turns to a set of shared values related to sustainability (Allen, Fitz, Goodman & Warner 2003; Hinrichs 2003; Rose et al. 2008; Blake et al. 2010). From all of these, it becomes clear that values of proximity range across numerous (often combined) perspectives including environment, social, ethical, health, and safety. As Barham (2002, p.350) stated, “there is one unifying characteristic that ties them all together and they all carry explicit messages about a product’s value in registers that are usually considered to be non-market by economists”. The nonmonetary value of place itself, the pleasures of eating, and the sense of community are integral and essential to defining a people in place and, therefore, food in place (DeLind 2006). In this sense, the local tends to be framed as the context where values can flourish (DuPuis & Goodman 2005).

2.2 Chapter Summary

This chapter has discussed the conceptualisation, definition and description of local food. It indicates that there are divergent views among the supply chain actors in defining local food which has an impact on the role and participation of each actor in the local food system. The extant literature also indicates that definitions of local food can be organised around four themes and under these themes people tend to articulate what counts as local. The key principles of local food systems literature will be presented in the next chapter.

CHAPTER THREE

Food Localism

3.0 Introduction

This literature review is organised into three sections. The first section reviews information about food localism in relation to social, economic, and environmental relationships, and tension between informal and formalised production-consumption relationships. The second section reviews farmers' markets and their role in local food systems in relation to various producer and consumers motivations. The third section reviews restaurants and chef's benefits, barriers and constraints of local food procurement in sustainable food/culinary systems.

3.1 Food Localism

3.1.1 Local food systems

Local food systems are variously described as face-to-face agricultural markets (Hinrichs 2000), a re-connection perspective (Fonte & Papadopoulos 2010), local food networks (Jarosz 2000), politically constructed boundaries like a region (Selfa & Qazi 2005), and as an alternative to the disconnected relationships found in conventional food systems (Mount 2012). Local food systems should reduce food miles (Desrochers & Shimizu 2008), and make for fresher food, better quality, and support both localised production practices and local (heirloom) crops or livestock (Rose et al. 2008). However, "the local is not everywhere the same" (Allen et al. 2003, p.63). Other literature under the heading of local food systems include studies on alternative food networks, i.e. farmers markets, community supported agriculture, community gardens (Allen et al. 2003; Macias 2008; Tregear 2011), civic agriculture (Lyson 2000; DeLind 2002), post-productivist (Kristensen, Thenail & Kristensen 2004; Mather, Hill & Nijnik 2006), shortened supply chains (Hinrichs 2003; Renting, Marsden & Banks 2003; Feagan 2007), and the quality turn (Murdoch, Marsden & Banks 2000; Goodman 2003). The following discussion will introduce some of the main features of the local food systems literature.

Local food symbolises a paradigm shift from the globalised and industrialised food system toward local or re-localised food systems (McMichael 2009; Wilhelmina et al. 2010). Local food

systems are generally viewed as a solution to the negative externalities associated with the global industrialised food system, such as deforestation, land use change, biodiversity loss, greenhouse gas emissions, food scares (*Salmonella*, *E. Coli*, Foot and Mouth Disease), loss of cultural identity and traditional knowledge (Schönhart, Schmid & Schneider 2011; Blake et al. 2010; Edwards-Jones 2010; Kremer & Deliberty 2011). Thus, consumers increasingly demand “information about the food’s origin and how it is handled and transported” (Bosona & Gebresenbet 2011, p.293). Such demands can also be viewed as linked to a quest for authenticity (Sims 2009). There are also arguments for local food systems as a tool to facilitate the rise of new and more territorially based rural development paradigms in Western Europe (e.g. Hinrichs 2000), what is sometimes termed as “new rurality” (Kay 2008, p.919).

Local food systems have undoubtedly emerged as a countervailing force against the social and economic effects of globalisation. Local food, by its very definition, implies that its origin can be identified and its processes re-localised, meaning that food production comes back to the local communities and closer to consumers. Although the dichotomy between the global and the local can be misleading, especially if various processes are framed within an apparently coherent concept of local (Hinrichs 2003; Allen et al. 2003). Therefore, DuPuis and Goodman (2005) argue, it should not be assumed that spatial relations self-evidently correspond to desirable forms of social and environmental relations. Other studies also suggest that local food systems are no more likely to be sustainable or ethical than systems at other scales (Born & Purcell 2006; Edwards-Jones et al. 2008).

Nevertheless, local food systems are often expressed in terms of quality (Sage 2003; Goodman 2004), that may combine issues relating to taste, geographical specificity of origin, freshness and seasonality, and healthy production techniques (Buller & Morris 2004). Another major aspect of local food systems is social sustainability including connectivity, reciprocity and trust. References to social embeddedness are made in relation to locally known producers, cooperatives, networks, and even to quality brands issued by an individual producer (Seyfang 2006; Feagan 2007).

However, local food systems have a tendency to focus on “exclusive products and exclusive customers” (Hinrichs 2000, p.301), although rather than “the few who are wealthy, educated, and live in the correct regions; the needs of all consumers (not just white, middle-class consumers) must be considered” (Blake et al. 2010, p.423). Local food systems are often regarded as an alternative to conventional food production (e.g. Feagan 2007; Higgins, Dibden & Cocklin

2008), and are described as a shift away from industrial and standardised modes of production, although alternative systems of food provision also exist along a spectrum of more or less “alternative” versions (Watt et al. 2005). Tregear et al. (2007) commented that criteria should be examined to gauge whether local production can indeed be considered an alternative to mainstream production. For example, the nature of alternativeness is also often used to refer to food production that is organic, environmental friendly, animal friendly, or sustainable. There are also potential impacts of local food systems compare to mainstream systems.

Economic impacts of local food systems

Local food systems have the potential to positively impact the local economy in the form of income and employment growth. Ross et al. (1999), Marsden, Banks and Bristow (2000), and Ikerd (2005) suggested that expansion of local food may be a development strategy for rural areas. Starr et al. (2003), Zepeda and Li (2006), and Darby et al. (2008) also noted that farmers’ retention of greater share of the food dollar by eliminating money going to the “middlemen” as a possible benefit. Furthermore, Roininen, Arvola and Lähteenmäki (2006) assert that local food systems may encourage growth in local labour market. Expansion of local food systems could impact local economies through the purchase of food produced within a local area instead of imports from outside the area. For example, Swenson (2009) noted that local food systems generate additional income when workers and businesses spend on production inputs and other products within the area. Many empirical studies suggest that local food systems can have a positive impact on local economies (e.g. MacKenzie 2004). Sadler et al. (2013) estimated the direct economic impact of London farmers’ market at Ontario was CDN\$4.8 million with a 1.47 multiplier created. Thus, the annual impact of the London farmers’ market is CDN\$7.0 million. These values include the financial impact directly of market vendors, the impact of money recycled by those vendors in the local economic region and the impact of spending by market visitors in the surrounding community. In relation to the labour income and employment growth, Hughes et al. (2008) estimated that farmers’ markets in West Virginia generated \$656,000 in annual labour income, \$42.4 million in industry output, and 69.2 full-time equivalent jobs.

Pearson et al. (2011, p.889) also suggest that the local food system offers opportunities for tourism and further positive associated economic impacts, “due to local branding and recreational shopping opportunities. The revenue achieved in all of these local businesses tends to remain in the local economy, where it has a multiplier benefit through adding to employment in other service industries in the local community”. On the other hand, some authors argue that local food systems are a product rather than a driver of socio-economic development (Tregear,

2011). This is also supported by Ricketts et al. (2006), who note that alternative food networks tend to be located in areas rich in resources and possessing a diverse agricultural base.

Health and nutritional benefits

Local food systems have positive effects on health and education. Potential health benefits have been cited as justification for farm-to-institution marketing programmes and farm to school programmes (Vogt & Kaiser 2008; Bagdonis, Hinrichs & Schafft 2009). Vogt and Kaiser (2008) and Bagdonis et al. (2009) claim that local food systems may provide health benefits from improved nutrition, obesity prevention, and a reduced risk of chronic diet-related disease. Others have also suggested that promoting locally grown food can improve community health outcomes (Conner & Levine 2007; Thompson, Harper & Kraus 2008).

Local food may affect health and nutrition in two ways. First, local food systems may offer food items that are fresher, less processed, and retain more nutritional values (e.g. due to the shorter distance travelled) than items offered in non-local food systems (Edward-Jones et al. 2008; Ikerd 2011; Lea 2005). Locality may be only one factor that determines product freshness or retention of nutrients (Lee & Kader 2000), while the link between travel distance and nutrient content has not yet been established (Vogt & Kaiser 2008). Second, local food systems may increase the availability of healthy food items in a community and encourage consumers to make healthier food choices, as Morland et al. (2002) and Moore et al. (2008) suggest, improved access to healthy foods is associated with healthier dietary choices. However, Glanz and Yaroch (2004) and Ver Ploeg et al. (2009) argue that it is unclear that there is a relationship between improved access and health outcomes or those local characteristics, as opposed to access in general, play an important role in consumer and dietary choices.

Food security

Local food characteristics have commonly been associated with efforts to improve food security, particularly at the community level. According to Nord, Andrews and Carlson (2009, p.2), food security means that all people at all times have access “to enough food for an active, healthy life”, and is a necessary condition for a nourished and healthy population. Those who are food insecure have limited or uncertain availability of healthy and safe food or have uncertain ability to acquire food in normal ways. In 2008, more than 6.7 million households in the United States had very low food security due to reduced food intake and disrupted eating patterns (Nord et al. 2009). Direct marketing has been the key component for the US community food security programme, with the goal of reducing community food insecurity and supporting rural

communities by strengthening traditional ties between farmers and urban consumers (Kantor 2001). Farmers' markets are also associated with food security programmes in the USA because they are increasingly capable of accepting benefits from Federal and State food and nutrition programmes (e.g. food stamps, which provides financial assistance for purchasing food to low- and no-income people living in the US) (Thilmany & Watson 2004). The potential for local food systems to improve food security is conceptually similar to claims related to health benefits. That is, expanding local food options may increase the availability of healthy food items and reduce uncertainty, particularly in areas with limited access to fresh food (Cowell & Parkinson 2003).

In local food systems, environment (Freedman 2009) and resultant access to food are important determinants of health (Coveney & O'Dwyer 2009), and local food can have an impact on food accessibility in various ways (Smith & Morton 2009). Inadequate food access can lead to a food insecure state, which in turn increases the likelihood of poor health outcomes at the individual, household, and population level (McEntee & Agyeman 2010). There is a common perception that inadequate food access cannot exist in rural areas since the "rural" is equated with agriculture (McEntee & Agyeman 2010). Although it is well established that environmental influences play a role in food selection and diet in urban settings (Freedman & Bell 2009), concurrent efforts to identify parallel outcomes in rural contexts are lacking, though a small number of rurally focused food access studies exist (Sharkey 2009; McEntee & Agyeman 2010).

Despite the use of local food as a strategy for reducing food insecurity, very limited empirical research has been conducted to examine local foods efficacy in reducing insecurity (e.g. Anderson et al. 2001; Johnson, Beaudoin, Smith, Beresford & LoGerfo 2004). Kunkel et al. (2003) suggest that healthy eating habits are associated with participation in the Senior Farmers' Market Nutrition Program and in the Women, Infants and Children popularly known as WIC Farmers' Market Program when nutrition education accompanied coupon distribution. Although these programmes are important components which impact food security (McCullum et al. 2005) several other studies shows that food security is primarily influenced by factors such as economic conditions, income, and poverty status (Tarasuk 2001; Nord & Andrews 2002).

Dietary quality and consumption

Incorporating the perceived benefits associated with the purchase of local food could provide individuals with a variety of reasons to make changes in their dietary patterns (Rose et al. 2008). Rose et al. (2008) also noted that many consumers are interested in local eating, and that a diet comprised exclusively of locally produced foods could potentially lead to both positive dietary

changes (such as an increase in fresh produce consumption) as well as potential negative consequences (such as an increase in saturated fat consumption). Results from this study suggested that individuals attempting to follow a local food diet vary in how they execute a local food diet and that following a local food diet may result in a reduction of energy intake. For example, in UK the eating out diet contributed 10.85% of energy intake in 2010, excluding energy from alcohol. It contains more fat and protein but less carbohydrate and non-milk extrinsic sugar than the household diet (DEFRA 2011). Both mono-unsaturated and poly-unsaturated fatty acids are higher in the eating out diet while saturated fatty acids are lower (DEFRA 2011).

Food miles, energy use, water use, and greenhouse gas emissions

In local food systems, the food consumer is not confronted simply with a choice between “local-good” and “global-bad” (Coley et al. 2009). Morgan (2009) and Edwards-Jones (2010) noted the general presumption held by the public and reflected in the media is that local food compared to non-local food releases fewer greenhouse gases. This perception has been reflected through the widespread use of the phrase “food miles” and a popular view is that higher food miles equate to higher levels of greenhouse gases emissions for food items (Edwards-Jones 2010, p.583). Born and Purcell (2006) referred to this as “local trap”. They commented that the local is inherently good and at the same time they stressed that the local scale is not inherently bad either. Regardless of the local food scale, “the outcomes produced by a food system are contextual: they depend on the actors and agendas that are empowered by the particular social relations in a given food system” (Born & Purcell 2006, p.195-196).

Locally produced food is not automatically better for the environment than non-local food just because it is produced closer to the end customer (Ilbery & Maye 2005; Wallgren 2006) and criticism has been directed at the use of distance as a measurement of environmental impact (Coley et al. 2011). According to Saunders and Hayes (2007), food is travelling further from farmers to consumers as the food systems increasingly relies on long-distance transport systems and global distribution networks. Proponents of the localisation of food systems argue that reducing transport distance for food, or food miles, can reduce fossil fuel energy use, pollution, and greenhouse gas emissions (Brown 2003; Lea 2005; Selfa & Qazi 2005; Anderson 2007; Thompson et al. 2008; Vogt & Kaiser 2008).

Distance is clearly a factor that affects the energy use and emissions resulting from food transport. Saunders and Hayes (2007) also found that transportation carbon-dioxide emissions

are greater for imported produce than domestic. The highest ratio of emissions was the product (cherries) imported from North America by the use of air freight. On the other hand, apples imported from New Zealand travelled a greater distance, but had a lower emissions ratio because they travelled by sea, a highly energy efficient means of moving goods. Similar results have also been reported in a case study by Pattullo (2005) in a tropical island location, where foodservice providers are typically serving high-protein food to upscale tourists. Such tourists often, at least in the perception of hotel managers, expect the foodstuffs they know from home. In such locations, a large share of the food is often imported by air, including food items such as soft drinks, dairy products and even vegetables (Gössling et al. 2011). While this represents an extreme situation, even in regions such as Europe, the USA or Australia, transportation of foodstuff can imply considerable greenhouse gas emissions.

Other contributions to energy use and emissions are related to production, processing, packaging, and storage, while preparation is also important for overall impact of local food systems. For example, Swedish greenhouse tomatoes require 66 MJ cycle input per kg whereas fresh and open grown Southern European tomatoes require 5.4 MJ life cycle input per kg (Carlson-Kanyama et al. 2003). For storage, studies have shown that storage to allow out of season consumption of apples can account for over 40% of a products energy inputs (circa 2 MJ/kg) (Saunders et al. 2006). Canals et al. (2007) study of domestic and imported apples also considered seasonality and the loss of produce during storage.

Energy use for preparing food in the local food system is also considerable, but there is evidence that catering kitchens can be more efficient than household kitchens in preparing food, if calculated on a per-meal basis (Carlson-Kanyama et al. 2003). At the same time, restaurants can offer more complex and hence energy-intense menu creations, also generating higher amounts of food waste (Swedish Environmental Protection Agency 2008). With regard to packaging, food service providers could also consider the implications of various materials in generating greenhouse gas emissions and waste (Kuo, Hsiao & Lan 2005).

Edwards-Jones et al. (2008) identified that direct emissions from activities, such as production and transport, and emissions generated during the manufacture of inputs, such as fertiliser, pesticides, water use, and electricity are also significant. Fertiliser is the most significant indirect energy input, in particular nitrogen fertiliser, because of its high use (especially in developed countries) and high energy use in its manufacture (Wells 2001). In agriculture there are a wide range of agrichemicals used for a variety of purposes. The energy requirement to manufacture

agricultural ranges considerably from between 5 MJ/kg to 440 MJ/kg of active ingredients (ai). Energy involved in formulating, packaging and transportation adds approximately a further 110 MJ/kg ai, and the CO₂ emission rate is constant across all types, per energy use (Wells 2001).

With respect to water use, the most water using/consumption activity is in irrigation for agriculture, which accounts for 70% of total water withdrawals and more than 90% of consumptive water use (Bates, Kundzewicz, Wu & Palutikof 2008). Agriculture is the most important factor in the future growth of water consumption (Bates et al. 2008). Over the past decades, considerable advances in the assessment of the water content of various food stuffs have been identified (Hoekstra 2008; Hoekstra, Chapagain, Aldaya & Mekonnen 2012). For example, to produce 1 kg of wheat may require between 500 and 4,000 litres of water, while 1 kg of beef requires at least 10,000 litres of water (Hoekstra & Chapagain 2007). A considerable amount of the water footprint of the culinary system is also lost in the form of waste. Aldaya and Hoekstra (2010) analysed the water footprint of pizza and pasta products in Italy. The authors concluded that a pizza with a weight of 0.725 kg entails a water footprint of 1.215 litres, 73% of this a result of mozzarella cheese, 24% related to wheat flour, and 3% to tomato puree. In tourism, a considerable share of overall water use also appears to be a result of food consumption. For instance, Gössling et al. (2011) and Gössling, Hall and Scott (2015) suggest that accommodation, traditionally seen as the major factor in water consumption (including water use in guest rooms, swimming pools, gardens, kitchens, and golf courses), is small in comparison to the water footprint of food.

Empirical studies of food transportation energy use and greenhouse gas emissions do not necessarily support whether local food systems are more energy emissions-efficient or not, as there is great variation in local food markets and issues such as seasonality. Foodstuffs consumed outside of the season will generally be required to have been imported or stored. Energy usages increase due to many months of cold storage, which further increases the greenhouse gas emissions per kcal. Gössling et al. (2011) also suggested that to reduce the greenhouse gas emissions, foodservice providers should focus on ensuring that seasonal foods are not used when they are out of season, except perhaps when there are opportunities to store them at minimal energy cost.

In some cases local and regional food systems are more efficient (Pirog 2001; Jones & Jenkins 2002; Blanke & Burdick 2005; Coley et al. 2009), and distance is an important factor in

determining environmental impacts from transportation (Pretty, Ball, Lang & Morison 2005). In contrast, distance is neither an adequate measure of impact (Saunders & Hayes 2007), nor in some cases particularly relevant, as transportation may account for a relatively small share of total energy use and emissions in the food system. In the United States, agricultural production, processing, and household storage and preparation each account for a larger share of food system energy use than transportation (Heller & Keoleian 2003). Total energy use and emissions are affected by differences in inputs used in each segment in the food supply chain (Carlsson-Kanyama, Ekström & Shanahan 2003), production practices and natural endowments (Saunders et al. 2006), and crop yields and fertiliser use (Kim & Dale 2008; Lehuger, Gabrielle & Gagnaire 2009). Finally, Weber and Matthews (2008) suggest that differences in types of food products and diet composition may have important implications for energy use and emissions in the food system. For minimum impact on the environment, the local food system should include all of the following general characteristics: be local, seasonal, and use ecologically sound production methods (Kneafsey et al. 2013).

3.1.2 Local food and consumers

Consumers commonly view local food as more genuine, natural and environmentally friendly, of high quality and better in terms of employment and rural development (Ikerd 2005; Selfa & Qazi 2005; Roininen et al. 2006; Gracia, De Magistris & Nayga 2012). Interest in maintaining open landscapes and protecting biodiversity are some of the other reasons why consumers support local and smaller-scale production (O’Kane 2012). In recent years, consumer demand for local food has appeared to have grown substantially. Local food movements have emerged in North America and Europe in response to the perceived failings of the global industrial food system on economic, environmental, health, and social indicators of equity (Feenstra 1997; DeLind 2002; Hinrichs 2003; Winter 2003; DuPuis & Goodman 2005; Allen & Hinrichs 2007; Hinrichs & Lyson 2007; Mendes 2008; Johnston 2008; Smithers et al. 2008; Anderson 2008; Blouin et al. 2009; Martinez et al. 2010; Gössling & Hall 2013). In North America, the driving force behind the local food movement is consumer demand (Wormsbecker 2007; Central Oregon Intergovernmental Council 2012) and is largely motivated by access to fresher foods, and supporting local farmers and the community (Feagan et al. 2004; Brown & Miller 2008; Seyfang 2008; Vecchio 2010; Hall 2013; Hall & Gössling 2013a). Consumer concerns have also been associated with concepts such as trust, locality and transparency (Renting et al. 2003; Sonnino & Marsden 2006). However, the implementation of food localism to date has remained primarily

the responsibility of consumers (DeLind 2002; Guthman 2008; Hinrichs & Allen 2008; Johnston 2008; Lavin 2009).

In Europe, a survey of 26,713 EU (European Union) citizens in 2011 revealed that 90% of respondents thought buying local food beneficial and that the EU should promote their availability (Eurobarometer 2011). Over half of the respondents (55%) agreed that EU citizens should encourage local markets and distribution channels and over half agreed that there are consumer benefits to buying locally grown food from farms. Over half of the respondents also agreed that it would be beneficial to have labels identifying local products and these respondents were also more likely to recognise the benefits to consumers of buying local foods and to agree that the EU should help make local products more readily available. A more recent Eurobarometer (2012) survey shows that the vast majority of EU citizens say that quality (96%) and price (91%) are most important to them when buying local food. At the same time, a substantial majority of the respondents (71%) said that the origin of food is important. Quality, price and origin are considered important in most Member States with price being especially important for those citizens who have difficulties paying bills. The survey also reveals the differences between the countries. In every Member State except the Netherlands (47%), more than half the respondents regard the geographical origin of food products as important. The vast majority of respondents in Greece (90%) and Italy (88%) consider origin to be important, while in the United Kingdom (52%) and Belgium (56%) these proportions are substantially lower. There are no significant differences between the EU15 (15 countries forming the EU before the enlargements of 2004 and 2007) and NMS12 (12 New Member States which joined the EU during the 2004 and 2007 enlargements) countries on this question. Similar trends to those identified by the Eurobarometer survey have been found in the UK. The UK Institute of Grocery Distribution (2005) found that 70% of British consumers want to buy local food and their 2012 study reported that UK local food consumers remained keen to support local producers and retailers, despite the economic downturn.

Local food aims to “reconnect” consumers with the people and places that produce their food (Kneafsey et al. 2004) and that this connection is a powerful part of an integrated tourism experience (Che 2006, 2010; Clark & Chabrel 2007; Kim et al. 2009). The appeal for local food is considered an important part of the attraction of a holiday and the burgeoning interest in food and wine tourism. Hall et al. (2003), Hashimoto and Telfer (2006), Hall and Sharples (2008), Vitterso and Amilien (2011), Che (2016), and Timothy (2016) associated this food and tourism phenomena with food heritage. This interest is at times gastronomic, as an example in the quest

for high-quality dining, and also ethnographic, when traditional foods and dishes are sought. But tourists' interests in food are complex. Everett (2008) defines food tourism as a desire to experience a particular type of food or the produce of a specific region and distinguishes between those who visit specific food and tourism sites and those who utilise the generic hospitality sector. Cole (2007) indicates that hospitality becomes commoditised and proposes that tourists' perceptions of authenticity vary according to their point of view. From the perspective of food, this may be interpreted as what is perceived as local and traditional.

The attraction of food in tourism is complex in nature and often associated with a search for the real, the true, and the authentic (Taylor 2001). This may be illustrated using particular food products, their production and processing, where elements of the past contribute to an authentic foodstuff and reproduction of the original (e.g. Cheese, cider and clotted cream) (Cleave 2013). Taylor (2001) sees the tourist's desire for authenticity as a result of a world where people feel they have become alienated from nature, and where everyday life is viewed as increasingly inauthentic. As Taylor (2001, p.10) commented:

Authenticity is valuable only where there is perceived inauthenticity. Such is the "plastic" world of the consumer. Enamoured by the distance of authenticity, the modern consciousness is instilled with a simultaneous feeling of lack and desire erupting from a sense of loss felt within "our" world of mass culture and industrialisation and giving rise to possibilities of redemption through contact with the naturally, spiritually and culturally "unspoilt."

Soper's (2007) work on "alternative hedonism" also reflects consumer concerns with the "inauthentic" nature of modern life. Soper (2007) argues that many people are changing their consumption practices, not just to limit what they see as the undesirable side effects of modern lifestyles, but also because they have become dissatisfied with the supposed "pleasures" that come from consuming in this way. Consequently, they are choosing different forms of consumption that they consider both ethically sound and personally pleasurable. Similar themes have also been explored by other authors (e.g. Barnett, Cloke, Clarke & Malpass 2005) who argue that the rise of ethical consumerism associated with the Slow Food and Fair Trade campaigns challenges the popular view of the consumer as an entirely self-interested and egotistical person. Instead, they argue that such behaviour involves "new forms of citizenly action being configured through creative redeployment of the repertoires of consumerism" (Barnett et al. 2005, p.233).

As a result of food scares consumer confidence in the conventional food sector has decreased (Lloyd et al. 2006), with consumers feeling alienated from modern-day food production (Sims

2009). From these concerns, local, and by extension, alternative food initiatives (AFIs) and movements have surfaced. Buttel (2006) and Harrison and Wolf (2008) noted that conventional food production processes have been recognised as deeply unsustainable, in environmental, economic and social terms. Industrial agriculture is heavily dependent on fossil fuels, required for the production of chemical inputs, the operation of farm machinery and the long-distance transport of produce (Jones 2001). In many areas, mainstream agricultural methods are reliant on unsustainable water sources and result in the dramatic depletion of soil resources (Harris 2009, p.357). Moreover, agriculture is a significant source of greenhouse gases, contributing to global climate change (Baumert, Herzog & Pershing 2005). The air and water pollution associated with industrial agriculture also continue to cause significant environmental and social damage, most evident in the controversies surrounding concentrated animal feeding operations (CAFOs) in the USA (Pew Commission 2008).

Feenstra (1997) argued that local food is an economically viable alternative to the local global industrial system by providing specific steps to be taken by citizens to facilitate the transition between the two. Examinations of these forces have dominated food provision studies (Winter 2003) until relatively recently when attempts to counteract the imbalances (ecological, social, and economical) of an increasingly globalised supply chain have become commonplace. It ranges from embracing sustainable farming methods on behalf of farmers, to fair trade campaigns, to using urban gardening. Numerous manifestations of these activities exist and have been reviewed extensively elsewhere (e.g. Allen et al. 2003); essentially, all are categorised by a desire to create socially, economically viable and environmentally sustainable food systems. It is from this movement that local food arguably emerges. Gottlieb and Fischer (1996) also suggested that food security could be achieved with the addition of local food sources to the supply chain. Local food efforts are grouped under the umbrella of AFIs; programmes intended to counteract the ecological, social, and economic impacts of a globalised food system and which represent “a resistance to large producers and retailers” (Illbery & Maye 2005, p.825) which “is certainly thought to be a key characteristic of, and motivation for, the initiation of so-called alternatives” (Binns, Bek, Nel & Ellison 2007, p.333).

Consumers are being urged to support local farmers, sustain the regional food supply, and consume a healthier diet through the purchase of local foods directly from producers and the production of seasonally and geographically appropriate foods that have been grown and raised at home or in the local community garden (Smith & MacKinnon 2007; Morrow 2008). These consumer focused behaviours, for example, ethical shopping and eating, are often portrayed as a

“win-win”, whereby “consumers can eat delicious local seasonal fresh food and save the environment at the same time” (Holloway & Kneafsey 2000; Connell, Smithers & Joseph 2008; Johnston & Baumann 2009, p.169). Indeed, the “turn to quality” discourse has become an integral component of local food consumption (Winter 2003; Smithers et al. 2008, p.340). In further discussion researchers have noted that consumers have different perceptions on purchasing of local foods. In the following section, consumers different preferences for purchasing local foods are explored.

Consumer perceptions on production and producers

Studies relating to consumer perceptions of production and producers have yielded a variety of results (Table 3.1). Roininen et al. (2006) found that in Finland, rural consumers consider local food as a way to support local production and create economic welfare in an area; whereas, for the urban consumers local food is linked with animal welfare, environment and health. Both rural and urban consumers identified short transportation distances as a reason for local food preference. Selfa and Qazi (2005) also examined consumers in rural and urban Central Washington State, USA where, both rural and urban respondents indicated that purchasing decisions reflect how they define and value such factors as sustainability, locally, and/or organically produced food. However, urban consumers expressed less preference for buying local food as a way to support farmers. Although a majority of the rural and urban area consumers purchased their food from direct markets, urban consumers did not make the link between buying local and the importance of supporting farmers and farmland as often as did rural consumers. This indicates that urban consumers’ purchasing patterns may reflect a greater awareness and concern for environmental and human health, whereas rural consumers are more inclined to make purchases that supported producers and the local economy (see also Chambers et al. 2007).

The British survey by Weatherell et al. (2003) reported, on average, sympathetic views on farming-related questions and suggested that rural consumers show a greater interest in local foods than their urban counterparts. The researchers found that the rural consumers live closer to farming activities and have more frequent contact with farming communities than urban consumers. Tregear and Ness (2005) also found in a study conducted on the perceptions of organic shoppers that parental like characteristics were assigned to local farmers, including nurturing, supportive and protective characteristics, and that buying local was like belonging to a family (Zepeda & Deal 2009).

Table 3.1 Consumer perceptions related to local food production

Authors	Consumers' Characteristics	Types of consumers and area	Country
<i>Taste and freshness</i>			
Ragaert et al. 2004; Pèneau et al. 2006	Freshness is decisive attitude for the consumer choice of fruits and vegetables.	Urban (Flanders) Urban (Winterthur)	Belgium Switzerland
Pèneau et al. 2006	Freshness is decisive attitude for the consumer choice of locally produced food products.	Urban (Winterthur)	Switzerland
Kahn & Prior 2010	Freshness is one of the most important reasons for buying locally produced food products.	Urban (Wolverhampton and Birmingham)	UK
Wolf et al. 2005	Consumers perceive local produce to be fresher looking and fresher tasting.	Urban (San Luis Obispo County)	USA
Pearson et al. 2011	Taste and freshness is one of the main reasons for consumers to buy local products.	Urban (Reading and Berkshire)	UK
Selfa & Qazi 2005	Food quality, especially taste and freshness are very important attribute for consumers to buy local food.	Urban (King County, Washington) and Rural (Grant and Chelan Counties, Washington)	USA
Hall 2013	Freshness was the most important when purchasing products at farmers' market.	Urban (Lyttelton and Riccarton in Christchurch)	New Zealand
Spilková et al. 2013	Consumers prefer farmers' markets because they believe products are fresher and better taste than regular stores.	Urban (Prague)	Czech Republic
Dodds et al. 2014	Quality of products offered was the primary motivators to visit farmers market.	Urban (Toronto)	Canada
Pearson et al. 2011	Through buying consumers feel they support the community.	Urban (Reading and Berkshire)	UK
Ballute & Berger 2014	Concern for local farmers (community responsible) was the most significant motivator for local purchases.	Urban (Northeastern United States)	USA
<i>Supporting the local community</i>			
Gracia et al. 2012	Consumers purchase local food because they aim to support local economies.	Urban (Zaragoza)	Spain
Marenick et al. 2010	The British Institute of Grocery Distribution (IGD) found as second most important reason to buy locally produced food products, the support of local food producers.	Urban	UK
Food Marketing Institute 2009	Support for the local economy is a reason for 75% of US shoppers for buying local food at direct markets or in conventional grocery stores.	Urban and Rural	USA
Murphy 2011	Product quality was the key motivator for consumers shopping at farmers' market. Consumer prefers farmers' markets because they want to support local community.	Urban and Rural	New Zealand
Dodds et al. 2014	Ability to support the local community was the greatest motivation for purchasing local food from farmers' market.	Urban (Toronto)	Canada
Bean & Sharp 2011	A strong appreciation of local agriculture and a desire to support local farmers, whose loss is perceived as having consequences for local communities and their economies, as one of the reason identified as motivating consumer support local food systems.	Urban (Ohio)	USA
Roininen et al. 2006	Locally produced food considered to support local economy (Mikkeli).	Rural (Mikkeli, Eastern Finland)	Finland
Selfa & Qazi 2005	Locally produced food is less preference for supporting local farmers, farmland, and local economy.	Urban (King County, Washington); Rural	USA

Bean & Sharp 2006; Pearson et al. 2011	Consumers believe locally produced foods are more sustainable than conventional produced food products.	(Grant and Chelan Counties, Washington) Urban (Ohio) Urban (Reading and Berkshire)	USA UK
<i>Sustainability</i>			
Food Marketing Institute (FMI) 2009	Environmental impact of transporting foods across great distances are a reason for 35% of US shoppers for buying local food at direct markets or in conventional grocery stores.	Urban and Rural	USA
Gracia et al. 2012	Consumer purchased local foods to reduce environmental impact of transportation.	Urban (Zaragoza)	Spain
Roininen et al. 2006	Locally produced food considered to respect environment and animal welfare.	Urban (Espoo, Helsinki)	Finland
Edwards- Jones 2010	Consumer's popular view is that greater food miles equate to higher levels of greenhouse gas emissions for food items. A problem with this viewpoint is that transport is only one part of the overall food system. All other parts of the food systems are also responsible for producing greenhouse gases, and without further analysis it may be wrong to assume that the transport element of the system is dominant in terms of greenhouse gas production.'	Urban (Cornwall)	UK
Roininen et al. 2006	Short transportation distance was related to good taste, lower price, freshness and saving money.	Rural (Mikkeli, Eastern Finland)	Finland
Selfa & Qazi 2005	Locally organic produced food considered to environment and human health.	Urban (King County, Grant, Chelan and King Counties, Washington)	USA
Murphy 2011	Consumer considered importance of healthy and seasonal local and organic food as the primary reason in purchasing at farmers' market.	Urban and Rural (country-wide)	New Zealand
Dodds et al. 2014	Healthier diet and environmental concerns were the motivations to purchase from farmers' market.	Urban (Toronto)	Canada
Ballute & Berger 2014	Local food considered to be less harmful to the environment and contributes to sustainability of individuals as small-scale farmers.	Urban (Northeastern United States)	USA
Delind 2006	Knowing where food products are coming from is regarded as a quality attribute. In many cases, regional provenance is recognized as providing social, economic and health benefits for the producers and consumers.	Urban (Lansing, Michigan)	USA
<i>Provenance</i>			
Pearson et al. 2011	Consumers better trust local food because the source is known.	Urban (Reading and Berkshire)	UK
Hingly et al. 2010	Consumer needs to feel a connection with the food they eat; therefore a main task is conveying this through marketing strategies.	Urban (Lincolnshire)	UK
Pearson et al. 2011	Consumer in general perceives local food as healthier over non-local food. Personal health benefits may arise from local food networks as they increase the availability and diversity of seasonal foods that may encourage the purchase of more fresh and unprocessed foods.	Urban (Reading and Berkshire)	UK
Pearson et al. 2011	Authenticity (not being associated with mass production) is one of the reasons for consumers to buy locally produced food products.	Urban (Reading and Berkshire)	UK
Teuber 2011	The growing consumer interest in product attributes such as authenticity has fuelled the demand for regional foods.	Urban and Rural (country-wide)	Germany

Consumers' perceptions on local food consumption

Consumers' perceptions in relation to the consumption phase of food such as purchasing and eating have also been studied. Chambers et al. (2007) suggested that in terms of taste, local food that is in-season is perceived as superior. Roininen et al. (2006) and Telfer and Hashimoto (2013) uncovered that high prices are the only negative association related to locally produced food. Chamber et al. (2007) also identified price as one of the most silent features by a focus group study. Khan and Prior (2010) identified that urban consumer perceptions and trends regarding purchasing locally produced food is "too expensive" followed by "not readily available" and "no time to find it". Similar results are reported from a study by McEachern et al. (2010). They have also noted that interest in local food seems to increase with age; this is also supported from a study by Eurobarometer (2011).

Perceived affordability is one of the barriers to local food becoming more popular (Little, Maye & Ilbery 2010). Zepeda and Deal (2009) found that enjoyment and the frequency of cooking significantly increase the probability of buying local food, whereas higher costs significantly reduce the probability of buying local food. Local food may be more difficult for consumers to find than mainstream food due to seasonality constraints and accessibility (Hardesty 2008). Little et al. (2010) and Kahn and Prior (2010) found that limited accessibility was the second most important constraint for local food to become more popular. In another consumer study by Zepeda and Deal (2009), reasons for buying local food were all based on values, beliefs, and norms. Food purchasing behaviour may have shifted from organic to local, due to the perceived commercialisation of organic foods and the industrialisation of organic farming practices. However, knowledge, information seeking and habit are also important in understanding why consumers choose organic and local foods.

Consumers' willingness to pay more for local foods (WTP)

Consumers consider many factors when making food decisions with taste, convenience, cost, and health among the factors influencing food choice (Sobal et al. 2006). Darby et al. (2008) also note that consumers associate many attributes with "local" including freshness, support for the local economy, support for small farms, and environmental sustainability. Darby et al. (2008) found that grocery-store shoppers were willing to pay more for a "freshness guarantee" marked as "harvested yesterday" than for food that was produced within closer proximity but not "guaranteed" fresh. On the other hand, direct-market shoppers were willing to pay more for both

attributes, but placed a higher premium on information about production location (proximity) than on a marked freshness guarantee. Pirog and McCann (2009) also identified that consumers were willing to pay more for a food system that has a net reduction in greenhouse gas emissions. Of the respondents to their survey who shopped at venues where locally-grown foods were offered, 58% were willing to pay more and 38% indicated they would pay the same. Similarly, the UK Institute of Grocery Distribution (2005) found that 36% of British consumers expressed interest in paying extra for the locally produced food, despite the economic downturn. In the USA, Caprio and Isengildina-Massa's (2009) study estimated that consumers are willing to pay an average premium of 23% to 27% for State produced products.

Findings related to demographic characteristics for willingness to pay more for local foods are not consistent across studies. Gender is a significant determinant (e.g. Gracia, Magistris & Nayga 2012). Carpio and Isengildina-Massa (2009) identified age, gender, and income as well as product quality, a desire to support to local economy and agriculture, and patronage of farmers' markets as influencing increased willingness to pay for South Carolina produce. Carpio and Isengildina-Massa (2009) found female respondents more likely to pay higher for animal products, while in Ohio male respondents were more likely (Darby et al. 2008). These findings differ from those of Tregear and Ness (2005), who found demographic characteristics less influential. But Brown's (2003) study of consumers in Missouri had contradictory results. In this study female respondents were more likely to pay higher or lower prices than the same price.

Differences in knowledge also mattered for the consumers' willingness to pay for local food. James et al. (2009) found that respondents with higher knowledge had lower willingness to pay for locally produced food. In contrast, studies in Missouri (Brown 2003) and South Carolina (Carpio & Isengildina-Massa 2009) found that having been raised on a farm or having worked in agriculture increased willingness to pay for locally produced food. Table 3.2 summarises the results of studies that have examined the determinants of willingness to pay for locally produced food.

The available studies show that willingness to pay a premium for local food is not limited to consumers with higher incomes. Consumers with higher willingness to pay placed higher importance on quality (Brown 2003; Carpio & Isengildina-Massa 2009), nutrition (Loureiro & Hine 2002), the environment (Brown 2003; Pirog & Larson 2007), generic local food (Toler, Briggeman, Lusk & Adams 2009; Adams & Adams 2011), and helping farmers in their State (Carpio & Isengildina-Massa 2009).

Table 3.2 Consumers characteristics associated with willingness to pay extra for local foods

Author, Location and food type	Methods	Major findings
Adams & Adams 2011 Alachua County, Florida Fruits and vegetables	Farmers' markets intercept survey Two-stage cluster analysis N = 97	Consumers are willing to pay more for a generic local food ranging from 48 to 107% more, on average, among three distinct groups of farmers' market shoppers in Florida. Local food is more costly and more difficult to access.
Gracia et al. 2012 Zaragoza, Spain Lamb meat	Experimental auction to identify consumers' WTP for a local products	Consumers are willing to pay a premium for local lamb meat. Social influence affects WTP values but the effects were different between men and women. Social influence positively affects WTP for women, while the effect was negative for men.
Hu et al. 2011 Kentucky and Ohio Blackberry jam	Mail survey and experimental design to identify WTP for local food with labelled as a product of small farms.	Consumers are willing to pay a premium for locally produced foods (value added products) when labelled as a product of small farms to support small family farms.
Denver & Jensen 2014 Denmark Organic and local food	On-line survey to identify consumers WTP for organic and local foods.	Consumers are willing to pay a higher price premium with regards to organic or locally produced foods.
Brown 2003 Southeast Missouri All food	Mail survey Asked to identify whether would pay a price that lower, the same, or higher for products labelled "locally grown" vs. unlabelled products of the same quality N = 544	Female respondents are more likely to pay more or lower price than the same price. Significant, positive: Farm background and member of an environmental group. "Quality is the utmost concern" "Not significant": Age, income, education, and rural.
Carpio and Isengildina-Massa 2009 South Carolina Produce and animal products	Telephone survey Contingent valuation with dichotomous choice N = 500	Significant, positive: Female buyers of animal products Income for produce (significant and positive but small), but not significant for animal products. Perceive local foods to be higher quality for produce and animal products Motivated by desire to help State economically than concern with price or quality for produce and animal products Significant, negative: Perceive local food to be of lower quality for produce and animal products
Darby et al. 2008 Ohio Strawberries	Face-to-face interview and shopping intercept surveys Conjoint analysis N = 477	Consumers' willingness to pay for local production is independent from values associated with product freshness and farm size. "Not significant": Age, ethnicity, income, education, support for local production, household composition, and rurality.
James et al. 2009 Rural Pennsylvania Applesauce	Mail survey Choice experiment/conjoint analysis N = 1,500	Significant, negative: Knowledge of agriculture, environment, and nutrition.
Loureiro & Hine 2002 Colorado Potatoes	Supermarket intercept survey Contingent valuation N = 437	Significance, positive: Importance of nutrition "Not significant": Gender and age, Presence of children under 18 in household.

Toler et al. 2009 Edmond Farmers Market and a traditional grocery store, Oklahoma All food	Intercept survey Fehr and Schmidt (1999) model in a WTP framework N = 102	Consumers in Oklahoma are willing to pay 33% more for a generic local good and 70% more if the farmer is perceived as less well-off compared to the consumer. Consumers at farmers markets were no more or less concerned about inequity or local farmers than were consumers shopping at a traditional grocery store.
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Food miles and consumers' food choice

In local food systems, food miles also potentially influence consumers' food choice. Sirieix, Grolleau and Schaer (2008) conducted a study based on focus groups and interviews of French consumers which revealed that "Consumers are aware of distance and associated it with the complexities of food supply chains, but they do not take distance into account when they choose food products" (p.511). An earlier study of UK consumers found differences between rural and urban consumers, with older, more rural, and higher social class respondents showing a greater interest in "local" produce (Weatherell et al. 2003). "In terms of interest in local foods, many consumers expressed support for them in principle, although in practice, other pragmatic factors came into play" (Weatherell et al. 2003, p.236). As Kemp et al. (2010, p.506) notes, the issue of food miles as a determinant of consumer food purchasing behaviour "needs to be examined in the wider context of many factors that influence food choice, rather than examining distance food has travelled as if it were an over-riding attribute or cue".

Consumers' attitude towards food labelling

Food labels that communicate the origin of foods are becoming more prominent as a result of consumer and legislative concerns over the quality, safety, environmental and social attributes of foods (McCluskey & Loureiro 2003; Krissoff et al. 2004; Verbeke 2005). Therefore, extensive research on Protected Designation of Origin (PDO)/Protected Geographical Indication (PGI) has been conducted and provided some insight of this attitude towards food labelling. The name of the region of origin provides consumers with information about the quality of the product and consumers may use this origin information as a quality cue (e.g. Van der Lans et al. 2001; Van Ittersum et al. 2003). Van Ittersum et al. (2007) found that consumers' appreciation of regional certification labels provides opportunities to increase consumer demand and is a strong determinant of consumers' willingness to pay for protected regional products. "Regional certification labels help increase the market transparency of regional product-quality, enabling consumers to make better choices and in this way increase consumer welfare" (Van Ittersum et al. 2007, p.18). Regional certification is also significant for signalling product authenticity and quality (Van der Lans et al. 2001; Van Ittersum et al. 2003). Carpenter and Larceneux (2008)

found that PDO/PGI level influences the quality perception and purchase intention positively for consumers. However, studies have also found that regional certification is subject to misunderstanding and misinterpretation (e.g. Grunert 2005; Verbeke 2005), and does not always work as indicator of quality (e.g. Desquilbet Hassan & Monier-Dilhan 2006). This is due to many factors: poor recognisability of PDO/PGI logos; confused and fragmented information; and emergence of numerous brands that promote local origin of food products (Grunert 2005; Vecchio & Annunziata 2011).

Empirical findings from consumer studies diverge significantly with respect to whether labelling cues such as geographical indications have a favourable impact on product valuation by consumers (Bonnet & Simioni 2001; Van der Lans et al. 2001; Roosen, Lusk & Fox 2005). Other researchers claim that much information about food quality is irrelevant to consumers as it does not address particular needs and expectations (Salaün & Flores 2001; Verbeke 2005). Qualitative studies of consumer behaviour in relation to local food systems and labelling also emphasise the complex and context-dependent nature of consumer decision making. For example, Kneafsey et al. (2008) stressed that interpretation of consumers as either “knowledgeable” or “ignorant” tend to downplay the situated practices of consumption and the ways in which consumers interpret the wide range of information they are exposed to. Eden et al. (2008) examine how consumers understand food production and assurance information and challenge the assumption that more knowledge will reconnect producers and consumers, because “people do not simply act on information in a linear or predictable fashion” (Eden et al. 2008, p.4). A good example can be provided from a Eurobarometer (2012) survey of 26,593 respondents found that 67% of EU citizens check food purchases to see if they have quality labels indicating specific characteristics. However, only 22% of those polled say that they always check for these labels, while 45% say that they do this sometimes and 32% of respondents never check.

Consumers’ attitude towards food safety

Food safety is noted as an important reason that consumers prefer locally and organically grown produce (Bond et al. 2008; Yue & Tong, 2009; Onozaka, Nurse & McFadden 2010). Tobin et al. (2012) examined consumers’ perceptions regarding the safety of local and organic produce in Pennsylvania, USA, and revealed that consumers place high importance on the issue of produce safety with females having significantly higher produce safety perceptions than males. The overwhelming majority of respondents to their survey preferred that the government inspect farms for on-farm food safety practices. Regardless of gender, race, age, location, income group,

educational level, or shopping venue, consumers in the 50 counties included in the study were concerned with the safety of the produce supply. These results support previous findings that consumers perceive the attributes of “locally grown”, “organically grown”, and “inspected” to verify compliance with on-farm food safety standards (Pirog & Larson 2007; Yue & Tong 2009; Onozaka et al. 2010).

Repeated food scares have raised public anxieties, especially regarding pesticide content, the use of artificial additives, salmonella, Bovine Spongiform Encephalopathy (BSE), *E. coli* 0157, foot-and-mouth disease, genetically modified foods and the presence of dioxins in animal feed (DeLind & Howard 2008; Constance 2009). At the same time demand for healthier food products is also increasing, as the widespread availability of cheap processed food high in fat, sugar and salt contributes to rising levels of obesity and other diet-related disease (Belasco 2008). While demand for organic food has risen in response to concerns about food health and safety, consumers are also increasingly turning to “local” food products in order to avoid the perceived safety risks associated with large-scale industrial food production and processing, and the loss of trust between consumers and producers (Starmer, Kulick & Ogburn 2009). “Many advocates of food system reform cite the disconnection of consumers from producers, and the sense that food systems have become disembedded from the communities and societies that they serve” (Harris 2009, p.358). Feagan (2007, p.38) also describes this sense of disconnection:

The geography of the modern food system reveals that, as food chains become stretched further and in more complex ways across space, we experience both the physical and psychological displacement of production from consumption and all of the other disconnections and disembedding which follow in that stead – loss of rural agricultural resilience and diversity, degradation of the environment, dislocation of community, loss of identity and place.

Local food systems are multidimensional and complex. Tregear et al. (2007) has rightly concluded that local food systems should not be considered as a singular concept and market if they are to be analysed and understood in an accurate and comprehensive way. Since the concept bears different meanings in different situations, it is important to understand the broader context surrounding the local food systems (Kakriainen 2004).

3.1.3 Supply chain management and local food systems

Supply chain management

Supply chain management seeks to “design a firm’s customer relationship, order fulfilment, and supplier relationship processes and to synchronize these processes with the key processes of its

suppliers and customers in order to match the flow of services, materials, and information with customer demand” (Krajewski & Ritzman 2005, p.395). Heizer and Render (2008) defined supply chain management as the integration of the activities that procure materials and services, their transformation into intermediate goods and final products, and delivery to customers. Initially, supply chain management was used to reduce the delivery time in the wholesale and retailing industry for logistics management. It now refers to integration and partnership efforts with first-and-second-tier suppliers to reduce costs, improve quality, and ensure on-time delivery (Wisner & Tan 2000). Fiala (2005) explained the structure of a supply chain is composed of potential suppliers, producers, distributors, retailers, and customers. These entities are interconnected by material, financial, information and decision flows, as well as changes in value (“value” refers to the value added to the product by activities at each step in the chain, as well as the value created by the product and activities and then captured by each of the actors involved) and they function together for moving tangible goods, accessing supplies, arranging transportation and handling inventory (Chopra & Meindl 2004).

Supply chain management in local food

The use of supply chain management in food is not as yet mature in terms of practitioner adoption or academic attention (Kathawala & Abadou 2003). Supply chains of locally produced food have been referred to as alternatives to conventional supply chains or as non-conventional food networks (Venn et al. 2006). Sonnino and Marsden (2006) analyse the boundaries between conventional food systems and locally food systems where they advocate the notion of embeddedness, including both horizontal and vertical dimensions. According to Sonnino and Marsden (2006) this vertical dimension refers to hierarchical linkage of supply chain actors at the local level to the larger society of which they are part. Thus, the analysis of vertical embeddedness within locally produced food systems requires a supply chain approach that covers the linkages between relevant supply chain actors. The direct and indirect relationships between producers and consumers are central to the supply chains of locally produced food. Sustainability in the food supply chain is also a combination of environmental, social and economic dimensions (Helenius et al. 2007). Cowell and Parkinson (2003) identified three main sustainability-related arguments, which are used for promoting the relocalisation or localisation of food production and consumption: the reduction of environmental impacts by way of shorter transportation distances; the potential reduction of environmental degradation and exploitation of human labour; and an increased sense of community through local networks of producers and consumers.

The main phases of the supply chain of locally produced foods are production, refining, transportation, retail and consumption. All agricultural processes and farm activities conducted by the producers is done under the production phase. Producer perspective of locally produced food has been studied where trust, familiarity, and safety are the crucial elements of local food (Jokinen et al. 2008). However, farmers also perceive their own position as being economically vulnerable in the supply chain. “Producers as consumers” types of agenda also exist, where food is grown directly by those who consume it, such as in community gardens and community food co-operatives (Venn et al. 2006). The refining and transportation phases include the treatment processes of a fresh product, packaging and transportation distances. The retail phase refers to all activities associated with the retailer, including purchasing, product layout, and marketing and consumer service. Locally produced foods are generally sold through conventional supermarkets, online grocers and wholesalers (Venn et al. 2006). The retailer as a middleperson can be eliminated completely by establishing direct sales relationships including farmers’ markets, farm gate sales, mobile food shops, box schemes and producers co-operative in locally produced supply chains (Venn et al. 2006). These types of direct-sale initiatives (excluding internet approach) increase face-to-face contact between producers and consumers (Zepeda & Deal 2009).

In the context of the supply chain of locally produced food, studies on consumer perceptions concerning food transportation are also playing a centre role. Consumers generally have “shorter chain” associations with locally produced food (Tregear & Ness 2005). Roininen et al. (2006) observed in their Finnish study that transportation distances were a major reason for the preference of purchasing locally produced food. Rural consumers associate short transportation distances with superior taste, lower price, freshness and saving money, whereas urban consumers mainly made associations to animal welfare and a respect for nature (Roininen et al. 2006). Consumers also connected food quality and freshness with shorter transportation distances in a British study (Chambers et al. (2007). Although the distance from production site to market place may be shorter, in some cases locally produced food may require a greater distance between market place and consumers. In this context Zepeda and Deal (2009) noted that having a local food market nearby and processing a means to get there can be crucial to the rationale behind buying local food.

Retail is also an important factor in the supply chain of locally produced food for the consumers. A survey by Weatherell et al. (2003) showed that the majority of consumers rated supermarkets as their preferred option for accessing local food instead of a market. They suggest that

consumers expect locally produced food to correspond to their regular shopping habits, retail outlets and end-product formats. This was because of time constraints, convenience and opportunities associated with current lifestyles and consumers' value product variety, and the year-round availability that imported foods provide (Chambers et al. 2007). However, there are also contradictory consumer perceptions with respect to locally produced food in supermarkets. In a Finnish study, Paloviita (2010), found that consumers do not consider locally produced food to be something which can be or should be purchased in supermarkets, whereas other consumers expect to find more locally produced food in supermarkets (as suggested by Weatherell et al. 2003). Urban versus rural residency might possibly explain such differences in consumer perception (Weatherell et al. 2003).

Supply chain management for local food products are mainly discussed within the framework of the Short Food Supply Chain (SFSC) (Ilbery & Maya 2005). New food chains have been established in which shortening the relationship between producers and consumers is a key element, especially in Europe and the United States (Moynihan & McDonough 2008). Marsden et al. (2000) also used this term to describe the supply chain for local food products. As Marsden et al. (2000, p.426) make clear, "it is not the number of times a product is handled or the distance over which it is ultimately transported which is necessarily critical, but the fact that the product reaches the consumer embedded with information". This information "enables the consumer to confidently make connections and associations with the place/space of production, and potentially the values of the people involved and the production methods employed" (Marsden et al. 2000, p.425). The differentiation of products in this way, in theory, allows products to command a premium price, if the information provided to consumers is considered valuable. An important principle of SFSCs is that the "more embedded a product becomes, the scarcer it becomes in the market" (Marsden et al. 2000, p.425).

Marsden et al. (2000) and Renting et al. (2003) identified the following three types of SFSC to explain where and how a producer might 'alternatively' sell their produce:

- *Face-to-face*, where producers sell their products directly to the consumer on a face-to-face basis such as farmers' markets or their own farm shop. The focus here appears to be on local food rather than on locality foods, although it is possible for locality foods to also be sold in outlets such as a farm shop. The internet presents opportunities for a variant of face-to-face trading – although research by Canavan et al. (2007) has to some extent problematised the extent to which internet trading can replicate the experience of buying direct from the person who has made the food. Other examples of face-to-face SFSCs are farmers markets, farmgate sales, pick-your-own, roadside sales.
- *Spatial proximity*, where local food products are sold through local market channels including farm retail markets, village shops, tourist sites, food service outlets and local food retailers and

supermarkets. In this relationship the focus is a geographical area that embeds the customer in the territory of production.

- *Spatially extended*, where products are sold not only to consumers in the locality but also to consumers in other regions including online food retailing. Labeling and certification programs can be used to differentiate these products emphasising “quality” thereby focusing on selling local foods as “locality” products.

Renting et al. (2003, p.401) also identified different “quality conventions” associated with SFSCs (Figure 3.2). The first type stresses links with the place of production or producer. The clearest example of these is regional speciality foods, including PDO and PGI. A second group stresses bioprocesses and appeals to consumer concerns about environmental sustainability and

Regional or artisanal characteristics paramount (link with place of production or producer)	Ecological or natural characteristics paramount (Link with bioprocesses)
Designation of origin (for example, Protected denomination of origin/ Protected geographical indication) Farm or cottage foods typical, speciality On-farm processed traditional fair trade	Organic Integrated natural healthy, Safe free range GMO free

←—————→

‘hybrids’

Figure 3.1. Quality conventions in SFSCs. Source: After Renting et al. (2003).

food safety. Renting et al. (2003, p.401) acknowledge that the distinction between these may be blurred and that producers actively construct “hybrid” quality conventions which draw on both dimensions.

In the context of SFSC for quality food products, Murdoch et al. (2000) suggest a territorial embeddedness that links product to place, along the lines of more established European local food cultures. However, Tovey (2003) found in her analysis of artisan cheese producers in Ireland that use of quality conventions and territorial embeddedness is misleading. She argues that distinct quality differences exist between specialist and industrial producers, and is often social (“adding-value regimes”) rather than spatial. Thus, industrial producers talk about “food ethics”, whereas specialist producers talk about “production aesthetics” (Ilbery & Maye 2005, p.827). Ilbery and Maye (2005, p.827) also noted that “all producers at various scales are therefore engaged in adding-value regimes and in the making of quality claims, which lead to a contestation between alternative and industrial regimes that is different from that between locally embedded and globally disembedded food systems”.

However, there is a debate whether it is the quality or local dimension that is more important in alternative food supply chain systems (Weatherell et al 2003). Winter (2003) uses the concept of

defensive localism to suggest that the turn to local is more important than a turn to quality which is based on, for instance, organic or ecological principles. Thus, “the turn to local is not just about alternative food systems; rather, it can cover different forms of agriculture (including conventional forms) and a variety of consumer motivations” (Ilbery & Maye 2005, p.827). For this reason, Morris and Buller (2003, p.565) added two more types of localism to defensive localism. The first type is “flexible localism” where “local food provisioning is a means to an end, rather than an end in itself”. Here, producer and retailers use local in a very fluid sense, in case if they need to go beyond a certain radius in order to maintain their supplies. The second type is competitive localism whereby newer forms of local food activity have an impact on more established producers and retailers and, in turn, lead to different social relations in a locality.

Social embeddedness is another issue raised in the context of alternative food supply chain or SFSC. Hinrichs (2003) and Tovey (2003) alluded that economic behaviour is embedded in, and mediated by, a complex and extensive web of social relations. In the case of local (alternative) foods, both economic relations (e.g. prices and markets) and social relations (e.g. local ties and trust) are seen as vital for success. Social interaction may take the form of acknowledgement, attention, respect, friendship, or sociability, all of which can be subsumed within the concept of “regard”. With this respect, Sage (2003) for example, noted the importance of the local geography of regard in the development of alternative food networks in southwest Ireland.

Apart from the debate of alternative local food system or SFSC, there are some advantages linked to initiatives of shorter food supply chains (SFSCs) which is discussed here. Several authors interchange SFSC with direct selling (Sini 2009). Renting et al. (2003) suggest short food supply chains are one of the most competitive possibilities for organic farmers to create a preferred channel of communication with consumers that favour trust and liability, with the capability of exploiting all three dimensions of SFSC (Face-to-face, Spatial proximity, and Spatially extended). Furthermore, the organic production process associated with SFSC is often considered as a strategic relationship in terms of engendering rural development with the empowerment of environmentally friendly and social/cultural attitudes compared to mainstream food chains (Gilg & Battershil 2000).

SFSC is also considered as an improved connection between production vs. territory and producers vs. consumers, and is identified as a successful application of “alternative food network” (AFN) concepts (Goodman 2004). Renting et al. (2003) defined AFN as the creation of networks of producers, consumers and other actors that embody alternatives to more

standardised industrial modes of food supply (see also Ilbery et al. 2004; Kottila & Rönni 2008). As Goodman (2003) suggests, embeddedness and trust are the key concepts to understand the quality turn in alternative food practices. Embeddedness in this context can refer to the production side by focusing on the typology of product (e.g. local, quality, environmental friendly), as well as the typology of relations that occur within the food supply chain, between producers and consumers (Goodman 2003; Chiffolleau 2009).

Various methodologies have also been used to demonstrate the economic benefits of SFSCs but the methods applied are often not appropriate and transparent (Henneberry, Whitacre & Agustini 2009). Data is often generated through localised case studies and these case studies often utilise questionnaires with farmers or other decision makers and their perception of economic performance may differ from measured performance through farm accountancy networks (e.g. Alonso & O'Neill 2011, Broderick et al. 2011, Connelly et al. 2011). Many studies suggest that SFSCs can contribute towards rural development and economic regeneration. For example, Du Puis and Goodman (2005, p.364) state that SFSCs can be “seen as new sources of value added which can be retained locally and can act as a catalyst for rural economic regeneration and dynamism.” SFSCs create ‘new economic spaces’ (Marsden, Banks & Bristow 2002; Renting et al. 2003), and can reverse the decline of rural services and the depletion in food and farming physical infrastructure (Pearson et al. 2011). Du Puis and Goodman (2005, p.365) also stated that “SFSC are in a position to valorise those qualifiers of ‘the local’ and its socio-ecological attributes terroir, traditional knowledge, landrace species, for example-that can be translated into higher prices”. In this context, the construct of local is deployed to convey meaning at a distance, thereby a source of value, in the form of “economic rent”. Few European studies have been published which quantify the impacts of SFSCs on the economy. However, a study by Kersley and Knuutila (2011) using the Social Return on Investment model (SROI), found that spending on seasonal, local produce for school meals has risen dramatically, returning over £3 in social, economic and environmental value for every £1 spent in two local authority areas in England.

Another advantage of SFSC is that it refers to the increased proportion of value added food production captured by the primary producers (Marsden et al 2000). Customer value creation is a prerequisite for a competitive advantage, and customer value is created when the benefits to the customer associated with a product or service exceed the offering’s costs to the customer (Slater & Narver 2000). Food products from small suppliers are usually expected to provide consumers and supply chain actors with added value in terms of the increased transparency of the food supply chain (Forsman & Paananen 2004). To this extent, by applying Porter’s (1985) value

chain model, the farm operated several functional activities that overcome those related to its pure core business and that contributed to increased product value, value creation, and building relative competitive advantage. In synthesis, the few studies that treated the competitiveness issues within SFSC ended up highlighting the positive role of collective and cooperative structures in order to achieve farmers' competitive and innovative management and marketing practices.

Supply chain management and farmers markets

Batt (2003) identified that direct supply chain relationships can give rise to potential improvement in goods and services in the form of better availability, delivery and inventory control for food retailers. Parker et al. (2006) assert a major benefit of direct food supply relationships is the increased quality, and freshness of the product due to the reduction of intermediaries. Sustainability and traceability have also been proposed as possible benefits of local seasonal produce with minimal environmental impact (Vasileiou & Morris 2006).

In the context of farmers markets, much research stresses that building relationships of trust is a central component and an important benefit of SFSCs (Hendrickson & Heffernan 2002; Moore 2006; Smithers et al. 2008). Sinnreich's (2007) study found that the building of relationships between consumer and producer is essential and provides a unique experience in Polish farmers' markets. They stated that the product can be explained to the consumer and that many people (especially older people) prefer to talk to someone who knows something about the product. Sage (2012) also noted the significance of relationships at farmers' markets in Ireland. Kirwan (2004) found that trust was built through face-to-face interaction between producers and consumers at UK Farmers' Markets. Kirwan (2004, p.401) found that the social benefits were often seen as a "welcomed by-product rather than a primary motivation". Similarly, Ilbery and Maye (2005) found that for the majority of dairy and egg producers interviewed, the establishment of good personal relationships with customers was critically important (Ilbery & Maye 2005). However, Murphy's (2011) study in New Zealand, found that interaction with producers was not particularly valued by consumers, who indicated a preference for a more traditional and passive role.

SFSCs are helpful for rural development and economic regeneration. For example, Du Puis and Goodman (2005, p. 364) found that SFSCs can be "seen as new sources of value added which can be retained locally and can act as a catalyst for rural economic regeneration and dynamism". It is also claimed that shortening the number of links in the supply chain results in increased

local sales, increased demand for local services, and increased labour markets. These impacts can be quantified in terms of multiplier effects (Henneberry et al. 2009). Otto and Varner (2005) reported that farmers' markets in Iowa generated an estimated \$31.5 million of gross sales during the 2004 market season, and the calculated multiplier effect was 1.58. The researchers stated that around \$4.3 million of these effects were "indirect" (including wholesale or supply transactions that support the market vendors) and approximately \$7.2 million were "induced" (a result of personal purchases made by the market vendors and employees). Some studies have also suggested that the presence of SFSCs such as farmers' markets, attract shoppers into areas they would not necessarily visit, and this results in increased trade for local business. Indeed, this has been suggested by Lev et al. (2003) in Oregon, USA, where many farmers' markets shoppers travelled to downtown areas especially to visit the market, and also spent additional amounts of money at neighbourhood businesses.

SFSC have also been also described as a notable source of employment opportunities (Roininen et al. 2006), and positive multiplier effects have been associated with this (Otto & Varner 2005; Henneberry et al. 2009). These employment opportunities may be directly attributed to production and sales (e.g. growing, picking, packing, and selling), or indirectly through the supply and service sectors (e.g. companies providing raw materials, retail outlets). Henneberry et al. (2009) reported that the multiplier effect associated with famers' markets in Oklahoma, USA, was 1.41. However, some authors have argued that the economic benefits can be unevenly distributed, and while some sectors will gain sales, income and jobs, there will be losses in other sectors (e.g. Goodman 2004), and so this raises questions about the magnitude and distribution of local multiplier effects.

There are also farm level economic impacts under the SFSCs. It has been suggested that producers are able to add a price premium when selling through SFSCs (Pearson et al. 2011); that the elimination of the 'middleman' enables farmers to receive a greater share of the profits (Sage 2003); and that SFSCs provide growers with an opportunity to diversify and add value to their produce (Alonso & O'Neill 2011). Despite these claims, few are supported by empirical research. For example, when traders at a farmers' market in New Zealand were asked, in an unprompted way, to supply their reasons for using the market, the main motivation identified was for the "economic" benefits (Lawson et al. 2008): "the desire to obtain a fair price, the wish to avoid middlemen and to obtain a supplementary income" (Lawson et al. 2008, p.19).

Similarly, consumers have the perception that SFSCs offer farmers increased returns. Feagan and Morris (2009) found that a total of 83% of the respondents agreed strongly about supporting local farmers at a Farmers' Market in Ontario. Few studies have quantified these suggested increases in returns, although Lencucha et al. (1998) and Henneberry et al (2009) did estimate that producers selling through farmers' markets receive an additional return of 40-80% as compared to other outlets. However, few studies provide economic data like turnover, prices, costs, labour input, and other management accounting (Mikkola 2008). However, Mikkola (2008, p.203) states that "One difficulty in studying economic relations within supply chains is that they are dynamic, invisible and possibly confidential; they need to be identified and approached rather than sampled."

In relation to adding-value to the produce, Alonso and O'Neill (2011) examined the extent to which small farmers and growers in rural Alabama, USA, are interested in becoming involved with value-adding their product line. They found that much of what respondents grow could be further processed into value-added products. However, research showed that the concept of value-adding produce was little understood amongst many rural farmers. Bloom and Hinrichs (2011) used a value chain model (based on business management studies and adapted to the context of agrifood enterprises) as a framework for investigating how actors who are accustomed to working within the logic of the traditional produce industry incorporate local food into their overall operations. Interviews with the distributors, producers and buyers reveal the sources and outcomes of challenges affecting how the distributors organise their purchasing and selling of local produce. Network practices were important as distributors struggled to pay producers enough to maintain economic viability, while still making local produce accessible to a wide range of consumers. Furthermore, Broderick et al. (2011) suggests that producer-driven family farm marketing of branded meat was a feasible alternative to supplying mainstream buyers where, revenues were stabilised by avoiding the variability in farm-gate prices and labour costs were reduced through the use of family labour. Broderick et al. (2011) also noted that transaction costs were minimised by increasing the volume sold through selling of bulk packs, attendance at well-frequented farmers' markets and cost-effective brand promotion.

In another study, Uematsu and Mishra (2011) examined the impact of direct marketing of farm products to consumers on farm business income. They found that direct marketing strategies have little impact on farmer income, and that the use of farmers markets was negatively associated with income. They suggest that direct marketing to consumers may be more of a risk management tool than a tool for increasing profits or revenue. Lawson et al.'s (2008) survey of

farmers' market traders in New Zealand revealed that only 12% of the stallholders relied on the market as their only distribution outlet. The authors found that most stallholders used a combination of two or three alternative channels to distribute products. This is supported by Ilbery and Maye (2005), who examined the retailing and processing aspects of local food products in the Scottish-English borders. The authors concluded that both conventional and alternative supply chains are important for creating a market for local foods. They found that many small-scale, alternative operators cannot rely solely upon SFSCs and instead mix alternative (short) and conventional (long) chains for both their upstream and downstream service requirements.

Again, apart from the economic benefits of SFSC practices for the farmers market, there are many producers operating SFSCs primarily doing so for ethical reasons, and many put the wider common good ahead of self-interest. In some cases, this means producers often become profit sufferers rather than profit minimisers (Ilbery & Kneafsey 1998). This is illustrated by interviews carried out with farmers in Washington, which reported that one of the farmers did not feel the need to profit from her work as she regarded "her contribution to her community in terms of reciprocity that does not involve capital accumulation" (Jarosz 2008, p.240). While this was only based on the opinion of the one farmer, Jarosz (2008, p.240) states that it does "raise important questions about the sustainability of direct marketing for small farms, and illustrates why some small farmers are ambivalent about the impacts of direct marketing upon their livelihoods". Similarly, Sage (2003) identified farmers in south-west Ireland "for whom the enjoyment of selling through the local farmers' market might compensate in part for their low monetary return. The production of use values together with the grant of regard from a small band of loyal customers does not, however, sustain livelihoods or ensure fulfilment, as the abandonment of smallholdings by disillusioned and "burnt-out" producers testifies" (p.58).

Supply chain management and restaurants and chefs

Information from a restaurant supply chain is essential to a restaurant menu, as information on a menu guides the customer through the food that is offered (Cohen & Avieli 2004). Restaurants require many ingredients in order to meet menu requirements. Therefore, restaurants place particular emphasis on reliability of supply, consistency, quality, and price - all of which relate to the concept of supply chain management. Benefits of supply chain management include: improved co-ordination from supplier to customer; reduced lead times; greater productivity and efficiency; smaller inventories; increased delivery reliability; and lower costs (Nix 2001). At restaurants, a properly managed supply chain also supports the chefs' ability to identify, build

and manage relationships with suppliers (Murphy & Smith 2009). Restaurant's relationships with food suppliers have been known to be initiated and managed by the Executive Chef (Telfer & Wall 1996). Strohbehn and Gregoire (2003) emphasise that in purchasing, the chefs' primary concerns were for product availability, quality, and pricing. Purchasing has to be efficient and effective with other responsibilities, as sourcing ingredients locally rather than from wholesale suppliers can reduce efficiency and effectiveness and take time. According to Tracey and Tan (2001), effectively managing supply chains achieves four dimensions of customer satisfaction including competitive pricing, product quality, product variety, and delivery service. Partnership can lead an increase in information flows, reduced uncertainty, and a more profitable supply chain; ultimately the consumer will receive a higher quality, cost-effective product in a shorter amount of time (Fiala 2005). However, the difference between manufacturer and restaurant supply chains is that restaurants products are perishable and thus have a shorter shelf life. Murphy and Smith (2009) identified that large amount of highly perishable products and potential hazardous products such as protein items add new challenges in comparison to supply chains in other industries. Furthermore, they also argue that foodservice establishments emphasise supply chain management because of the food safety issues, quality, and origin of the products, and the need to accurately convey this information to their customers (Murphy & Smith 2009).

Tracey and Tan (2001) further argued that an effective purchasing function is one of the competencies essential to supply chain success. Reigel and Haywood (1984) cited that chefs are having responsibility for the purchasing decisions over the three positions (purchasing agent/buyer, food service director/manager and administrative dietician). The research revealed that chefs, for the most part, were responsible for product related decisions and the most important purchasing criteria were timing and accuracy. Therefore, purchasing needs to be efficient and effective and is integrated with daily responsibilities. Regal and Haywood (1984) also found how restaurant purchasing is supply driven in relation to the menu items ingredients and different buying procedure. The different buying procedure depends on what is needed; what is desired; and selection of suppliers. This discloses an important facet of restaurant purchasing behaviour which does not follow a traditional demand driven chain. Where, demand driven chains and supply driven chains are two different types of supply chains. Hull (2005) cites two different types of supply chain problems; those are demand driven and supply driven. The demand-driven structure is associated with a well-known problem, the "bullwhip effect" (Lee, Padmanabhan & Whang 1997), which manifests itself when members of the chain, fearful of limited supply, over order to ensure that they receive adequate supplies (Hull 2005). Many

perishable products are supply driven, since they cannot be stored easily while awaiting customer orders. Extreme supply variability can compound the issue because customers must be found during periods of oversupply (Hull 2005). The local produce supply chain handles highly perishable produce, with short shelf-life characterised by seasonal production and local appreciation (Pirog & Paskiet 2004). Hull (2005) also cites that one problem associated with the demand driven supply chain is that it does not always address the possibility that supplies may be unavailable when needed, for example, seasonal produce for the restaurant may not always be in season with the result that chefs may be forced to look elsewhere and seek non-local produce.

Most chefs want fresh and high quality foods with minimum transportation costs. Sometimes chefs are reluctant to buy locally due to the ingredients not being regularly available from locally grown food producers and require negotiations with a number of small vendors in order to get prompt delivery and adequate quantities. However, Strohbehn and Gregoire (2003) found that when chefs have information about package size, production cost, and availability, they were more willing to purchase locally. In contrary, producers usually have tight budgets and they attempt to impose rigid payment systems to protect themselves and their cash flow. In this regard, Murphy and Smith (2009, p.213) noted that “developing a better understanding of mutual needs and concerns on the parts of both suppliers and chefs can lead to benefits for both sides”.

The general consensus of the reviewed research is that restaurant purchasing function is very important but the criteria and procedures must be met and fulfilled in order to achieve the user (chefs) and supplier relationship to work. However, relatively little research has been done from restaurant and chef perspectives.

Supply chain management in culinary tourism

Although most commonly associated with manufacturing, supply chain management also exists in the service sector, including foodservices generally and culinary tourism. Mentzer et al. (2001) offered a general definition of a supply chain that is appropriate in a culinary tourism context. As they explained that the supply chain is not only the flow of products but also the flow of services, finances, and information from a producer to the consumer. For example, chefs do not only collect different ingredients from different sources to make the dish but must also access other items such as dishes and cutlery used for the restaurant; organise and oversee food preparation, servers, and stewards; have access to information about quality, quantity, and prices of ingredients, and be able to present the dish to diners (Murphy & Smith 2009). Moreover, a culinary or food tourism supply chain requires clear communications and messages about the

product to provide for different purchasing opportunities (O'Halloran & Deale 2004). Supply chain management also benefits businesses through "specialization, speed and agility in responding to a changing environment, and cost savings through negotiating outsourcing contracts" (Smith & Xiao 2008, p.4). Traditionally, supply chains are concerned with three components: the supplier; the distributor who delivers supplies to the consumer that may, in turn, be a producer for another consumer; and the consumer (Erengüç, Simpson & Vakharia 1999). A key goal of supply chain management is the efficient integration of the various links specifically, the various enterprises of the chain (Lambert et al. 1998). There is an opportunity at each link to add value to the overall product; if the product is a restaurant meal, the supply chain can be managed in such a way to make the meal memorable (Richards 2002). For instance, the promotion of Welsh tourism products through "The Taste of Wales", a culinary tourism initiative shows that the hospitality industry tends to establish locally based networks that rely on personal contacts to acquire and sustain the supply of quality food products (Jones & Jenkins 2002).

The supply chain can impart the benefits of food providers to brand their products as "local" or authentic. Ravenscroft and Westering (2002) explore how intellectual property law can be extended over regional gastronomy with the use of local ingredients. This research was needed to be done for protecting the names of items such as Chablis, feta, and cheddar. Branding products can protect the products image and create familiarity for consumers in culinary tourism. A chef can reassure the guests about the food being offered by highlighting specific suppliers (farmers) or region of origin in their menu. As Hall et al. (2003, p.34) argued, "regionality is clearly important, particularly in terms of promoting the attributes of the food, wine and tourism products of a given place". Hall et al. (2003) cited the examples of food-related promotions such as "The New Zealand Way" and "Pure Ireland", so that place can become brands and hold significant brand value and therefore, place has significant importance as intellectual property. They also noted that these measures are important in a global competitive context but also contribute substantially to regional and national branding strategies. Richards (2002, p.12) notes "as more destinations develop gastronomic experiences for visitors the issue of intellectual property becomes more acute" (see also Bessièrè 1998). Hjalager (2002) also commented, if local products are to assert their reputation as an expression of a regional food culture, more attention will have to be paid to ensuring consistent and controlled quality. Products are branded with respect to the authenticity of their origin because consumers know that the food item is from a specific place and it carries with it specific characteristics. The search for authentic cuisine is central to tourism and gastronomy as it provides the motivation for many authentic encounters with different cultures (Fields 2002).

Bessièrè (2001) found that consumers expect a close relationship with the producer of their food with respect to cuisine as a tourist attraction. For example, consumers such as tourists, buy their products directly from farms or farmers' markets ensuring freshness and implying higher quality products. Labeling also creates a sense of a relationship with the producer of their food when the consumer can relate to the region or area that the food item is purchased from. Furthermore, "symbolically, branding is also represents imagined qualities that help compensate for the distance between the source of the food and the consumer of the product" (Bessièrè 1998, p.25). This kind of consumer education can also be accomplished through the restaurant menu and reflects the amount of work that is involved into accessing local suppliers and maintaining supplier relationships, restaurant chefs wants to utilize this resource by communicating it to the consumer through menu branding.

The importance of local food as the essence of culinary tourism has been addressed by a number of authors. For example, Smith and Xiao (2008) argued that the essence of culinary tourism is the use of local ingredients in culinary creations and the centrality of local ingredients to the culinary tourism experiences means the ability to obtain the right quantity and quality of products from suppliers whose credentials are verifiable and delivery is reliable is critical for success. Researchers have identified the market potential for 'gastronomic tourism', arguing that it potentially has strong sustainability credentials if grounded in local foods (Hjalanger & Richards 2002; Hall 2003; Hall et al. 2003; Nummedal & Hall 2006; Hall & Gössling 2013b, 2016b). These findings suggest that both the production and the consumption of food are important aspects in the development of sustainable tourism and sustainable culinary systems although the notion of a culinary system is not so well recognised.

In food studies the concept of culinary system has historically tended to be interpreted as another way of describing foodways and food styles (Clark 1975; Hegarty 2006; van Esterik 2006), rather than being one way of also describing how food consumption is linked to supply and value chains and environmental factors (Horng & Lee 2009). With respect to this, Rozin (1990) argues that culinary systems are mainly comprised of rules about appropriate contexts for eating foods. Wilk (2006) highlighted the importance of stronger dialectical articulation of the relationships between the material (e.g. place branding, marketing, identity, image) and the immaterial (place branding, marketing, identity, image) dimensions of the way in which food is produced and consumed. In the case of tourism for example, such an approach may help shed light on the "symbolic economy" of food and its role in regional competitiveness strategies as well as the

way in which food, and cultural discourses of food difference and otherness, become part of entrepreneurial place strategies. As an example, Tschofen (2008) traces the use of “culinary heritage” as a concept in regional practices and European politics, and analyses how everyday food practices are transformed first into cultural heritage, and then into cultural property via EU regulatory structures with respect to the intellectual property of place and the food quality assurance system. Clark (1975) also shared this perspective in one of the first uses of the culinary system concept.

Different ecologies of food production and consumption with socio-cultural differences have been adopted in the culinary system perspectives. “Different ecologies clearly have a major impact on food provisioning systems, in terms of variety, aesthetic characteristics, nutritional value and content” (Harvey et al. 2004, p.201). But most ecologies of food are best understood as cultivated ecologies in that the ecologies of production have been socially constructed in both perception and reality. Hence, these cultivated ecologies form the basis of interactions between environments and natural capital and socio-economic and cultural processes that affect not only food in tourism and hospitality but also broader issues of food security. In this respect, Harvey et al. (2004, p.202) noted:

Transfers from one ecology to another involved cultivation and a consumption transformation, new agricultural processes and hybrids, as well as new cuisines and culinary hybrids. It is difficult to think of quality transformations in other domains that involve this kind of complex interaction with ecologies.

According to Harvey et al. (2004, p.202), “this ecosystem is one in which the quality and sustainability of mass urban food has become the irreversibly dominant feature, and has generated issues of standardization, aesthetics, nutrition and hygiene that are quite specific to the quality of food”. The notion of “sustainability” is used here in its broadest sense, as reductions in the environmental impact of individual products or agricultural or industrial processes on a productivist per capita or per unit of output basis requires thinking in “systemic terms” (Lifset & Graedel 2002; Green, Harvey & McMeekin 2003, p.146; Hall 2008, 2010b). Therefore, food consumption and production systems are defined to include the whole “chain” of human-organised activities concerned with the production, processing, transport, selling, cooking and eating of food and the disposal of the wastes of such activities (Green et al. 2003, p.146; Millstone & Lang 2008; Sage 2012).

Although, the term “sustainability” is widely used in the lexicon of tourism and hospitality, as well as agri-food systems, there is no single accepted definition of what it means (Sage 2003; Aiking & de Boer 2004; Hall 2010a, 2010b; Hall et al. 2015). There are three main approaches to the sustainability of culinary systems that can be identified in developed countries: business as usual, green growth, and steady state/sustainable consumption (Gössling & Hall 2013). In addition to this, a fourth approach to sustainable food systems, which Green et al.’s (2003) term ‘traditional sustainable’, is also included but is regarded as applying primarily to rural areas in the less developed countries (Pretty 2007).

Furthermore, the notion of a culinary system also brings the major role that tourism and hospitality related food services play in the food system. Indeed, given their centrality to food production and consumption processes, and therefore to the sustainability of food resources, it is remarkable that so little attention has been given to this role and its contribution to food-related global change (Hall & Gössling 2013a). This is not to suggest that research on alternative food networks and a short supply chain is lacking. However, while there have been many statements about the sustainability of tourism (Hall 2010a, 2010b; Hall et al. 2015), what has been relatively absent are the examination how tourism does or can contribute to the sustainability of food and foodways.

3.2 Farmers Markets

A main place to purchase local food is at a farmers’ market. The recent (re)development of farmers’ markets and the associated emphasis on “local food” has arisen from “a complex combination of political, economic and socio-cultural conditions” (Morris & Buller 2003, p.560). Farmers’ markets are successful due to their inherent ability to respond to modern consumer demand for rediscovering regional and cultural traditions, along with enjoying home-made, authentic food products in place of industrially processed foodstuffs (Henseleit, Kubitzki & Teuber 2007). In addition to this, a wide range of benefits are ascribed to food sold to consumers who are living close to the production area (Feenstra 2002; Guptill & Wilkins 2002). In this framework, farmers’ markets are perceived increasingly as key institutions in the trend towards less industrialised agriculture (Weatherell et al. 2003; Hinrichs et al. 2004) and as a link between urban consumers and rural food producers (Gale 1997) where farmers’ markets are not only a site of exchange but also as a venue for negotiated meaning in the local foodscape. Producers also value the social interaction at farmers’ markets for its own sake (Kirwan 2006). Farmers’ markets are important and increasingly prevalent venues for direct marketing locally grown food,

and as such are prominent players in the emerging alternative food networks of Canada, the US, the UK, Australia, and New Zealand (Gillespie et al. 2007; Guthrie et al. 2006; Lawson et al. 2008; Smithers et al. 2008). In practical terms the farmers' market serves as a highly visible and intuitively obvious site for food producers and consumers to find each other, and a physical space in which immediacy and directness can be (re)introduced into transactions around food (Holloway & Kneafsey 2000). For producers this presents the possibility of capturing greater value from the food products being sold; and for the consumers the chance to obtain products with enhanced qualities such as freshness and superior taste (Sage 2003; Lamine 2005). Farmers' markets thus provide a platform where producers and consumers can "short-circuit" the conventional supply chain (Sonnino & Marsden 2006, p.183), where "authenticity and trust are mediated through personal interaction" (Renting et al. 2003, p.399–400) at venues far more vibrant than the typical grocery store or supermarket (Pietrykowski 2004).

The reasons why consumers shop at farmers' markets is a combination of high quality, fresh, support for local agriculture, and locally produced products and a sociable and interactive atmosphere where the consumer knows the producer (Brown 2002; Wolf, Spittler & Ahern 2005; Selfa & Qazi 2005; Kirwan 2006; Connell et al. 2008; Hall & Sharples 2008; Baker, Hamshaw & Kolodinsky 2009; Zepeda & Deal 2009; Murphy 2011; Hall 2013, 2016; Spilková, Fendrychová & Syrovátková 2013; Dodds et al. 2014: see also Table 3.1). At the market, consumers are more likely to engage in social encounters than supermarket consumers (Kirwan 2006). Indeed, Hinrichs (2003) asserted that farmers' markets and other direct sale arrangements embody specific sets of values and ideologies amongst food producers and consumers. Direct agricultural markets are touted as an alternative to mainstream food outlets where producer/consumer interactions have become secondary to convenience, and where low prices from bulk procurement and the availability of a vast variety of food products transcend seasonal limitations and physical distance (Smithers et al. 2008). In this regard, farmers' markets represent a gathering place for enlightened food producers and concerned consumers (Weatherell et al. 2003). According to this logic, it is a place and space where people who care about healthy food, farming and the environment might gather to support local producers and each other, and therein lays the potential for consumers to make informed decisions about the food they purchase (Smithers et al. 2008).

Consumers also benefit economically from farmers' markets in localised food systems. Sanderson et al. (2005) found that prices in the USA can be up to two-thirds lower at farmers' markets compared to supermarkets. Clearly, farmers' markets are an alternative to conventional

large-scale supermarkets and hold promise-in-principle for the re-linking of producer and consumer interests (Smithers et al. 2008).

Consumers normally have a multidimensional concept of quality, which goes beyond chemical and physical variables and may include a wide range of social factors relating to the traditions and experiences of people in the food chain (Edwards-Jones et al. 2008). People who shop more often at farmers' markets can have conceptions of good food (combination of seasonal fresh food, nutritional content, food, food safety and fair trade, food grown or produced locally, animal welfare, and appearance of the product) that are different from those of people who shop for food elsewhere (Connell et al. 2008). Thus, a farmers' market can be seen not only as a place to buy good food but also as a medium for expressing values associated with food choices (Connell et al. 2008). Furthermore, for consumers who are concerned about the issues of human and environmental health, animal welfare and genetically modified organism (GMO) foods, farmers' markets offer produce that has generally been produced in an environmentally sensitive manner (La Trobe 2002).

Despite growing interest and demand for local food sales at farmers' markets, they continue to represent only a small percentage of total local food sales and conventional retailers remain the primary source for food acquisition, whether local or imported (Smithers et al. 2008). There are numerous constraints limiting the role of farmers' markets within the larger food system including: scale (quality of markets and products), scope (range of products particularly in a northern climate), convenience (hours of operation), physical infrastructure (storage and processing), and organisational capacity (Wittman, Beckie & Hergesheimer 2012).

Local foods may be more difficult for consumers to find than mainstream food due to seasonal constraints, limited accessibility, or limited awareness of farmers' markets accessibility (Hardesty 2008). Surveys suggest that reasons for not shopping at a farmers' market include: higher price of the products, absence of availability in the patron's vicinity; lack of knowledge about market existence; inconvenience (such as parking and too far to drive); limited market days and hours of operations, and food of comparable quality being available at more convenient locations; (Govindasamy et al. 1998; Eastwood, Brooker & Gray 1999; Andreatta & Wickliffe 2002; Wolf et al. 2005; Conner, Colasanti, Ross & Smalley 2010; Murphy 2011; Hodges & Stevens 2013; Dodds et al. 2014). Consumers who never shop at direct markets place an emphasis on convenience and aesthetics (Zepeda & Li 2006).

The ability to afford the produce is also a determining factor for consumer visits to a farmers' market (Guthman et al. 2006). Many farmers' markets are located in high-end areas because farmers can make more money there (Guthman 2008). Indeed, consumers at farmers' markets have a higher level of education and a higher income than the average citizen (Hunt 2007; Hall 2013). However, two studies found that consumers with varying educational and income levels were equally likely to purchase local food at markets (Zepeda & Li 2006; Bond et al. 2009). The presence of people with alternative lifestyles might also be associated with a concentration of local food businesses (Ilbery & Maye 2006). But the market choices, price, availability, and transaction costs associated with obtaining local foods can be a barrier to consumers, especially in low-income areas where access to supermarkets is limited (food deserts) (Ver Ploeg et al. 2009). Conversely, price level and price specials were not considered important by consumers for obtaining the local foods at farmers' markets in New Zealand (Murphy 2011), although value was important (Hall 2013). Addressing these challenges and concerns requires strategies and innovations including the building of social and physical infrastructure (Connelly et al. 2011), and the need to scale up and scale out community-oriented food projects such as farmers markets (Johnston & Baker 2005; Friedmann 2007). Farmers' markets have been identified as a hallmark of food localism for consumers and producers. However, food localism in the context of restaurants and chefs is relatively poorly identified in the literature.

3.3 Restaurants and Chefs

The role of local food in restaurants has become increasingly popular (Marder 2006), although the range of restaurants utilising them is still limited (Bruni 2006). Restaurants and chefs occupy an important intersection in the food distribution system that allows them to potentially generate greater interest in local foods among their customers as well as the farmers and distributors they "source" from (Inwood et al. 2009, p.179). However, the benefits and obstacles associated with local foods vary among these stakeholders (FPC 2003; Kang & Rajagopal 2014).

3.3.1 Benefits and obstacles perceived by restaurants and chefs

Obtaining fresher foods, good public relations, and supporting the local economy were the strongest benefits of purchasing local foods among the commercial restaurants and institutional foodservice operations in Iowa (Strohbehn & Gregoire 2002). In the same study, other identified benefits were the possibility of purchasing smaller quantities, special varieties, higher quality, lower transportation costs, and knowing product sources. These benefits mirror those identified

in other studies. For example, chefs purchasing locally grown foods for perceived superior quality and freshness, to meet customer requests, to access unique products, and to support local businesses for their development (Benepe et al. 2002; Painter 2008; Reynolds-Allie & Fields 2012). Obstacles identified in the literature include year-round availability, the consistent ability to obtain adequate food supply for the operation's volume, lack of reliable food quantity, consistent package size, safety issues, products cost, order methods, preparation labour time, on-time delivery, the inconvenience of dealing with multiple number of suppliers, and payment procedures (Woods, Ernst & Herrington 2006; Zdorovtsov, Frantz, & Ke 2007; Painter 2008; Casselman 2010; Peterson, Selfa & Janke 2010; Reynolds-Allie & Fields 2012; Pillay & Rogerson 2013; Nilsson 2016).

Benepe et al. (2002) investigated the food purchasing patterns of restaurants and institutional foodservices in three Colorado regions. The benefits identified were high customer satisfaction and development of local business relations. However, many chefs did not want to purchase local food due to various obstacles: lack of knowledge about local sources, inconvenient ordering, and product concerns such as limited availability, variable costs, and service increased costs. Lack of knowledge about local food producers was also identified by Alonso and O'Neill (2010). Strohbehn and Gregoire (2003) found considerable interest from foodservice buyers in supporting local farmers because of perceptions of fresher and higher quality of foods and lower transportation costs. However, institutional foodservice managers noted concerns about working with local suppliers, such as time of delivery, year round availability of products, consistent quality, and product costs. Strohbehn and Gregoire (2003) also observed that purchasing is only one of a chef's multiple duties and responsibilities. Purchasing therefore has to be efficient and effective, and integrated with other responsibilities. Similarly, Sharma et al.'s (2014) study found that restaurants currently purchasing local foods perceived order processing time, producer's promotional materials, and wait staff/kitchen staff training as important, while delivery time was less important in restaurant managements' decisions to purchase local foods. However, nutritional value and product uniqueness was found to be an important criterion. They also found restaurants with local food purchasing experience were less likely to find local foods expensive.

In the case of foodservice establishments, the FPC's (2003) study identified the attributes important to foodservice establishments and the challenges and obstacles associated with purchasing locally grown foods. The responses of why local foods were purchase included: locally grown foods were higher and better quality, fresher, the importance of developing positive working relationships with producers, access to unique and speciality products, and

satisfaction of customer requests. An additional benefit was the impact on the operation's profitability. This potential positive impact on a foodservice operation's profits could become a selling point for local producers to use when approaching foodservice operations (Reynolds-Allie & Fields 2012).

Promoting the use of local suppliers and foods has been perceived to be effective in creating customer interest in new products because of the use of the word "local" (Tellström, Gustafsson & Mossberg 2006). In their study, the identified obstacles were related to distribution and delivery, consistent availability or reliability of supply, complicated ordering processes, and dealing with many suppliers. However, it was found that the price of the product was one of the less important characteristics in foodservice establishments' food purchasing decisions. Similarly, Alonso and O'Neill (2010) found that price was a modest factor in restaurants purchasing decisions. Starr et al. (2003) also indicated that price was not a significant factor in purchasing decisions but quality was the top priority for purchasing locally produced foods from farmers. Their study also revealed that foodservice buyers were not aware that the local farmers can provide higher quality products and small farms can offer comparable or higher quality produce and services for them. The study also determined that the important factors for restaurants when purchasing local were supporting other local businesses and acquiring products that minimised impact on the environment, and products that were grown and processed locally.

The desire for higher quality products and support of the local economy was also found to be leading reasons for local purchases among Iowa catering operations (Casselmann 2010). Starr et al. (2003) determined that institutions purchasing local products prioritised the importance of buying food that was free of pesticides and other toxins. There were no significant differences found between restaurants and institutions for price, dependability, freshness, quality, and seasonal menus. In a separate study with restaurants and farmers in New York, the top four barriers listed by restaurants in sourcing locally included: time constraints and inconvenience of dealing with multiple farmers; lack of confidence regarding product consistency; lack of confidence regarding products quality; and availability of sufficient volumes of products (Schmit & Hadcock 2012). While, issues related to costs and communication problems were less problematic for the sample.

Inwood et al. (2009) found that all restaurants were more interested in taste and freshness, and less interested in production standards in their purchasing decisions. However, regardless of their usage of local foods, restaurants reported a belief that local produce tasted superior to non-local

produce. Further, the data revealed that high volume local food users (those who use local food aggressively) were interested in paying extra for local purchases. Among all restaurants, distribution problems and lack of convenience were identified to limit the widespread adoption of local foods. These concerns are echoed in the results from other studies (Alonso & O'Neill 2010; Ortiz 2010).

Inwood et al. (2009) reported that chefs could be opinion leaders through the promotion of local foods and through the utilisation of signage, wait staff, and cooking classes. Similarly, Alonso and O'Neill (2010) found that signage was important and wait staff were important as opinion leaders. Dougherty and Green (2011) concluded that when forming and maintaining local food tourism networks, word of mouth (WOM) is critical for local food consumption because they linked farmers and restaurants while, lack of formal institutions and delivery systems were identified as factor inhibiting tourist's local food consumption. However, Ortiz (2010) argued promotion of the use of local foods by chefs must be communicated to diners to receive benefits of premium pricing strategies.

Curtis and Cowee (2009) evaluated chef's preferences for purchasing locally produced foods in Nevada. The study classified the chefs based on whether or not they made local purchases: 69% had never purchased from local producers while 31% reported they currently make local purchases or have made local purchase in the past. Of the respondents who did not make local purchases, 75% of these agreed that the major barriers to purchasing locally were lack of necessary information about purchasing, inadequate availability and variety of products, and lack of authority to choose suppliers. Chefs also raised the issue that the local climate could not support the specific products they desired for their establishments. Nummedal and Hall (2006) in their study of Bed and Breakfast sectors in New Zealand also found that seasonal differences affecting the amount of local produce used and purchased. Respondents indicated low use and purchase during winter time, and then both use and purchase increase during spring time, and reaching a peak during summer time.

Other studies have also found that chefs' motivations for using local food included features relating to its use more generally. In Galway, Ireland, the inherent quality of the food, cost savings, support of local producers and environmental benefits arising from the shorter distances travelled between the farm and the restaurants were noted (Duram & Cawley 2012). Seasonality was considered in creative ways by chefs who sought to incorporate a high proportion of local food in their menus. Barriers to using local ingredients included a perception among some

clientele that foreign produce and cuisine was “superior and there is a foreign is better” view in Ireland (Duram & Cawley 2012, p.20). Another barrier identified by the chefs was the challenge of paying immediately for produce from small scale producers, in contrast to a monthly account with a commercial supplier. Strohbehn and Gregoire (2003) commented that local suppliers can help to offset this challenge by offering the flexibility of payment procedures to ensure that the food service operations can get a competitive advantage with local purchases. (see also Duram & Cawley 2012; Taylor 2009) Other identified barriers were limited storage space to practice season extensions, not enough consistent local products, limited number of farmers and their reliability, and the logistics of transportation and delivery of products. The absence of logistical capacity to supply hotels was identified in a study by Pillay and Rogerson (2012).

Several studies have looked at more specific aspects of purchasing decisions between farmers and hospitality businesses. Dougherty et al. (2013) identified perceived benefits and barriers of purchasing local food for restaurants in local food tourism networks in Wisconsin. They found that restaurateurs identified support to the local economy as the primary reason for their involvement in local food tourism networks while restaurants identified inconsistency of delivery and service, prices, health code restrictions, and burdensome ordering logistics as major reasons for failing to increase local sourcing. Other identified barriers were local food being less consistent than non-local produce in terms of quality and appearance, shape, and inferior shelf life. Green and Dougherty (2008) also evaluated some of the supply and demand issues surrounding local foods in a culinary tourism market in Door County, Wisconsin. They found that restaurants owners and managers emphasised the importance of supporting local farmers as their main reason for purchasing local foods. Maintaining social relationships and contribution to local business were identified as important by restaurant managers, as was their mission to increase revenue and meeting consumer demands for adopting these practices. Among the obstacles identified were issues of packaging, handling, and delivery consistency.

Murphy and Smith (2009) examined beliefs and issues associated with supply chains in the context of acquiring local ingredients as part of a culinary tourism experience. The authors documented several issues related to chef and supplier relationships and sourcing, reasons for listing local ingredients in the menus, promotion of menu items with local ingredients, and training to staff. The study concluded that chefs’ emphasis on local ingredients helped foster strong relationships with local producers and farmers. Similarly, Smith and Xiao (2008) found that supply chain issues affected access to local ingredient supplies for culinary tourism in Ontario, Canada. Accessing high quality and affordable local food was often a concern and

frustration for chefs who wish to procure local (possibly organic) ingredients. However, chefs were generally not in a position to coordinate a larger supply chain management strategy working with their immediate suppliers. Issues associated with supply chains were also observed in Jones and Jenkins' (2002) study of the Taste of Wales, a culinary tourism initiative by the Welsh Tourist Board (Welsh Development Agency, 2000). The initiative was limited by supply chain problems in relation to inadequate high quality and unreliable sources of local ingredients procurement.

Some articles have placed their focus more on small local farmers/producers and their experiences in working with them. Curtis et al. (2008) collected gourmet and high-end restaurants perceived benefits and obstacles in purchasing local foods from local farmers in Nevada. In their study, chefs indicated preferences for high-quality products and viewed quality, freshness, and taste as positive aspects of purchasing locally. Chefs also desired to have smaller quantities of unique and speciality products. The primary obstacles chef perceived were the quality and consistency of quality of products and the ability to produce needed products by the producers.

From the hotel industry perspective, Kang and Rajagopal (2014) found that purchasing local food was beneficial, but decision makers experienced challenges with purchasing. Quality and price were very important when purchasing from both local and conventional sources. Benefits identified in their study were obtaining fresher and tastier products, better product quality, support to the local economy, relationships with local farmers, competitive pricing, customer demands, and flexibility in quantity purchased. Obstacles were seasonality, many contacts, inadequate quantity, and inconsistent quality. However, participants of limited service hotels indicated that purchasing local was limited by their corporate policies, which only allowed hotels to purchase certain foods from local sources. In contrast, full service hotels did not have any corporate restrictions related to purchasing from local sources although part of a chain.

Many foodservice establishments (e.g. multiple units) are typically bureaucratic organisations and have less flexibility in local procurement and their purchasing expectations must be communicated through different units within the organisation (Sharma et al. 2014). According to Deale et al's (2008) study of local shrimp purchasing in South Carolina, USA, managers and chefs of locally and regionally managed restaurants were more likely to procure local shrimp, while corporate owned restaurants made purchase decisions based on corporate guidelines that did not involve buying local shrimp (see also Dougherty et al. 2013).

Lawley and Howieson (2015) studied three major cities in Australia to determine seafood purchasing practices, and identified benefits and obstacles when purchasing from wholesale distributors. They found that consistency of quality, supply, and relationships with wholesalers were considered of greater importance in all three cities while, price was not the determinant factor influencing choice in any city. Likewise, Danenberg and Remaud (2010) found that chefs appreciated service offered by their supplier and it was considered the most important aspect of the supplier relationship followed by good quality products. Price was often not mentioned as an important aspect of the relationship in their purchasing decisions. Along with Danenberg and Remaud's (2010) study, chefs from Lawley and Howieson's (2015) study identified sustainability and branding as the least important influencing choice. Lawley and Howieson (2015) also found that the majority of chefs who purchased from multiple wholesalers were not able to get everything from one wholesaler. Another reason for chefs using multiple wholesalers was that chefs did not trust wholesalers in relation to sustainability issues. Chefs suggested that they would increase their purchases by providing them better communication and information, and improving consistency such as quality, availability, size, packaging and labeling of the products.

3.3.2 Regulations

Legislation and regulation can potentially have a positive or negative effect on farmers wishing to sell their products direct to a local retail foodservice operation. For example, provincial legislation in Canada prohibits the selling of meat of wild game, so dishes based on wild game cannot be legally sold (Smith & Xiao 2008). Chefs noted in their study that health regulations regarding food handling and processing are making accessing local supplies even more difficult.

Some chefs and restaurants are concerned about the safety of purchasing locally grown foods. Farmers are cautioned to take due diligence in abiding by food safety standards if they expect to sell to restaurants (Reynolds-Allie & Fields 2012). In addition, the cost of licensing/certifications (e.g. organic certification) can be prohibitive for small or mid-size farmers, thus eliminating them from some markets. Strohbahn and Gregoire (2002) analysed pathogen levels on four frequently purchased food items from both local and national sources to compare differences in food safety. All samples were within normal and safe limits, and no difference was identified between local and national sources. Another obstacle found for purchasing locally grown food in

North America is the requirement of farmers/producers to have commercial liability insurance by foodservice establishments (Huber et al. 2002; Sterbis 2002).

3.3.3 Cost implications of using local foods

Very little research has been conducted on the costs associated with using local food from restaurant perspectives. Sharma and Strohbehn (2006, p.2) reported that “consumers are willing to support higher menu prices when they are buying items prepared from local food sources”. This claim has also been made by Ortiz (2010) and Reynolds-Allie and Fields (2012). Sharma et al. (2009) also observed that there was a statistically significant difference between the delivery times of primary local ingredients and those purchased from non-local sources, with more time spent on delivery of local products. No statistically significant difference was found in the sourcing time or food cost of local and non-local ingredients.

There is also an impact on profit margins by using locally grown produce in restaurant operations (FPC 2003; Reynolds-Allie & Fields 2012; Nilsson 2016). According to Dittmer and Keefe (2006) foodservice operations fit into one of two categories as to how profit was achieved. The first category was an operation that operates at a low profit margin per unit served or sold and relies on a high number of transactions in order to achieve a profit, for example a fast-food operation. The second category was an operation which operates at a relatively high profit margin per unit and does not rely as heavily on the number of transactions completed to achieve a profit, such as a fine dining operation. Dittmer and Keefe (2006) argued that operations operating at a high profit margin per unit will seek high quality products in order to create a superior product reflecting the price.

3.3.4 Supply source selection criteria and buyer-supplier relationships

Developing an effective purchasing strategy and procurement management for a business is one of the most important and challenges faced by top management (Mohanty & Deshmukh 1993). Hence, a set of relevant supplier selection criteria needs to be developed by the buyer to compare potential purchasing sources (Gregory 1986). Therefore, before establishing supplier relationships, foodservice establishments must first identify their sources of supply and develop criteria for selecting suppliers for vendor commodity groups. Selection criteria and lists of potential supplier(s) must be developed to meet establishment’s needs. This list would generally combine both local and conventional suppliers.

Supplier source selection criteria

In the business-to-business (B2B) literature many studies have identified a variety of supplier selection criteria on how to select a supplier in different industries (e.g. Chan & Chan 2004; Jharkharia & Shankar 2007). Katsikeas, Paparoidamis & Katsikea (2004) found supplier evaluation attributes fall into four main categories: reliability, competitive pricing, service support, and technological capability. Hospitality and tourism studies apply similar criteria for supplier selection and buyer-supplier relationships. Reid and Riegal (1989) offered 20 supplier characteristics for selecting suppliers for foodservice establishments, with accurate and on-time delivery, consistent quality with reasonable prices, and willingness to work together being the most important supplier characteristics. Coltman (1990) and Corell (1992) suggest that establishments should rank characteristics based on quality consistency, service, price, reliability, and delivery consistency when evaluating suppliers. Feinstein and Stefanelli (2005) identified five factors to be highly important to foodservice purchasers when selecting suppliers: ordering procedure and minimum order requirements, delivery schedule, credit terms and willingness to exchange price, free sample, and return policy. Other factors identified as important by foodservice purchasers were use of technology, product variety, firm size, and substitution availability (see also Pearce, Tan & Schott 2007; Kim & Boo 2010).

Casselmann (2010) identified guarantee of quality products, product freshness, ability to deliver quantity needed or ordered, convenience in order process, and guaranteed supply as the most important attributes for selecting suppliers among all the catering sectors in Iowa. Less important supplier selection attributes were payment procedures, substitution availability, promotional allowances, and suggestions for menu applications. In contrast, several studies have cited payment procedures as important for producers (e.g. Sterbis 2002). Murphy and Smith (2009) stated that local producers may have more rigid payment procedures in order to protect themselves and their cash flows. Strohbehn and Gregoire (2003) found arrangement for timely delivery of orders, time of the day that food delivered, and food safety assurances were important factors in selecting suppliers. When information about package size, production cost, and availability was made accessible by the local suppliers; restaurants were more likely to purchase their products (Strohbehn & Gregoire 2003). Product quality assurance, timing of delivery, food safety assurance, and competitive prices were also cited as important factors for selecting foodservice suppliers by Woods et al. (2006). On the other hand, Strohbehn and Gregoire (2003) found that many foodservice establishments faced drawbacks in dealing with multiple local vendors including requirements to work within a set budget, and organisational payment

procedures. However, they suggested that foodservice suppliers can offset these obstacles by providing timely information about product availability, flexibility with delivery and payment to ensure that foodservice establishments can have the competitive advantages with local purchases.

Buyer-supplier relationships

After supplier(s) selection it is necessary for operations to manage supplier relationships. Operations rely on efficient supplier(s) in order to function profitably. All restaurant suppliers are interested in developing long-term relationships (Mawson & Fearne 1997). To create successful partnerships between buyers and suppliers, long-term relations have to be established (Dodd, Gultek & Guydosh 2005). Therefore, researchers have given greater attention to B2B relationships. Studies addressing this relationship have been undertaken with respect to retailers and wholesalers (Burkink 2002), hotels (Scanlan & McPhail 2000; Telfer & Wall 2000), and restaurants (Crotts, Coppage & Andibo 2001; Brownell & Reynolds 2002). Young and Wilkinson (1989) noted that B2B relationship marketing has provided a more harmonious view of relationships with the constructs of concern, commitment, service, promises, and trust. Relationship marketing seeks to cultivate a close relationship between customers and suppliers, and the goal is to obtain commitment that brings the notion of trust to the top of the supplier's agenda (Gounaris 2005). Zabkar and Brencic (2004) found values, trust, and commitment as vital components of B2B relationships. Morgan and Hunt (1994) identified commitment and trust as the key mediating variables of relationship marketing. Contrary to this finding, trust did not appear as a mediator of the satisfaction-commitment link (Ulaga & Eggert 2006).

Lindgreen (2003) did find that trust is an important construct in relationship marketing. Trust can increase loyalty and can result in mutually profitable business relationships for both buyers and suppliers (Wimmer & Mandjak 2002). Trust is a determining attribute in B2B relations and social interactions. This suggests that relationship strength depends on trust and relationship commitment influences strategic decisions (Hausman 2001). In addition, Högberg (2002) argues that frictions inherent in all relationships are easier to solve if trust has developed. Therefore, some authors see trust as an important coordination mechanism, which reduces uncertainty and enables collaboration (Emmett & Crocker 2006), and it is viewed as a performance and competitive advantage (Sako 2000). Walter et al. (2002) argue, the more the customer trusts the supplier, the higher the perceived value of the relationships by the customer as a result customer remains in the relationship (see also Turnbull & Moustakatos 1996).

In the literature on hospitality buyer-supplier relationship management, Strauss (1999) argues that developing strong personal relationships based on trust and full disclosure, are attributes vital to successful long-term relationships. Strohbehn and Gregoire (2003) noted that strong personal relationships between foodservice operations and their suppliers do have some influence on the continuation of business relationships. Murphy and Smith (2009) also found that chefs appreciated personal relationships (regular contact) with their supplier through face-to-face meetings and menu tastings.

Dronkers (1995) examined how restaurants and their suppliers should seek partnerships to increase their sales and suggested that both buyer and supplier should be open and honest about their needs. Brownell and Reynolds (2002) found that trust and communication were the two main elements in developing a strong partnership between buyers and suppliers. They also argued that long-term partnerships are advantageous for both foodservice establishments and their suppliers, as they create value and help foodservice managers maintain a competitive advantage.

Personal relationships develop through subjective social interaction that tends to hold a relationship together. Mummalaneni and Wilson (1991) argue that buyers and sellers who have a strong personal relationship are more committed to maintain business relationships than with less socially bonded partners. Crotts et al. (1998, 2001) also found that social bonding was a predictor of trust and correlated with commitment which was an important measurement of success in buyer and supplier relationships.

3.3.5 Benefits and obstacles perceived by farmers/producers in local foods

While local food appears to be increasingly popular in the context of restaurants, very little empirical research has assessed the farmer's or producer's perspectives of the benefits and barriers to marketing their products directly to local restaurants. Gregoire et al. (2005) identified Iowa local growers'/producers' perceptions of the benefits and obstacles of marketing and selling to local restaurants and other foodservice operations. The perceived benefits of direct marketing and selling among the farmers included supporting local farmers, providing fresher foods for the customers, and less travel distance for foods. The study also revealed that the producers' main marketing channels were direct sales to consumers and the farmer's market. Only 30% of the 195 producers sold to restaurants/institutional foodservices. Starr et al. (2003) reported that 38% of Colorado farmers surveyed sold all of their produce to intermediaries such

as elevators, distributors, brokers, or packing sheds. Gregoire et al. (2005) also found that almost half of the Iowa producers (44%) who responded had never sold to local foodservice operations because they could not produce the quantity year-round with the specifications such as colour, and size of the produce needed by the buyers. Farmers also complain that “most of the restaurants and hotels want guaranteed supply, and they do not have ways to guaranteed supply all the time” (Alonso & O’Neill 2010, p.1170). But these issues are not easy to address with existing production schedules, or only a limited range of products is requested (Schmit et al. 2010). For farmers, production is oftentimes already at capacity and significant investments in capital and/or labour would be required to demands (Schmit et al. 2010).

Other studies have also identified the benefits and obstacles of marketing local food products between farmers and different sectors of foodservices. Starr et al. (2003) analyse the impact of farm size, farm diversity, environmental practices, and the importance of selling locally cooperatively on the decision of farms to direct market their products to restaurants in Colorado. The research revealed that, as farm size decreases, farmers become more interested in sustainable farming practices and in selling locally. The smallest farms are far more likely to direct market and to sell something to restaurants. Larger farms also have slightly longer sales seasons to the restaurants.

Farmers can obtain benefits in the form of higher earnings by selling their produce to restaurants or institutions such as schools (Strohbehn & Gregoire 2003; Nilsson 2016). Starr et al. (2003, p.316) also suggest that small farmers need to target locally-owned restaurants, as the majority of restaurant chains “do not make their own purchasing decisions” and therefore are not likely to buy local produce. Alonso and O’Neill (2010), from a sample of thirty farmers in Southern state of Alabama, found that the majority (80%) do not currently have any relationship with hospitality operations. Instead, most of them are related to agri-tourism in terms of selling produce on-site (60%), selling produce through u-pick, or selling produce at farmers markets (37%). Different causes appear to be at the root of weak farmer-restaurateur interactions, including lack of knowledge of how to develop such relationships, lack of time to invest in building these relationships, the perception that restaurants/hotels would not pay enough for produce sold, lack of availability of the type of produce that restaurants may request, and that restaurateurs may only buy small quantities. However, while interactions between farmers and restaurateurs are very weak, some farmers do have a genuine interest in developing business relationships with restaurants. A number of other studies have also found that establishing

contact and developing a lasting relationship with restaurants was important for farmers (Wright 2005; Curtis et al. 2008; Sustainable Agriculture Research and Education [SARE] 2008).

Green and Dougherty (2008) examined farmers' motivation to sell to local buyers (retail establishments such as restaurants, supermarkets, cooking schools, bakeries, wineries, and inns) at the local markets in Door County, Wisconsin. They found that most of the farmers stressed that contributing to the local economy and a desire to obtain more consistent prices for their products were the main reason to sell at local markets. However, they also stressed that low price, consistent delivery/services, and low quantity demanded by the buyers were the main barriers for them to sell locally. Schmit et al. (2010) also found that variance in quantities, limited product ranges, and dealing with multiple sellers were obstacles for farmers to direct market to restaurants and the price agreements would be regarded as problematic. Peterson et al. (2010) investigated producer understanding of constraints to marketing to local restaurants and other institutional operations in Northeastern Kansas. Results showed that producers concerns were small quantities, lack of year round production, transportation means or time, lack of time to find buyers, and low prices. Ljunggren et al. (2010) also found in Nordic countries that low volumes and high transportation costs were the main important constraints for farmers to sell their products to the high quality restaurants in rural areas. Curtis et al. (2008) found many small farmers in Nevada were interested in supplying gourmet restaurants, although the majority was unsure how to enter the market. Dougherty et al. (2013) identified perceived benefits and barriers of marketing local food to restaurants in local food tourism networks in Wisconsin. They found that farmers pursued involvement in local food tourism networks mainly for moral and economic reasons, although low prices were a major barrier.

Taylor (2009) investigated producer perceptions of marketing their products to local restaurants in Portland, USA. Perceived benefits included personal relationships with restaurants (most commonly stated), convenience, personal commitment to environment and food safety, and protection and support of small farms. The study also found that it was important for farmers to know where food comes from because it gets lost in long food chains. Farmers were also dedicated to sustainable agriculture practices. While, the identified barriers were related to delivery of foods. Supporting family farms, strengthening the local economy, providing higher quality, fresher and flavourful products for customers, and knowing the source of the products were identified by farmers/producers as important for direct selling to foodservice operations in Dakota (Zdorovtsov et al. 2007). The top concerns identified in this study in regard to selling

local foods included buyer receptiveness and expectations, delivery, and time, while food safety, liability, and product quality were not major concerns.

A study of farmers in DeKalb County identified several challenges inherent in a farm to restaurant system (Self et al. 2012). The most commonly reported issues were higher costs of producing food, high delivery cost to volume ratio due to the frequent deliveries, and inconsistency of quantity and quality of the products that affected by many factors including weather and season. Farmers also noted that knowledge transfer between restaurants and suppliers is essential for understanding each other's needs and challenges. Similarly, Sharma et al. (2012) assessed the economic costs and benefits for growers who sell their products to restaurants. Their data showed that there were clearly higher costs for growers in most segments of the value chain for directly selling products to restaurants. However, most growers also identified price premium benefits.

3.3.6 Benefits and obstacles perceived by wholesale distributors in local foods

Wholesale distributor (distributors) benefits of and obstacles to local purchasing has received little empirical attention. Starr et al.'s (2003) study on marketing and purchasing practices of local food products between farms and restaurants in Colorado, USA included interviews with nine distributors. The interviews revealed a number of barriers and opportunities related to Colorado producers competing with producers from other states where, cheaper price and year round products are available. Six said sourcing more food locally would lower their transportation costs.

From the perspective of distributors, Berkenkamp (2006) stated that distributors in Minnesota have greater interest in a wide variety of locally produced products. The reasons for buying from local growers include lower cost (most common), desire to minimise the transportation costs and the desire to support area farmers (more commonly for locally-owned distributors). Distributors also highlighted several obstacles to purchasing their products locally: insufficient local supply, short growing season, price, quality control, liability issues, and a perceived lack of demand. In another study, processing of local products and bidding requirements were mentioned as obstacles by distributors in California (Feenstra et al. 2011). Self et al. (2012) argue that the consistency of quantity and quality of locally grown foods is variable and affected by many factors such as weather and season. They suggested that a logistical management system would be required to keep inconsistency to a minimum level.

Supporting local producers was the primary reason for buying local foods among distributors in Pennsylvania (Bloom & Hinrichs 2011). The next most commonly reported benefits were higher food quality and less expensive because of shorter shipping distances while inability to find local producers who will commit to sell only to distributors was noted as an obstacle and concern by distributors. Offering fair prices to producers and low prices to their customers (local chefs) were most crucial for distributors' economic viability in local procurement. Interviews with distributors by Taylor and Aggarwal (2010) investigated food purchasing patterns of five distributors in Phoenix, Arizona. They categorised the barriers identified by foodservice produce distributors who directly purchase local foods as follows: inconsistency of products, volume and variety of the products, lack of information, inconvenience, food safety issues (more commonly), and urban development pressure. Benefits of sourcing locally were supporting the local community, supporting the local economy, better quality, economic benefits, convenience, knowing the farmers, environmental benefits, nutritious and tasty products, and desire to preserve the area farms.

In another study, Abatekassa and Peterson (2011) examined ethnic-based wholesalers specialized in distributing to restaurants. They found that most wholesalers have an interest in buying local foods. Product price, quality, volume, and supply consistency were the key factors in their purchasing decisions from local sources. As inconsistent supply and delivery factors made local food purchase difficult to source from local farmers, wholesalers perceived that local farmers cannot deliver and provide services on time with the features agreed upon. Wholesalers also perceived that local farmers do not have the capabilities to share the information on supply, price, and delivery arrangements. However, local food sourcing was important for wholesalers in order to gain a positive image among their customers and to enhance interaction with community members who support local food.

3.3.7 Business to Business (B2B) research in local foods

There has been some interest in local food supply chains in the business-to-business (B2B) literature (Strohbehn & Gregoire 2003). Hardesty (2008) assessed the prospects for marketing locally grown produce (LPG) to colleges, universities, and teaching hospitals. The study revealed that colleges and teaching hospitals incur significant transaction costs and price premiums to have a LPG buying program. Several managers from these operations were willing to incur higher transaction costs and pay higher prices in order to purchase LPG that was produced in a

manner that supported their environmental and social values, while they were unwilling to tolerate unreliable produce deliveries, regardless of their environmental and social values. Kinsey and Bhur (2003) discussed how B2B relationships can reduce costs and increase efficiencies in the procurement, storage, and delivery of food to retail stores or distribution centres. The use of electronic commerce and information technology allows retailers to share information about consumer purchases and preferences with farmers, and to track food products' characteristics, sources, and movement from production to consumers. Researchers stated that this circle of information would allow high quality and consistent products to be consumed at lower prices.

Support to the local businesses and local economies and fresher products were the primary benefits reported by many commercial buyers (processors and manufacturer, caterers, foodservice companies, institutions, restaurants, supermarkets and grocery stores, retail stores, wholesalers and distributors) in Kentucky (Karp Resources 2012). However, barriers identified in this study for those who do not buy local foods were related to product packaging, lack of distribution services, insufficient available supply, and lack of availability from approved vendors, while product price and lack of distribution services were the key obstacles keeping those who have never purchased local foods from doing so. In the same study, commercial buyers who buy local indicated that they would expect to pay more for local food. In addition, most stated that they received incentives for bulk discounts to purchase local foods for volume purchasing from their suppliers and indicated that their purchasing decisions were subject to internal approval processes (e.g. from regional or corporate headquarters). This influence was highest among processors and distributors, and lowest among restaurants and other buyers. Commercial buyers also indicated that their purchasing decisions were subject to an internal approval process. However, these processes were most prevalent among foodservice companies and least common among restaurants. Requirements for food safety and liability insurance influence local food purchasing decisions. The requirement of liability insurance was most common among foodservice companies, supermarkets, and processors. The requirements of food safety certification appear most significant for processors, foodservice companies, and retailers (Guptill & Wilkens 2002; Illbery & Maye 2006), while few restaurants required food safety certifications from suppliers.

From the perspective of retailers, the reasons for buying from regional growers include desire to build social relationships and the contribution to local businesses (Green & Dougherty 2008). Other identified motivations for adopting local food in their businesses were consumer demand

and desire to increase revenue. The most stated severe problems included inconsistent delivery of products, inadequate quality and quantity, and higher product prices.

3.3.8 Restaurants and chefs and farmers' markets

Farmers' markets allow restaurants and chefs to source from local farms that do not deliver, and gives them the opportunity to see and taste what's new and fresh (CUESA 2012). While many farms deliver directly to restaurants, shopping at the farmers' market creates a space where chefs can form face-to-face connections with growers and enjoy the community of other restaurant cooks and food lovers (CUESA 2012). A nationwide survey of Irish restaurants and chefs found a significant number of menus indicate the local provenance of ingredients (Dermody 2012). As one restaurant owner commented:

More and more customers are asking us where their food is coming from. People are no longer content with knowing what it is they are eating, they want to know the origin of the produce too. We include a list at the back of our menu and have a dedicated 'supply chain' section on our website which names all of our suppliers, many of which come straight from the market downstairs.

The survey also revealed that 85% of restaurant owners feel that their business has improved because of their transparency regarding sourcing of ingredients from a farmers' market.

At the farmers market, restaurants and chefs have an opportunity to have first-hand contact with farmers in the farmers market and touch, taste the ingredients personally, and purchase and learn about the fresh local produce they offer their restaurant customers, as food quality and flavour are central to the consumers dining experience (Jaclyn 2006; Smith 2013). Chefs can design menus based around farmers' market produce so guests can eat what is available right on that day (CUESA 2012). Jaclyn (2006) conducted a study both with chefs and farmers' market vendors in Vancouver and identified that most chefs are interested in working cooperatively with farmers' market vendors to attract consumers to their restaurants and to provide information about local foods, while many chefs also like to form long-term working relationships with vendors at the market. Several chefs noted that vendors should collaborate on delivery and invoicing of products and expressed interest in working with vendors to plan their menus for the upcoming season. Furthermore, most chefs stated that ordering should be as convenient as possible as they do not have time to wait in line at the market and prefer products to be clean and pre-packaged to reduce their kitchen preparation time. Vendors reported that local foods were valued and purchased for their superior quality benefits. Most stated that they have little or no communication with local chefs, which made some vendors reluctant to sell to chefs. Most were

also unsure of what products chefs want and how they want them packaged. Many vendors lacked business education and did not know how to sell to foodservice buyers and were not aware of the benefits of selling to chefs. Some vendors were interested in raising speciality products just for chefs but needed a guarantee of sale for those products to avoid financial loss.

In several studies economic opportunities for producers have focussed on shortened food value chains and the importance of direct selling of their products to the consumers in farmers' markets (Henrichs 2000; Maye et al. 2007; Feagan 2007; SARE 2008). Because chefs' reputations are based on the quality and uniqueness of the ingredients they use (Kelley 2006), local foods are an important option for them. In addition, selling to restaurants and chefs can give producers insight into current market trends and changing consumer demands for food products and the attributes that they possess (Pepinsky & Thilmany 2004). For restaurants and chefs, farmers' market represents important testing grounds for new products such as edible flowers (Brenner 1999). Despite emerging trends of local food procurement by restaurants and chefs from farmer' markets, empirical research suggests that purchasing of local food products is actually mainly associated with farm-to-chefs/restaurant marketing efforts (e.g. Schmit & Hadcock 2012). However, little is known about the role of restaurants and chefs as purchasers and users of local food in their restaurants from the farmers' market and their relationships with them. No published work has empirically assessed this context. However, there has been a great deal of interest in farmers' markets in non-academic media, for example culinary and travel magazines as well as in newspapers and television.

3.4 Chapter Summary

This review of the literature has provided a rich context of short food supply chains, motivations, barriers and opportunities, and the complexity and adoption of local food systems. However, in the context of restaurants, little empirical research has focused on farm-to-restaurant direct marketing efforts, or examined the perspective of restaurants and chefs, as well as farmers/producers at farmers' markets and wholesale distributors. This empirical research therefore fills this substantial gap in understanding local food supply chain issues among farmers and/or farmers' market vendors and wholesale distributors in relation to restaurant procurement practices. The next chapter outlines the research methods and design choices made in the current study.

CHAPTER FOUR

Research Methodology and Design

4.0 Introduction

This chapter discusses the methodological approach and the design of the empirical research undertaken to achieve the objectives of this thesis set out in Chapter One. This chapter is divided into several sections. The first section provides a discussion of the methodological foundation on which this research is based. The rationale behind the selection of the research paradigm that underpins the research process is discussed. The second section discusses comparative research as an approach for this study along with the selection of research locations. The third and fourth sections respectively illustrate the use of quantitative and qualitative methods. The final section presents the ethical considerations that have been taken into account for this research, followed by a statement of the researcher's position in the research project.

4.1 Methodological Approach

4.1.1 Research paradigm

Research involves a set of assumptions that underlies the systematic approach used to find the solution to a particular problem or inquiry whereby data are collected, analysed and interpreted in some way in an effort to “understand, describe, predict or control an educational or psychological phenomenon or to empower individuals in such contexts” (Mertens 2005, p.2). The first step in designing a study is to select a topic and paradigm (Creswell 1994). According to Guba and Lincoln (1994), a paradigm is a set of fundamental beliefs and principles that influence how researchers view their world and construct their behaviour; “A cluster of beliefs and dictates which for scientists in a particular discipline influence what should be studied, how research should be done, how result should be interpreted, and so on” (Bryman 1998, p.4). Creswell (1998) defines it as a concept that helps researchers to understand phenomena and which embrace both theories of research and methods of conducting research. However, these positions are often described in different ways (Milliken 2001). For example, “philosophical worldviews” (Creswell 2009), “research frameworks” (Denzin & Lincoln 2003), “research methodologies” (Neuman 2006), or “research paradigms” (Teddlie & Tashakkori 2011).

The basic views that define research paradigms contain three elements or fundamental questions: ontology, epistemology, and methodology (Guba & Lincoln 1994; Denzin & Lincoln 2003; Hesse-Biber 2010). Guba and Lincoln (1998) noted that paradigms can be differentiated by answering three questions (p.201):

- What is the ontological basis for the research?
- What is the epistemological basis for the research? and
- What methodology will be applied to gather data?

Ontology is the nature of reality that researchers investigate, epistemology is the relationship between the reality being investigated and the researcher, and methodology is the technique used by the researcher in exploring the reality in question (Healy & Perry 2000). The responses provided to these questions are particularly significant for the selection of research methods. Guba and Lincoln (1994, p.105) even suggest, “The questions of method are secondary to the questions of paradigm, which guides the investigator, not only in choices of methods but in ontologically and epistemologically fundamental ways”. Positivism/post-positivism and interpretative/constructivist or phenomenology paradigms are generally recognised as the two main research paradigms in the social behavioural sciences (Milliken 2001; McNeill & Chapman 2005) in which this particular research is situated.

Positivism/post-positivism paradigm

Positivism/post-positivism is “based on the rationalistic, empiricist philosophy that originated with Aristotle, Francis Bacon, John Locke, August Comte, & Immanuel Kant” (Mertens 2005, p.8) and “reflects a deterministic philosophy in which causes probably determine effects or outcomes” (Creswell 2009, p.7). Positivists aim to test a theory or describe an experience “through observation and measurement in order to predict and control forces that surround us” (O’Leary 2004, p.5). Positivism/post-positivism has elements of being reductionist, logical, empirical in data collection, cause and effect oriented and deterministic based on a priori theories and is mainly aligned with quantitative methods of data collection and analysis, which attempts to generate the results utilising mathematical calculations that can be applied to a wider population than the sample used (Creswell 2009).

With respect to ontology, positivism/post-positivism assumes the existence of an apprehensible reality driven by natural mechanisms (Guba & Lincoln 1994; McNeill & Chapman 2005). A researcher from this paradigm believes s/he is independent of and for this reason stays outside of the “world” he/she is investigating. The significance is that research is regarded as value-free,

completely neutral, and therefore, interchangeable, e.g. “It does not matter which researcher conducts the inquiry, as it will not affect the findings” Goodson & (Phillimore 2004, p.35). Positivism/post-positivism research thus does not use subjective interventions, but employs objective methods to measure the social world (Milliken 2001; Creswell 2009). In terms of epistemology, positivism/post-positivism holds that objectivism is ideal but can only be approximated (Riley & Love 2000). Jennings (2001) stated this as an objective and value-free etic approach where the research is conducted from an outsider’s perspective. Methodologically, positivism/post-positivism provides two responses to emergent challenges with respect to subjectivity. First, “emphasis is placed on critical multiplism, which might most usefully be thought of as a form of elaborated triangulation” (Guba 1990, p.21). Second, positivism/post-positivism recognises that many imbalances have been allowed to emerge in the zeal for achieving a “realistic” research outcome (Tahakkori & Teddlie 2006, p.80). Table 4.1 summarises the basic tenets of the positivism/post-positivism paradigm.

Table 4.1 Key tenets of positivism/post-positivism

World-view element	Positivism/post-positivism
Ontology (What is the nature of reality?)	Critical realism – ‘real’ reality but only imperfectly and probabilistically understood
Epistemology (What is the relationship between the researcher and that being researched?)	Modified dualist; critical tradition/community; findings probably true
Methodology (What is the process of research?)	Modified experimental/manipulative; critical multiplism; may include qualitative methods

Source: Adapted from Guba and Lincoln (1998, p.203).

Interpretivist/constructivist or phenomenological paradigm

The interpretivist/constructivist or phenomenological paradigm involves qualitative methods and analysis which rely on people providing their own explanations of different situations or behaviours (Veal 2011). The interpretivist/constructivist paradigm grew out of the philosophy of phenomenology and hermeneutics (Mertens 2005). Interpretivist/constructivist approaches to research have the intention of understanding “the world of human experience” (Cohen & Manion 1994, p.36), suggesting that “reality is socially constructed” (Mertens 2005, p.12). The interpretivist/constructivist researcher tends to rely upon the participants’ views of the study situation (Creswell 2009) and recognises the impact on the research of their own background and experiences. Denzin and Lincoln (2003) also stated that interpretive research paradigm is relatively flexible and focuses more on the perspectives of the subjects being studied and viewing the world from their point of view. The ontological view of interpretive paradigm is grounded in multiple, divergent, and interrelated social realities as they are not restricted with one reality, unlike the positivism/post-positivism paradigm (Finn, Elliott-White & Walton 2000).

The interpretive/constructive paradigm embraces subjective epistemology that analyse behaviour from the perspective of the phenomenon being researched and enables the identification of “multiple realities” (Jennings 2001, p.128). Interpretivist/constructivist does not generally begin with a theory (as with post-positivists), rather they generate or inductively develop a theory or meaning pattern (Creswell 2009) throughout the research process. Under this paradigm, researchers seek an in-depth understanding of the phenomenon by examination and using relatively few samples or cases (Neuman 2006).

There has been a long lasting debate amongst scholars about the principles of each research paradigm (Onwuegbuzie & Leech 2005). For positivism/post-positivism researchers, qualitative study is viewed as too context specific, the samples selected as unrepresentative, and the claims about the work as unwarranted. In contrast, interpretive/constructivist researchers consider quantitative study as reductionist in respect of the sampling and result generalisations and fails to capture the meanings that subjects of research attached to the actual lives and circumstances (Brannen 2005). However, each paradigm has its distinct strengths and weaknesses. As Onwuegbuzie and Leech (2005) argued, rather than focus on differences between the two paradigms and criticise them, researchers could utilise both strengths and weakness of paradigms in their research to gain understanding of the social phenomena (Veal 2011). In fact, in the “pragmatic” research paradigm introduced by Howe (1988), the quantitative and qualitative approaches are seen as compatible and combined into a single study and is often regarded as the third major research paradigm (Creswell 2011) (Table 4.2). It is also the paradigm within which this thesis is situated.

Table 4.2 Paradigms: Language commonly associated with major research paradigms

Positivism/post-positivism paradigm	Interpretivist/constructivist or phenomenological paradigm	Pragmatic paradigm
Experimental	Naturalistic	Consequences of actions
Quasi-experimental	Phenomenological	Problem-centred
Correlational	Hermeneutic	Pluralistic
Reductionism	Interpretivist	Real-world practice oriented
Theory verification	Ethnographic	Mixed models
Causal comparative	Multiple participant meanings	
Determination	Social and historical construction	
Normative	Theory generation	
	Symbolic interaction	

Source: Adapted from Mertens (2005) and Creswell (2009)

Pragmatic paradigm

The pragmatic paradigm is not committed to any one system of philosophy or reality, but provides an opportunity for the integration of multiple methods, worldviews, and assumptions, as well as different forms of data collection and analysis in a mixed methods study. Pragmatist

researchers focus on the “what” and “how” of the research problem (Creswell 2009). Earlier pragmatists “rejected the scientific notion that social inquiry was able to access the ‘truth’ about the real world solely by virtue of a single scientific method” (Mertens 2005, p.26), while providing the underlying philosophical framework for mixed-methods research (Tashakkori & Teddlie 2003; Somekh & Lewin 2005; Hesse-Biber 2010).

The pragmatic paradigm refers to the philosophy of research questions that are set at a starting point at the early stage of the research, thus becoming the fundamental element which derives the choice of research method(s) used to understand the problem (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie 2004). “Pragmatists place the research problem and research questions at the centre of the research and use the methods they consider to be the most appropriate in generating the most significant insights into their research” (Wilson 2014, p.11). The pragmatic paradigm therefore places “the research problem” as “central” (Tashakkori & Teddlie 2003; Creswell 2009; Wilson 2014), with data collection and analysis methods chosen as those most likely to provide insights into the question with no philosophical loyalty to any alternative paradigm.

Many scholars have recognised that social phenomena and research problems addressed in social and behavioural science are complex in nature and linked to multiple bodies of knowledge that belong to different disciplines (Greene & Caracelli 1997; Tashakkori & Teddlie 2003; Jabareen 2009). As the literature review indicated, this is a situation that describes previous research on local food and the complex nature of local food supply chains. Therefore, this study adopts a pragmatic paradigm using a mixed methods approach for the entire research design process. Table 4.3 indicates the ways in which research methods cross paradigm boundaries. Next, the methodology underpinning a pragmatic approach is discussed.

Table 4.3 Paradigms, methods, and tools

Paradigm	Methods	Example of data collection tools
Positivism/post-positivism paradigm	Quantitative methods. “Although qualitative methods can be used within this paradigm, quantitative methods tend to be predominant . . .” (Mertens, 2005, p. 12)	Experiments Quasi-experiments Tests Scales
Interpretivist/constructivist or phenomenological paradigm	Qualitative methods predominate although quantitative methods may also be utilised.	Interviews Observations Document reviews Visual data analysis
Pragmatic paradigm	Qualitative and/or quantitative methods may be employed. Methods are matched to the specific questions and purpose of the research.	May include tools from both positivist and interpretivist paradigms (e.g. Interviews, observations and testing and experiments).

Source: Adapted from Mackenzie & Knipe (2006)

4.1.2 Justification of selecting mixed methods (pragmatic paradigm) research design

Qualitative methods are often used to understand the ways social matters are interpreted, experienced, and/or produced (Yin 2011). According to Labuschagne (2003, p.100), qualitative means “an emphasis on processes and meaning that are rigorously examined, but not measured in terms of quantity, amount or frequency”. Qualitative methods are sensitive to the social context in terms of where the data is produced (Neuman 2006; Yin 2011). Denzin and Lincoln (2011) stated that qualitative approaches are a set of interpretive activities, including multiple methods and strategies, and used in many separate disciplines and rely on the why and how of various behaviors, rather than just investigate what, where, and when (see also Croom 2008). Qualitative methods are inherently useful in examining the daily lives where people live, work, and interact, and thereby help identify how people behave, experience, and feel about their own lives (Gillham 2000; Strauss & Corbin 1998; Yin 2011). They are therefore an appropriate and useful instrument for examining perceptions, beliefs, motivations and attitudes (Bryman 2003), such as that attempted in this study, especially with respect to those different stakeholders from different cultural backgrounds (Kvale 2007).

In the application of quantitative methods in the social sciences, surveys or questionnaires are widely used to collect data (McNeill & Chapman 2005). Surveys are a means of “gathering information about the characteristics, actions, or opinions of a large group of people, referred to as a population” (Tanur 1983, p.2). Surveys can be conducted to collect information about people’s behaviour, expectation, and knowledge (Neuman 2006). They are considered reliable if questionnaires are designed, sampled, and administered properly, where the researcher may have relatively slight influence on the participated respondents (McNeill & Chapman 2005). “The reliability of the results is generally based on large sample groups and results may be held up as representative of a population” (Seale 2004, p.294).

There are concerns associated with qualitative methods of research which are often viewed as less scientifically rigorous. Many researchers argue that “qualitative research methods are not so much distinct methods for doing research, but rather a new way of conceptualizing approaching social studies” (Phillimore & Goodson 2004, p.5) in particular, in taking an emic perspective to inquiry (Denzin & Lincoln 1998). Neuman (2006) argues that “the data gathered in this method applies to specific groups and results do not intend to represent the wider population” (p.13). However, there are also concerns with quantitative research methods (Guba & Lincoln 1998). One of the major concerns stated by Phillimore and Goodson (2004) is the “appropriateness of

generalising data from one context, for example a laboratory or sample, and extending the generalisation across the entire social world” (p.32). As Denzin and Lincoln (1998) argue, “quantitative approaches emphasise predicting outcomes rather than understanding and explaining behaviour, and the value and contribution of this methodology to the social sciences has been questioned” (p.6).

To overcome these challenges and maximise the strengths of each research approach, many researchers combine the two approaches in a mixed method analysis to develop a more complete and full picture of the social world through the use of multiple perspectives, hence improving the validity of the research (Hall & Valentin 2005; Johnson & Richards 2005; Onwuegbuzie & Turner 2007). Using both methods to collect and analyse data, mixed methods help to generate a comprehensive understanding of the research problem (Johnson et al. 2007; Denzin & Lincoln 2011). Mixed method research enables researchers to understand the social world with its diversity of values, stances and positions through the inclusion of different methods and provides an understanding of social phenomena with stronger validity and less bias (Greene, Kreider & Mayer 2005). Researchers use both quantitative and qualitative methods in their studies as they “need to know and use a variety of methods to be responsive to the nuances of particular empirical questions and the idiosyncrasies of specific stakeholders needs” (Rocco et al. 2003, p.21). The use of quantitative and qualitative approaches in combination, therefore provides a better understanding of research problems than either approach alone (Creswell & Plano-Clark 2007).

Greene et al. (1989) listed five advantages of using mixed methods research. First is triangulation, which helps researchers fortify and enrich their conclusions due to the use of more than one method of study with the same research question. Secondly, mixed methods allow quantitative and qualitative data to complement each other. Thirdly, mixed methods often work better in the development of research projects by creating synergistic effects and help to develop or inform other methods. Fourthly, it often inaugurates future research by asking questions and contradictions that require investigation. Finally, it enables future endeavours and allows researchers to continue employing mixed methods to answer their research questions (see also Hesse-Biber 2010; Yin 2011). Collins et al. (2006) also suggest that there is an opportunity to increase the number of participants by conducting mixed methods research. In summary, mixed methods assist in verifying and validating research findings (Johnson et al. 2007; Veal 2011; Yin 2011) and reveal opportunities for further research (Teddlie & Tashakkori 2011).

Triangulation “involves the use of multiple methods - each representing a different perspective or lens - to assess a given phenomenon in order to enhance confidence in the validity of findings” (Greene, Kreider & Mayer 2005, p.274), and “can yield more valid and reliable findings than the use of either qualitative or quantitative methods alone” (Veal 2006, p.40). Decrop (2004) also suggests that by combining a variety of data sources, methods, investigators and theories in triangulation, personal and methodological biases are limited and a study’s trustworthiness is enhanced. According to Denzin and Lincoln (1998), there are four types of triangulation: (a) data triangulation that uses a range of data sources, (b) investigator triangulation that uses a number of evaluators to review findings, (c) theory triangulation which employs multiple perspectives to data interpretation, and (d) methodological triangulation that involves multiple methods.

In this research, methodological triangulation is applied. Both quantitative and qualitative methods were combined to integrate the findings from this research (Creswell 2009), which is part of the triangulation (Creswell & Plano-Clark 2007). First, surveys were conducted among restaurants and chefs. The results from the survey were then complemented by semi-structured interviews. In order to confirm and validate the results, semi-structured interviews were conducted among restaurants and chefs, farmers and/or farmers’ market vendors, and wholesale distributors. Thus, this approach reduced the vulnerability of the findings to the error that may occur when using only a single method, hence, helping to enhance the validity of the findings.

Nevertheless, despite its promise, mixed methods research also has limitations. For example, Creswell and Plano-Clark (2007) assert that mixed methods research complicates the procedures of research and requires clear presentation for the reader to sort out the different procedures, while methodological purists argue that “one should always require to work within either a quantitative or qualitative paradigm” (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie 2004, p.39). Researchers also suggest that mixing paradigms and therefore methods is problematic as the assumptions and values support each paradigm distinctively (Guba & Lincoln 1994; Riley & Love 2000; Giddings & Grant 2007). Nevertheless, as Creswell and Plano-Clark (2007) stated, the contradictions, tensions, and oppositions between different paradigms reflect different ways of valuing and knowing the social worlds. Indeed, “whichever paradigmatic views of reality the researcher chooses to address, they are increasingly encouraged to make use of quantitative and qualitative methods in tandem” (Guba & Lincoln 1994, p.105). As Creswell and Plano-Clark (2007) noted “the issues associated with mixed method approach are not insurmountable and strategies can be

adopted to address those issues as the value of a research that entails a triangulation of methods outweighs the potential difficulty” (p.10).

When selecting mixed methods research, the researcher must also select simultaneous or sequential research designs (Morse 2003). In a simultaneous research design, quantitative and qualitative approaches are conducted at the same time, while a sequential research design uses the quantitative approach first, followed by the qualitative approach, or vice versa. In this study, a sequential mixed method research design is considered and conducted within two separate data collection phases, with the quantitative study being undertaken first. The use of quantitative methods is needed to elicit information from a large number of respondents, while interviews allowed the researcher to further contextualize or complement the quantitative data gathered in the first stage of this study. This dual approach also sought to provide an in-depth account of practitioner perspectives and to develop converging lines of enquiry (Kaplan & Duchon 1988). Thus, using this approach involves close contact between the researcher and the research participants and also has the advantage of empowering the participants to share their views and hear their voices. Furthermore, it also minimises the power relationships that often exist between a researcher and the participants in a study (Creswell 2007). Therefore, any findings or conclusions would likely be much more convincing and accurate as they are based on a triangulation of the data that optimises the validity and reliability of the study (Wright 1996; Yin 2003).

This study is driven by a pragmatism paradigm and the design of this research will be a comparative study that uses a mixed methods approach to gain richer meaningful data yielding more comprehensive results to understand restaurants and chefs purchasing experiences with local food products in two different locations. The quantitative approach was conducted through a questionnaire-based survey and a qualitative approach was conducted via in-depth semi-structured interviews to investigate the phenomenon of purchasing experiences in the context of local food products in Vancouver and Christchurch.

4.2 The Comparative Research Approach

Comparative research or analysis is a broad term that includes both quantitative and qualitative comparison of social entities. Social entities may be based on many aspects such as geographical or political ones in the form of cross-national or regional comparisons. Comparison allows the researcher to gauge the significance, validity and reliability of research outcomes, in a

quantitative and qualitative sense against those achieved somewhere else (Baum 1999). However, Warwick and Osherson (1973) identified certain basic problems (such as conceptual equivalence, equivalence of measurement, linguistic equivalence, and sampling) that occur in comparative research, whether the method of research is the sample survey, participant observation, historical analysis or some other approach.

In the field of tourism and hospitality, there is a limited amount of research with regard to comparative studies (e.g. Lee & Ulgado 1997; Kozak 2002, 2002a; Okumus, Okumus & McKercher 2007; Dutta, Umashankar, Choi & Parsa 2008; Sanchez-Cañizares & Castillo-Canalejo 2015). However, Pearce (1993) demonstrated that comparative research is important in assessing tourism performance that could make a contribution to solve specific problems. Other researchers in the social sciences argue that comparative analysis is a process of discovering similarities and differences among people's perceptions of a particular object (Warwick & Osherson 1973; Mills, Bunt & Bruijn 2006). Mills et al. (2006) stated that "comparisons not only uncover differences between social entities, but reveal unique aspects of a particular entity that would be virtually impossible to detect otherwise" (p.621). Hence, the purpose of this study was to compare and contrast the use of local foods in a cross-national context, and comparative research helps explore similarities and differences between Vancouver and Christchurch in relation to the research objectives.

4.2.1 Research design and implementation

To answer the research questions both surveys and extensive semi-structured interviews were used. The strength of this approach is that it allowed the researcher to look beyond the quantitative findings and engage in a process of qualitative induction to confirm the quantitative findings or help identify exceptions that might guide toward more comprehensive explanations of the processes, opportunities and constraints to the use or adoption of local food products (Erzberger & Kelle 2003). Furthermore, it is also worth noting that the purpose of this current study is exploratory. Many questionnaires have been used to investigate the objectives of this study (see Appendix A). However, the most validated findings from those questionnaires were used for the purpose of this study. In addition, formal menu and web page analysis was not conducted although it was considered, although informal study of the material was undertaken as part of the fieldwork so as to help, at times, inform and prepare for interviews.

4.2.2 Research locations

Two study sites in two different countries were chosen for this research. The study sites were the cities of Vancouver, Canada, and Christchurch, New Zealand. The study sites were selected due to the comparative nature of factors (e.g. location demographics, local cultures, geography and climate, political distinctiveness, as well as agrifood system) that facilitate or limit the development of local food systems (Wormsbecker 2007). The study areas are also similar climatically. Under the Köppen Climate Classification System (Peel, Finlayson & McMahon 2007) both study areas are defined as (C) warm temperature/temperate. Vancouver is located in a Csb category: Warm temperate; summer dry and warm summer and Christchurch located in Cfb: Warm temperate; fully humid and warm summer). The study areas also offered contrasting situations in terms of local food initiatives (Table 4.4). Vancouver is more developed for a wide range of local government supported food initiatives than Christchurch, while both study sites are supported by several farmers' markets. Additionally, there has been no previous empirical research comparing Vancouver and Christchurch. Together, all these perspectives provide diverse opportunities, making it possible to compare the relative challenges and prospects for food localism in a comparative context.

Vancouver city and local food system development

The City of Vancouver lies in Metropolitan (Metro) or Greater Vancouver and is a coastal seaport city on the mainland of British Columbia (BC), Canada. Metro Vancouver, situated in the Fraser River Delta region of the Pacific Coast, is comprised of 22 municipalities and one treaty First Nation. The 2011 census recorded 603,502 people in the city, making it the eighth largest Canadian municipality (Statistic Canada 2011). Vancouver is an important study area for understanding regional food systems, as it is home to agriculture and nutrition policies directly related to local food production (Morrison, Nelson & Ostry 2011). The area is also easily accessible to visitors and residents. These factors have facilitated additional marketing opportunities for farmers and other businesses in the local food systems.

The moderate oceanic climate of the British Columbia Lower Mainland, with extended growing seasons, rich soil, and the flat terrain of the Fraser Delta, enables diverse agriculture production, ranging from a variety of horticultural crops (vegetables, fruits, berries, nuts and flowers) to dairy and livestock operations. In addition to the rich diversity of agricultural products, seafood and fish are harvested from the Fraser River, urban streams, the shoreline and Salish Sea (Metro Vancouver 2011). Some local greenhouse production takes advantage of the region's sunny

Table 4.4 Comparison chart of local food initiative organisations and their characteristics in Vancouver and Christchurch

Vancouver	
Example of local food initiatives	Description
Farmers' Markets	Sell locally produced foods directly to the consumers and the goal is to spread awareness of agriculture products with fair prices. The city of Vancouver recently approved bylaws and zoning amendments that enable farmers markets to operate throughout the city and reduced permit fees for setting a market.
Local Food First	This is a collaborative initiative between non-profit groups, educators, producers, distributors, retailers and restaurants in British Columbia (BC). This involves promoting capacity for increased food production for the local markets in BC.
Vancouver food security or policy council	Located within the municipal government of Vancouver and enhancing food security in the region. Activities included sustainable food system policy development, support for community gardening, and food charter.
Farm Fork/City Folk	Awareness campaigns on eating locally, monitoring and protecting farm land, advocacy for GE-free foods.
Eat BC	This is a partnership initiative between BC restaurant and foodservice association and the BC agricultural council to promote local foods and beverages in local grocery stores and farmers markets.
Get Local	This is a community of BC food producers, businesses, and groups collaborating to promote local foods in Vancouver.
Green Table Network	This is a network of restaurants and foodservice outlets that committed to local and organic foods and supports a regionally focused agricultural food systems and sustainability food community in Vancouver.
100 Mile Diet	Developed a foodshed mapping interactive website allows people to explore their foodshed (defined as 100-mile radius around Metro Vancouver) by identifying various sources of fruits, vegetables, animals and seafood.
Small scale Food Processors Association	Developed a speciality food directory that helps chefs, restaurants, and speciality food retailers to find local food companies.
Community Supported Agriculture farms	The food is delivered directly to the consumers or to nearby drop off points on a weekly basis throughout the growing season. This direct marketing activates represent an opportunity to connect urban residents with farmers/producers that grow and harvest their foods.
Food Box Program	Box of fresh organic and locally produced food delivered on a regular basis to the consumers.
Restaurants and chefs	Restaurants and chefs actively support local producers and actively engaged local products regardless of costs with sustainability and a seasonal menu core business practices.
City Farmer	Helps people to establish food gardens in urban areas and sell to the consumers.
The Chef's Table Society, B.C	Active in promoting sustainable and local food choices among their members as well as for the public.
SeaChoice	Program helping Chefs and consumers to identify the best seafood choices for sustaining domestic and global fisheries.
The Ocean Wise	Help consumers to access information about the sustainability of seafood and make ocean friendly decisions about the fish they eat at home or in restaurants.
Pocket Market	This emergent alternative retail marketing arrangement connecting urban consumers with local food producers.
SoleFood Urban Farm	A social enterprise and urban farm that provides local organic foods to inner city residents and restaurants
Wholesale distributors	Gordon Food Services (GFS) has a best of BC food program that lists products and farms and artisan dairies for restaurants that want to feature local foods in their menus.

Christchurch

Example of local food initiatives	Description
Garden City 2.0	A social enterprise does local food initiatives with Christchurch communities and supports small farms, urban food producers and artisans. Currently involved with Canterbury Community Gardens Association, community gardening/urban farming initiatives for local food.
Food Box Scheme	Established by small to medium scale growers to deliver the locally grown produce directly to the consumers who pay a weekly or monthly fee in exchange for the produce.
Restaurants and chefs	Numerous restaurants and chefs are actively involved in promoting local products with specializing in the menus.
Farmers' Markets	Fresh food markets selling directly to the consumers by accessing to regional foods for building and strengthening local communities and supporting local food related businesses.
Wholesale distributors	Several companies have focused on distributing locally-grown foods. Among them are: Bidvest, Farm Chicken, Peter Rabbit's Patch, Theos Fisheries, and West Meat.

Source: Author

winters to produce cucumber, tomatoes and other greenhouse friendly vegetables. Wineries are also significant in this region (Angloinfo n.d.).

There are profitable farm operations in Metro Vancouver serving both export and local markets. Metro Vancouver generates 28% of BC's total gross farm receipts on only 1.5 percent of the province's farmland (Census Bulletin 2006). Farms in Metro Vancouver are primarily family-owned operations and relatively small in size. Of the over 2,618 farms in the region, the average size is 16 hectares and more than half are four hectares (10 acres) or smaller. In comparison, the average farm sizes in BC and Canada are 143 and 295 hectares respectively (Census Bulletin 2006). In Metro Vancouver most of the farmland is designated ALR (Agricultural Land Reserve) to protect farmland in perpetuity. Today there is an estimated 60,940 hectares of ALR lands in Metro Vancouver (Metro Vancouver 2011). The majority of the prime agriculture lands are located on the Fraser River Delta in Richmond, Delta, Surrey, Burnaby, and Pitt Meadows or in the uplands of Langley, and Maple Ridge (Metro Vancouver 2011).

The food sector is a vital component of the regional economy. One in eight jobs in Metro Vancouver is in a food related industry, including agriculture, fishing, processing, distribution, retail and food services (Metro Vancouver 2011). According to the BC Ministry of Agriculture and Lands 2006 the total revenue for the BC food industry is estimated to be over \$35 billion Canadian dollars and a significant portion these businesses are located in Metro Vancouver (Metro Vancouver 2011). Eating out is an important part of BC's food culture with the average BC household spending about 32.7% on food that is purchased from restaurants, a figure significantly above the national average (Vancouver Food Policy Council 2009). Metro Vancouver is also home to many award winning restaurants and, as in many cities, caters for all tastes and budgets. The city has one of the highest densities of food service establishments in Canada and there are at least 3,773 restaurant locations that represent an estimated 45% of the restaurants in BC (Vancouver Food Policy Council 2009).

There is growing public interest in purchasing local foods in the region. In Metro Vancouver, several government agencies and non-governmental organisations work independently and cooperatively to support and nurture local food system development. They also create brochures, websites, organise conferences and workshops to promote the use of local foods, and utilise the media to educate consumers, farmers and even chefs on the value of local foods. The most successful initiatives include Farm Fork/City Folk, Eat BC, Buy BC, Get Local, Food Box Program, City Farmer, Community Supported Agriculture farms, The Chef's Table Society, BC,

SeaChoice, and the Pocket Market (Vancouver Food Policy Council 2009) (see Table 4.4 for details).

The region boasts farmers' markets that provide direct marketing opportunities for farmers in the area. At the time of writing, the Metro Vancouver region is supported by 15 registered farmers' markets (BCAFM 2013). Markets are non-profit societies and operate under a make-bake-or-grow policy (BCAFM 2013). Most of the markets in this region are seasonal, operating from May to October, with a few year round indoor markets. Sales at farmers' markets are increasing and local food events continue to attract crowds. Local chefs are leading innovators and promoters of a Northwest cuisine that relies on local produce, artisan farm products, and sustainable sources of seafood (Metro Vancouver 2011). Chefs in Vancouver are also actively seeking to establish the connection of local food with tourists. Many restaurants have identified local farmers and set their menus based on the products that are available on a given day (Canadian co-operative Association 2008). In addition, a large programmes of events such as "EAT! Vancouver" serves as an incentive for area restaurants to feature local food in their dishes and for art and theatre venues to feature area culture-themed events. Many restaurants are encouraged to be involved by partnering with an art venue to offer local food cuisine events (EAT! Vancouver 2015).

Christchurch city and local food system development

Christchurch is the largest city in the South Island, New Zealand, and a world-renowned food growing region. Christchurch city lies in the centre of the Canterbury region, near the east coast of the South Island and the east of the Canterbury Island. It is located near the southern end of Pegasus Bay, and is bounded to the east by the Pacific Ocean coast and the estuary of the Avon and Heathcote Rivers. Canterbury is New Zealand's largest region by area at 44,633 km² (Canterbury Regional Council 2011). The Christchurch urban area at 386,100 is the third-largest in the country by population, after Auckland and Wellington (Statistics New Zealand 2012). Christchurch has a population of 341,469 making it second in size out of the 67 districts in New Zealand (Statistics New Zealand 2013). The agricultural industry has always been the economic core of Canterbury and Christchurch has long had industry based on the surrounding farming country. Cropping has always been important in the surrounding countryside. Canterbury has the best food producing region and is of great significance to New Zealand's agricultural production, with approximately 20% of it being farm land (Dynes, Burggraaf, Goulter & Dalley 2010). This abundance of resources enables a wide range of rural activities including agriculture, viticulture and horticulture. The region has very diverse mix of intensive seafood, fish, dairy, sheep and

beef and cropping operations on the plains and extensive beef and sheep farms in the high country. Many of the cropping farms are smaller family and freehold intensive mixed livestock and cropping farms. The cropping farms represented approximately 500 properties larger than 100 hectares, of which half of them are in the mid-Canterbury region (MPI 2012). More than 75% of farms are irrigated or are located in usually reliable rainfall areas.

Canterbury has major wine areas: the plains around the city of Christchurch, where grapes were first planted in the late 1970s and the more recently developed valley area of Waipara, an hour's drive north of Christchurch (New Zealand tourism guide n.d.). Canterbury is New Zealand's fourth largest wine region and produces wine for domestic consumption and export (Dynes et al. 2010). Although Canterbury has abundant land it is faced with rapid land use changes as a result of more intensive use of agricultural land and growth of the greater Christchurch metropolitan area, especially post-earthquakes (Environment Canterbury 2010/11).

The climate in Canterbury can be described as generally warm and dry in summer and cold in winter with frequent frosts. The combination of local microclimates and fertile soils has favoured growth crops such as stone fruits and glasshouse crops (capsicums, tomatoes, cucumber, beans, lettuces, and radishes) (Ward 1995). Some main vegetable crops that have been growing traditionally in Canterbury include peas, potatoes, onions, cabbage, cauliflowers, pumpkin and carrots.

Opportunities to buy local food in the region are also relatively plentiful. The region's local food initiative is supported by several farmers' markets which directly market local food to consumers. These farmers' markets are not-for-profit and community initiatives. At the time of writing there are ten farmers' markets in the greater Christchurch area although the number varies by season. The markets are supported by a wide range of small-scale growers and processors. There are also a handful of local farm cheese producers and a growing number of organic vegetable and meat growers located in this region. These local growers and food producers are selling their products directly to the consumers as well as to foodservice establishments by themselves (Hall 2013). As noted above, initiatives to promote local food in Christchurch are not as developed as in Vancouver. Many of the local food initiatives in Christchurch have come out of non-government organisations. The most successful initiatives have occurred by Garden City 2.0 (a social enterprise) (Kelly, Wilson & Worthington 2013).

Following the 2010-2011 earthquakes, Christchurch has re-emerged as a destination. The tourist market is developing and there is substantial demand for dining out, which is met by many local restaurants and cafés. Christchurch is an interesting place for the study of local food systems because the Christchurch is home of many top cafés and restaurants. Many restaurants and cafés are actively seeking to incorporate local food culture values shared by both local consumers and tourists. Several restaurants and cafés advertise their use of local food products in national and international food guides. Local food is also profiled through festivals such as the South Island Wine and Food Festival (Our Wine and Food Festival 2015).

4.2.3 Sampling frame

There are three main types of respondents in this research: (a) Foodservice establishments (restaurants and chefs), (b) farmers and/or farmers' market vendors, and (c) wholesale distributors (distributors). In this study, two phases of data collection were involved for restaurant and chef respondents: a survey questionnaire followed by semi-structured interviews. Of these, farmers and/or farmers' market vendors and wholesale distributors' data collection were only involved with semi-structured interviews. Each phase is discussed below.

4.3 Phase 1: Quantitative Research Approach

Foodservice establishments (Restaurants and chefs)

In the first phase of the research, a quantitative approach was undertaken by conducting a survey of foodservice establishments. .

4.3.1 Research instrument: Survey questionnaire

In order to ensure the comparability of this research, the questionnaire was developed on the basis of the previous studies outlined in Chapter Two, Three, and pilot test comments. To write the questions in the survey (see A4, A5, A8, and A9 in Appendix A) and for the purpose of comparison, questions were adapted or adopted from the hospitality and consumer literature relating to farmers' market and consumers' preferences and attitudes towards local food choices (see Table B1 in Appendix B).

To explain the purpose of the study, an information sheet and separate consent forms were also developed for the participants (see A1, A2, A3, A6, and A7 in Appendix A). The questionnaire was composed of 45 questions that were designed to answer the research objectives (Chapter One). Questions were divided into four distinct sections: (a) restaurant demographics, (b) definition of local food, (c) local food use that incorporated respondents' perceptions, motivations, barriers and constraints of buying local food ingredients from different distribution channels, and (d) local food promotion on their menu. The third section (Local Food Use), consisted of six attitude statements and current practices that respondents indicated their perceived level of agreement using a 7-point Likert rating scale (7 = strongly agree, 1 = strongly disagree). Similarly, a 7-point Likert scale was used to measure respondents attitude statements that indicated their perceived level of importance in question 37 (third section) and questions 41, 42 (fourth section) respectively. Related studies on assessing local food purchasing behaviour have also used a 7-point Likert scale (Lillywhite & Simonsen 2014; Kang & Rajagopal 2014) based on the premise that it affords more precision or a greater degree of discrimination than a 5-point Likert scale (Hair et al. 2003) and it is easily understood by the respondents. The remaining questions in the first, second, third, and fourth sections consisted of multiple choice (20 items) and single choice (16 items).

Before the questionnaire was finalised, preliminary versions of the questionnaire were created for review and pilot test (pre-test). This process helped to find out those questions that were redundant and those requiring rewording or rethinking (Gillham 2000). A pilot test was conducted with ten Executive Chefs prior to administration of the final survey to assess the clarity of survey questions due to their familiarity with the topic (Diamantopoulos et al. 1994). Based on feedback the questionnaires were altered to improve language and question order; in this regard, the content validity was greatly improved. The survey was conducted in two different languages: English and Chinese. The questionnaire was originally designed in English and then translated into Chinese version for Chinese speaking respondents by a graduate native speaker of Chinese in Vancouver. One academic and two non-academic experts from Vancouver checked the validity of translation. To check the "translation equivalence", modification was made based on the comparison between the original English version and the translated back version (Van de Vijver & Leung 1997). Thus, this process improved the accuracy of the survey instrument. Ethics approval for the final survey was obtained from the Human Ethics Committee of the University of Canterbury.

4.3.2 Sample design (Population and sample size)

Eligible foodservice businesses were selected for participation in the survey and put into a purpose built address database. The sample list for Vancouver was acquired from regional telephone directories and websites that maintain extensive foodservice establishment addresses. The websites used included tourist information for Vancouver (www.tourismvancouver.com), OpenTable Vancouver (www.opentable.com), TripAdvisor Canada (www.tripadvisor.com), and DineHere Vancouver (www.dinehere.ca). The sample of Christchurch consisted of all businesses under the restaurant category listed in the telephone book (Yellow Pages Christchurch) while additional foodservice establishments were identified through Christchurch i-site Visitor Centre (www.christchurchnz.com), DineOut New Zealand (www.dineout.co.nz), Menus New Zealand (www.menus.co.nz), and MenuMania (www.menumania.co.nz).

For both surveys, the final samples of foodservice establishments were cross-checked for valid addresses for the mailing list. The mailing list included full and limited service restaurants, hotel restaurants, cafés, buffet restaurants, and speciality/catering foodservice establishments. These establishments were independently owned or chain/corporate ownership, both franchised and non-franchised establishments. This resulted in a final mailing list of 759 foodservice establishments for Vancouver and 455 foodservice establishments for Christchurch. These were treated as the final target sample. Deli-style foodservice establishments were excluded in this sample as these establishments are less likely to use local fresh food products and more likely to use pre-made products (O'Donovan et al. 2012).

4.3.3 Data collection procedure

The paper surveys were conducted on the entire target population for both samples, rather than a random sampling technique because the population was relatively small and easy to contact in a short period of time (Hair et al. 2003; Dougherty et al. 2013). Each questionnaire was accompanied by an information sheet and a consent form (see A1, A2, A3, A4, A5, A6, A7, A8, and A9 in Appendix A for questionnaires) identifying the purpose of the study, instructions on how to complete the questionnaire and where to return it (if not immediately returning it to the researcher upon completion), approximate length of time required for completion, rights of respondents and how the information will be used and contact details of the researcher and his supervisors. The letter was addressed to the manager, owner, or the Executive Chef/Chef of the foodservice establishments. One incentive was provided for the study in order to increase the

response rate. A movie ticket (family package) was awarded through a raffle for each sample. Participants were given two weeks to return the completed questionnaires if they were to be eligible for a prize draw. Participants who wanted to be included in the draw were asked to enclose their e-mail address at the end of the survey. The survey took between 25 and 35 minutes to complete. However, no follow-up reminder postcard or e-mail was sent or telephone calls were conducted to the foodservice establishments after two weeks from the date of the invitation to the participants in the survey. At this stage, due to time and cost limitations, a convenience survey was conducted to deliver by hand to each non-respondent foodservice establishment and collected later in both samples (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhil 2012). Thus, delivering the follow-up questionnaires in person allowed the sample of foodservice establishments to be more evenly distributed, with a greater variety of foodservice establishment styles participating.

The Vancouver mail surveys were sent with freepost envelopes to the foodservice establishments during July, August, September, and October 2014. By the third week of September 2014, 11 questionnaires were returned. The majority of these completed questionnaires were returned within two weeks from the date of which they were sent, a few were returned after the due date. 29 (3.82%) questionnaires were returned to the researcher by Canada Post stating “moved out to different location or no address”. A further 33 (4.34%) questionnaires were returned and stated “recipients establishment is closed” by Canada Post. One questionnaire was returned by recipient with a note stated “not interested in participating in this survey”. Three questionnaires were received with incomplete answers. A total of 48 questionnaires were returned completed.

To increase the response rate, the researcher visited non-respondent foodservice establishments and delivered the questionnaire in person to a chef or manager. This was completed through an interview process or left for chef or manager to complete in their own and picked up within two/three days or returned by mail. By the end of October 2014, another 21 completed questionnaires were received. The final data collection effort resulted in 69 (48 plus 21) completed questionnaires, that contributed to a 9.09% response rate. In Christchurch, surveys were sent during January, February, and March 2015 to foodservice establishments. By the end of January, 57 (12.52%) of these had been returned to the researcher by New Zealand Post stating “recipients were gone or no address”. A further 15 (3.29%) questionnaires were returned stating “closed”. Another five questionnaires were returned with a high number of incomplete answers. A total of 24 questionnaires were returned completed. To increase the response rate, the researcher visited each foodservice establishment and delivered the survey in person to manager or head chef and completed through an interview process. By the end of March, 72 businesses

had participated in onsite and in-person surveys. Thus, a total of 96 (24 plus 72) completed questionnaires were collected, giving a response rate of 21.09%. Incomplete questionnaires (three from Vancouver sample and five from Christchurch sample) were discarded due to a high number of incomplete answers as in most of these surveys only part one was completed. It is also worth noting that a high rate of restaurant closure is typical for the foodservice industry (e.g. Parsa et al. 2005).

4.3.4 Validity and reliability of the research instrument

There are wide variety of measurement strategies and techniques that are used in research design. Validity and reliability are the most common psychometric concepts related to assessing the instruments used in research design. Validity is defined as “the extent to which a construct measures what it is supposed to measure” and “involves consulting a small sample of typical respondents and/or experts to pass judgment on the suitability of the items (indicators) chosen to represent the construct” (Hair et al. 2003, p.174). In this study, content validity was determined by an in-depth literature review and the validated survey instruments from previous research. In addition, the instruments were examined by a group of academic experts to ensure content and face validity. They were asked to edit and improve the questions to enhance its construct and content validity. Based on their suggestions and amendments, changes were made to the questionnaires as it helped to confirm the suitability of the research instrument development (Neuman 2006). After obtaining advice in designing the questions from the academic experts, a pilot test (pre-test) was employed to test the reliability of the research instrument.

Reliability symbolises the consistency or stability of a measurement (Saunders et al. 2012). Cooper and Schindler (2008) stated that reliable measurement is necessary to ensure that the instrument works properly at different times under different conditions. Cronbach’s alpha or coefficient alpha has been widely used to assess internal consistency reliability or multi-item scales (Pallant 2011). The generally agreement upon cut-off value for Cronbach’s alpha is .70 (Hair et al. 2003; Cooper & Schindler 2008; Saunders et al. 2012), “although lower coefficients may be acceptable depending on the research objectives” (Hair et al. 2003). The Cronbach’s alpha was above .70 for the test conducted with both samples in this study (Table 4.5).

Table 4.5 Reliability analysis scales

Question number	No. of items	Vancouver	Christchurch
		Cronbach's alpha (Reliability)	Cronbach's alpha (Reliability)
Q. 10	14	.898	.990
Q. 13	12	.786	.703
Q. 16	24	.913	.940
Q. 24	13	.825	.843
Q. 26	13	.845	.835
Q. 37	15	.931	.934
Q. 41	12	.918	.896

4.3.5 Data preparation and coding procedure

Initially all the collected data was entered into a Microsoft Excel worksheet and then exported to SPSS (version 22) for analysis. According to Neuman (2006), there are three steps to deal with the data: coding data, cleaning data, and entering data. In this study, the coding procedure was performed by pre-coding all question items with numerical values prior to conducting the survey. For the purpose of cleaning the data, questionnaires that were more than half incomplete were discarded. Editing was undertaken to identify any omissions, ambiguities and errors in the responses. The data was then followed by further scrutiny of the questionnaires that involved identifying inconsistencies to ensure that the data were 'clean' enough for analysis. Items that were left unanswered by respondents were left blank in the Excel sheet. The data set was further screened through examination of basic descriptive statistics (means, standard deviations, ranges) and frequency distribution (Kline 2011). Finally, the Excel worksheet was imported into SPSS for further analysis. In the next section, the different methods of analysis used are briefly outlined.

4.3.6 Data analysis procedures

Both descriptive and inferential statistics were employed in this study. Inferential statistics including independent-sample t-tests (2-tailed) and one-way ANOVA were used for the statistical analysis. Descriptive statistics were used to provide a description of the sample in terms of variables or a combination of variables being used (Zikmund et al. 2010). In this study, frequency analysis was used to analyse respondents' demographic profiles, definition of local food, and other related questions measuring attitudes toward local food purchasing behaviours. Descriptive analysis was also conducted to obtain the means and standard deviations of the data.

This was performed in order to further explain respondents' perceptions, motivations, barriers and constraints of buying and promoting local food ingredients on their menus. Next, cross-tabulation was performed to provide better insights and to facilitate comparison variables. A cross-tabulation involves analysing results by groups, categories or classes (Zikmund 2003). In this study, conducting cross tabulation facilitated the inspection of differences among the different cuisine styles of restaurants in both samples and to make comparisons between variables.

An independent sample t-test (2-tailed) was applied to identify differences of local food purchases and promotion for the proposed two locations (Sekaran 2000). An analysis of variance (ANOVA) can test the statistical differences between the means of two or more groups, whereas the t-test could only compare two means (Hair et al. 2003). In this study, to determine the comparison between the groups by cuisine types (e.g. Canadian, New Zealand, European, Asian, and "Others") along with the appropriate test statistic [F statistic associated with analysis of variance (ANOVA)], statistical significance levels and the pattern of differences among the groups determined by post-hoc tests (Tukey HSD) associated with the one-way ANOVA was conducted. Data was tested for homogeneity of variance using the Levene statistic. The level of significance was set to $p < .05$ (5% level) for all t-tests and ANOVAs. A summary of research questions and corresponding analysis techniques are provided in Table 4.6. The findings of research questions and discussions are presented in Chapter Five. Respondents' personal details are omitted for privacy.

Table 4.6 Summary of research proposed questions and analysis techniques

Research questions (see A4 in Appendix A)	Data analysis techniques
Q. 1 – Q. 8, Q. 9 – Q. 12, Q. 15, Q. 17, Q. 20 –Q. 23, Q. 25, Q. 28, Q. 29, Q. 32, Q. 34, Q. 35, Q. 38, Q. 39, Q. 40, and Q. 42	Frequency distribution
Q. 10, Q. 13, Q. 16, Q. 24, Q. 26, Q. 37, and Q. 41	Descriptive analysis
Q. 39	Cross-tabulation
Q. 10, Q. 13, Q. 16, Q. 26, Q. 37, Q. 41	Independent–samples t-test (2 - tailed)
Q. 10, Q. 13, Q. 16, Q. 24, Q. 26, Q. 37, and Q. 41	Analysis of variance (ANOVA)

4.4 Phase 2: Qualitative Research Approach

4.4.1 Research instrument: Semi -structured Interviews

Owing to the exploratory nature of this study, individual semi-structured interviews were undertaken to obtain more information from restaurants and chefs, local farmers and/or farmers' market vendors, and wholesale distributors. This data gathering method is in line with similar recent studies of this nature (e.g. O'Donovan et al. 2012; Self et al. 2012; Sharma et al. 2012). Miles and Huberman (1994, p.10) claim that the specific value gained from using in-depth interviews is that it focuses on a "specific, naturally occurring situation", thus providing "rich and holistic" descriptions relating to "real life". Subsequently, many researchers support this method, particularly for its ability to explore and gain in-depth information from participants (Holstein & Gubrium 2004). Another advantage of using this approach is that due to face-to-face interviews, it helps to gain more detailed information into underpinning motivations, knowledge, and belief and results in a higher percentage of completed answers (Malhotra & Birks 2007).

4.4.2 Sample design (Population and sample size)

In qualitative studies, a non-probability or non-random sampling method is often chosen when selecting the sample for research (Jenning 2010). Hair et al. (2003) emphasised that in "non-probability sampling the selection of elements for the sample is not necessarily made with the aim of being statistically representative of the population" (p.217). Rather "the researcher uses subjective methods such as personal experience, convenience, expert judgement and so on to select the elements in the sample" (Hair et al. 2003, p.217). As a result, the probability of any element of the population being chosen is not known. Most often, the size of sample is determined by the research objectives and research question sought (Patton 2001).

Considering the above criterion, purposive sampling and a non-probability method was used to select restaurants and chefs in this study. According to Cooper and Schindler (2008, p.397), "purposive sampling is a non-probability sampling technique where a researcher selects sample members to confirm to some criteria". Hair et al. (2003) also emphasised that purposive sampling involves selecting elements in the sample for a specific purpose. The "sample elements are chosen because the researcher believes they represent the target population, but they are not necessarily representative" (Hair et al. 2003, p.217). Patton (1990) stated that purposive sampling is a strategy in which a particular setting or persons or events are selected deliberately

in order to provide important information that they are not otherwise able to obtain. The advantages of purposive samples are their convenience, speed and low cost. Thus, a purposive sampling technique was applied for selecting interview participants (restaurants and chefs) for its effectiveness in gathering information from a specific population (Neuman & Robson 2009) and “the results can almost be considered to constitute a population” (McBurney & White 2004, p.248). Two criteria were applied to recruit restaurants and chefs. First, they were a respondent in the survey. Second, they were asked as part of the questionnaire if they would like to participate in personal interviews on a similar topic, and several showed a willingness to participate in the interview sessions. Thus, they were to be further contacted by the researcher. A total of 31 participants from the Vancouver sample and 28 participants from the Christchurch sample were recruited for interview sessions and who had participated in the survey at phase 1 of the data collection process.

In this study, the approach adopted for sampling farmers and/or vendors and wholesale distributors was a convenience technique, a non-probability method to identify these participants (Neuman & Robson 2009). This sampling method is applicable to the study because the information about the farmers and/or farmers’ market vendors and wholesale distributors was most readily available to restaurants and chefs in the study and they could provide the required information easily. Hair et al. (2003, p.217) defined “a convenience sample involves selecting sample elements that are most readily available to participate in the study and who can provide the information required”. In addition, convenience samples were used because they enable the researcher to complete a large number of interviews quickly and cost effectively. A total of 12 farmers and/or vendors and six wholesale distributors from Vancouver and eight farmers and/or vendors and 10 wholesale distributors were identified and recruited for interview sessions that currently sold local products to the local foodservice establishments. The sample size for qualitative studies is primarily driven by the phenomenon of interest (Marshall 1996). In this study, the phenomenon of interest was farmers and/or vendors and wholesale distributors directly selling local food products to foodservice establishments with the sample size for interviews being comparable with the number of similar studies (e.g. Feenstra et al. 2011; Self et al. 2012; Sharma et al. 2012).

4.4.3 Data collection procedure

Prior to conducting the semi-structured interviews, an interview guideline was prepared which included a list of questions and issues to be explored and probed for analysis. These key ideas

can be analysed qualitatively or quantitatively (Finn et al. 2000). A letter of purpose presented the objectives of the study and consent form was also developed (see A10, A11, A13, A14, A15, A16, A18, and A19 in Appendix A). A separate interview guide was developed for each stakeholder group: the restaurants and chefs, farmers and/or farmers' market vendors, and wholesale distributors (see A12, A17, and A20 in Appendix A). In this study, the use of interview guidelines enabled the researcher to make each interview session more systematic and comprehensive. The guideline also helps the researcher to explore additional relevant topics that might appear during interview session (Jenning 2010). Thus, it became additional reference during the transcription and data analysis stages. Social attention, such as a relaxing and non-threatening environment was also created during each interview session, as recommended by Jennings (2005, p.107). The research instruments were submitted to the Human Subjects Ethics Committee of the University of Canterbury and ethics approval was obtained (see A21 in Appendix A).

All the interviewees were contacted by telephone or email for the purpose of scheduling an interview date and time. The interview date and venue was then arranged. An information sheet was then sent to all the interviewees by email outlining the objectives of the study, what information was going to be used for in the study, how the information would be stored, and the assurance of confidentiality for the interviewees. In addition to this, all the interviewees were sent a copy of the interview questions to assist with answering the questions. As per University of Canterbury ethics approval, interviewees were also required to sign a consent form before the interview commenced. Each interviewee retained a copy of the consent form as well as the letter of invitation to the interview. The interviews were conducted via face-to-face on a one-on-one basis.

A total of 59 participants (31 in Vancouver and 28 in Christchurch) from foodservice establishments were interviewed. Of these, 57 interviews took place at the interviewees' workplace; the remaining two (one from each sample) interviews were conducted at venues convenient for the interviewees. The interviews lasted approximately 40-60 minutes in length. Interviewees participated on their own terms so as not to cause any disruptions to interviewees or their businesses, particularly prior to or during busy times of operation.

A total of 12 farmers and/or farmers' market vendors and six wholesale distributors from Vancouver were interviewed. The Christchurch sample consisted of eight farmers and/or farmers' market vendors and ten wholesale distributors. Interviews with each of the farmers

and/or farmers' market vendors at the farm or place of production and at the farmers' markets were considered. A total of four farmer interviews (one from Vancouver and three from Christchurch samples) were conducted at the farm. The researcher needed to travel to each farm location and organised an appropriate time for completion of the interviews with the farmers. The remaining farmers and/or farmers' market vendors' interviews were held in the afternoons of market days while farmers and/or farmers' market vendors were not busy with customers. The average length of the interview discussions with farmers and/or vendors was 60 minutes. In respect of wholesale distributors, interviews were conducted and took place at the interviewees' business places for both of the samples and each lasted about 50-60 minutes.

All the interviews with each stakeholder group were audio recorded with the permission of the interviewees for later transcription. All the interviews were carried out in English by the researcher over a period of three months (September to November 2014 in Vancouver and February to April 2015 for Christchurch samples) with each stakeholder group (Table 4.7).

Table 4.7 Summary of number of interviewees from each stakeholder group

Category	Number of interviewees in Vancouver	Number of interviewees in Christchurch	Total participants
Restaurants and chefs	31	28	59
Farmers and/or farmers' market vendors	12	8	20
Wholesale distributors	6	10	16
Total interviews conducted			95

4.4.4 Data analysis procedures

Depending on the length of the interview, the transcription process took several hours to complete. Transcripts were compiled verbatim as soon as possible after each interview by the researcher.

In this study, content analysis was undertaken based on the textual data derived from the transcripts of semi-structured interviews with 95 interviewees. The main goal in employing content analysis in this study is to gain knowledge, new insights, and understanding of the phenomenon through valid inferences from text data to the context of the study (Krippendorff 1980).

The researcher extracted the data manually under thematic headings. This decision was undertaken in line with the studies of Bong (2002) and Davis and Meyer (2009) which questioned whether using computer aided analysis necessarily assisted in-depth understanding of the open-ended responses of the participants. Furthermore, Patton (2001) also emphasised that in qualitative research, discovery of choice made by the researcher(s) and the rationale behind such choices are absolutely necessary in clarifying the assumptions and theoretical dimensions of the methodology. In fact, the researcher found that doing manual analysis allowed a closer examination of the data and more rigorous identification of patterns and emerging themes.

4.4.5 Thematic analysis

Thematic analysis was used to analyse all three stakeholder groups. In order to perform the thematic analysis, this study adopted Braun and Clarke's (2006) six stages to analyse the interview data. Under these stages, data was interpreted, responses were related back to the study's research questions and literature, and broader conclusions were drawn around the data. The stages are described as follows:

Stage 1: Familiarising yourself with your data-reading and re-reading of the data, noting down initial ideas.

At this stage, the verbatim data corpus was read a number of times and data sets were identified. This is done by dividing each interview and ordering responses under the relevant research questions. Following that, two margins (one left and one right) were created for containing the copied data sets. A detailed reading was carried out and initial thoughts were noted in the left hand margin with these notes then being related to the concepts and phrases of the present study.

Stage 2: Generating initial codes - coding interesting features of the data in a systematic fashion across the entire data set and collating data relevant to each code.

At this stage, the data set was re-read several times and the initial notes transformed into codes. The researcher used coloured highlighters to 'code' the verbatim notes into categories. Furthermore, at this stage all actual data extracts were coded and then collated together within each code. This was done through the comparison with previous codes, so similar data labelled with the same code. Notes that were considered irrelevant or vague were excluded. This data reduction process was performed in order to make the data more easily accessible, understandable, and to draw out various themes and patterns (DeCuir-Gunby, Marshall & McCulloch 2011). Special care was taken not to lose any relevant data in this process.

Stage 3: Searching for themes - collating categories into potential themes, gathering all data relevant to each potential theme.

At this stage, the data are re-read again and the researcher re-focuses the analysis at the broader level of themes, rather than codes that involved sorting the different codes into potential themes and collated all the relevant coded data extracts within the identified themes. Some initial codes were used to form main themes, whereas others formed sub-themes. For example, the researcher identified three sub-themes that related to notions of perceived benefits of purchasing local food (see section 6.1.4 in Chapter 6). However, some sets of codes were also found that did not fit into the main themes and were labelled as ‘miscellaneous’ and were initially put aside to be revisited for later examination as to their relevance.

Stage 4: Reviewing themes - checking if themes work in relation to coded data and generating a thematic map of the analysis.

This stage was undertaken and the results are presented in Chapters Six and Seven. At this stage, particular importance was undertaken to ensure that the main themes and sub-themes made theoretical sense.

Stage 5: Defining and naming themes - ongoing analysis to refine the specifics of each theme, and the overall story the analysis tells, generating clear definitions and names for each theme.

At this stage, the main themes and sub-themes were refined so that the linkage between the main theme and sub-theme is concise and clear. In this study several main themes (e.g. perceived benefits of purchasing local food, perceived barriers of purchasing local food products) were identified, each consisting of a number of sub-themes.

Stage 6: Producing the report - the final opportunity for analysis, selection of vivid, compelling extract examples, final analysis of selected extracts, relating back of the analysis to the research question and literature, producing a scholarly report of the analysis.

At this stage, statements from the raw data were extracted to provide evidence of the existence of each theme within the various sub-themes. This is done by creating tables to compare and contrast. For example, the number of times each theme was mentioned per interview, the number of interviewees that mentioned each theme, and themes mentioned under different questions. Following Braun and Clarke (2006), a final analysis and discussion of the selected extracts was related back to the research objectives, questions, and the appropriate literature.

4.5 Ethical Considerations

Ethics are “the principles, norms, and standards of conduct governing an individual or group” (Treviño & Nelson 1999, p.12). Ethics must be considered whenever any research project involves human participants and needs to be considered at every stage of the research process (Creswell 2009; Hall 2011; Veal 2011; Yin 2011; Wilson 2014). This research was completed within the guidelines and rules of the University of Canterbury’s ethical code of practice. Prior to the commencement of data collection, ethical approval for this research was granted from the University of Canterbury Human Ethics Committee on 16th April 2014 (see A21 in Appendix A).

As mentioned above, at the beginning of the data collection each participant was provided with an information sheet about the objective of the research, including the nature of the research, and the names of parties involved in this research. Participants were offered the opportunity to withdraw from the research at any time without any penalty (see A1 and A6 for survey participants and A10, A13, A15, and A18 for the Interview participants in Appendix A). Signed consent forms were gathered from each participant which stated that they had been given full information about the research and had the right to decide if they wanted to participate in this study or not. Participation in this study was completely voluntary. The consent form served as a guarantee of their privacy and safety (see A2, A3, and A7 for survey participants and A11, A14, A16, and A19 for interview participants in Appendix A).

Interview participants were also informed that the interviews would be audio-recorded. They were also told that their personal information would be kept confidential and their name would not be used. Only the researcher and his supervisors would have access to their real names and the access of data is restricted to the researcher and his supervisors. For this reason, pseudonyms have been used instead of interviewees’ real names.

4.6 The Researcher’s Position in this Research

In any research, the researcher should consider the importance of their own biases. For that reason researchers need to address their own positionality intellectually, politically and socially (Barnes & Sheppard 2000; Hall 2004a). In this study, the researcher considered himself as an insider researcher given his prior knowledge and understanding of the groups (participants) intended to study. As a result, the researcher played two roles simultaneously: researcher and

researched. The researcher has 25 years of hospitality industry work experience as a professional chef with 15 years of senior managerial positions and as a hospitality and tourism instructor in Vancouver. Thus, it raises questions of bias for this study. In order to mitigate any potential bias as a result of insider status, the researcher sought different techniques and tools to ensure the trustworthiness of the data that was gathered as accurately as possible in this study. However, this study also benefitted from experience of a wide range of working environments, which not only allowed immersion amongst the data to a greater depth of understanding, but also provided for informed interpretation of data.

As an insider, the researcher gained several advantages during the data collection process. The researcher did not have to worry about orienting himself with the research environment. According to Aguilera (1981) and Bell (2005), insider researchers are free from the effect of culture shock and they can blend themselves in easily without disturbing the social setting. They also have pre-existing knowledge of the research context. With regards to participants, Merriam et al. (2001) stated that insider researchers have the “ability to ask meaningful questions and read non-verbal cues,” as well as the ability to “project a more truthful, authentic understanding of the culture under study” (p.411). The insider is able to “understand the cognitive, emotional, and/or psychological precepts of participants as well as possess a more profound knowledge of the historical and practical happenings of the field” (Chavez 2008, p.481). On several occasions respondents even welcomed the researcher with the opportunity to discuss the issues with someone who “understands”.

On the other hand, by being an insider, the researcher may be accused of being inherently biased as the researcher may be too close to the subjects under the study. However, the researcher took steps to conduct the research without bias although, as Aguilera (1981) stated, “the insiders’ biases may be a source of insight as well as error” (p.26). The researcher found challenges to separate his research life from his work life while writing and reflecting on the process. It was difficult for him to measure what level of involvement is enough versus too much because of the researcher’s position as an intimate-insider. To avoid this bias, the researcher employed stream of consciousness writing and took steps not to share confidential data (Van Heugten 2004; Bell 2005).

4.7 Chapter Summary

In this chapter, the philosophical and methodological foundations of the study have been presented. A pragmatic paradigm that uses a comparative study with a mixed methods approach was used to gather the necessary data for this research. The mixed methods approach was used with two separate data collection phases. In the first phase, the survey was conducted to elicit data relating to restaurants and chefs perceptions, motivations, barriers and constraints of buying and promoting local food ingredients on their menus. Following this, in the second phase, semi-structured interview sessions were performed with restaurants and chefs, farmers and/or farmers' market vendors, and wholesale distributors to better contextualize the results of the survey. The ethical aspects of this research have also been presented, including the researchers' position in this study, questionnaire and interview design, and selection of survey and interview participants. The results and discussion of the two phases are presented in Chapters Five, Six, Seven, and Eight.

CHAPTER FIVE

Results: Questionnaire Survey

5.0 Introduction

This chapter reports the findings obtained from the questionnaire survey with restaurants and chefs in Vancouver (Canada) and Christchurch (New Zealand). The analysis examines any major similarities for, and differences between, Vancouver and Christchurch respondents. Interview findings from restaurants (managers, owners, and chefs), farmers' market vendors and farmers, and wholesale distributors' views on local food are reported in Chapter Six and Chapter Seven. This chapter follows the structure of the questionnaire. The first section describes the response rates, followed by an outline of respondent profiles in the second section. In the third section, the respondents' choice of definition of local food is examined. Sections Four to Ten discuss findings with respect to respondents' perceptions, motivations, barriers and constraints of buying local food ingredients. The final section presents findings on respondents' local food promotion on their menu. Throughout the chapter, the findings are analysed with reference to previous findings and the relevant literature. Where relevant, analysis is also undertaken using style or type of cuisine served at restaurants as a factor for comparison.

5.1 Response Rate

This research used the mail survey method to gather information from foodservice establishments (see Chapter Four). A total of 759 questionnaires were administered in Vancouver and data were collected over a three-and-a-half month period from the second week of July to the end of October 2014. The final data collection resulted in 69 completed questionnaires, which contributed to a 9.09% (69/759) response rate. In Christchurch, a total of 455 questionnaires were administered and data were collected over a three month period from the first week of January to the end of March 2015. The final data collection effort resulted in 96 completed questionnaires in Christchurch. This makes an overall usable response rate of 21.09% (96/455) in Christchurch. For both surveys, the final response rate is in the typical range for response rates in other restaurant surveys (Brown 2008; Casselman 2010; Reynolds-Allie & Fields' 2012). For example, Sharma et al.'s (2014) research on restaurant management's attitudes and behaviours that influence decisions to purchases locally grown foods in Iowa

reported a usable response rate of 5.14% (126/2450). Therefore, the usable response rate reported in this study compares favourably with these studies of a similar nature.

5.2 Demographic Profile of Respondents

Respondents' profiles

The demographic characteristics of respondents are summarised in Tables 5.1a, 5.1b, 5.1c, 5.1d, and 5.1e. Previous research suggested that establishment ownership may affect a chef or manager's decision and ability to purchase locally grown food products for menu items (Starr et al. 2003; Curtis & Cowee 2009). Of the 69 Vancouver respondents, 37.68% identified their establishment as a casual/family full service restaurant, 21.73% stated their establishment is an upscale full service restaurant, and 76.81% identified themselves as independently owned (Table 5.1a). The result of ownership category in this research is consistent with other studies (Kirby 2007; Curtis et al. 2008; Reynolds-Allie & Fields 2012).

Table 5.1a Demographic characteristics of respondents (Segment and Ownership)

Segment	Vancouver (N = 69)		Christchurch (N = 96)	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Upscale Full Service Restaurant	15	21.73	13	13.54
Casual/Family Full Service Restaurant	26	37.68	67	69.79
Hotel Restaurant	12	17.39	3	3.12
Limited Service (Fast Food) Restaurant	3	4.34	5	5.20
Café	1	1.44	4	4.16
Buffet Restaurant	0	0.00	1	1.04
Speciality Foodservice (e.g. Caterer)	3	4.34	3	3.12
Other (Please specify)	9	13.04	0	0.00
Ownership				
Independently Owned	53	76.81	78	81.25
Chain/Corporate (centralised ownership)	9	13.04	11	11.45
Franchise (Owned separately, but part of a chain concept)	7	10.14	7	7.29

Christchurch respondents are quite similar to the Vancouver respondents. 69.79% identified their establishment as a casual/family full service restaurant, 13.54% stated their establishment is an upscale full service restaurant, and 81.25% identified themselves as independently owned. These results are largely consistent with previous studies (Kirby 2007; Curtis et al. 2008; Reynolds-Allie & Fields 2012).

Results from Vancouver also showed that 34.78% of the respondents held the position of executive chef at the establishment followed by 28.98% chef owner/operators (Table 5.1b). The sample is dominated by male respondents, with 89.85% being male.

Table 5.1b Demographic characteristics of respondents (Job designation and Gender)

Job designation	Vancouver (N = 69)		Christchurch (N = 96)	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Executive Chef	24	34.78	22	22.91
Executive Sous/Sous Chef	10	14.49	8	8.33
Chef Owner/Operator	20	28.98	23	23.95
General Manager	5	7.24	9	9.37
Food and Beverage Director	0	0.00	0	0.00
Food and Beverage Manager	0	0.00	4	4.16
Purchasing Manager	1	1.44	0	0.00
Manager	4	5.79	23	23.95
Other (Please specify)	5	7.24	7	7.29
Gender				
Male	62	89.85	77	80.20
Female	7	10.14	19	19.79

The Christchurch sample is also dominated by male respondents (80.20%). Table 5.1a shows that male participation in this study is much higher than that of females; 22.29% of respondents held the position of executive chef and 23.95% chef owner/operator.

In Vancouver, about two-thirds of respondents had completed national academic establishment and national chefs' school training programmes, 30.43% had finished international training programmes, 18.84% had received no formal training (Table 5.1c). The table also shows that 48.95% indicated they are a New Zealander by nationality; followed by 19.79% Indian by nationality. About 62.50% had acquired in-house training and this figure is much higher than those reported by Vancouver respondents (27.53%). Only 22.91% had received international training, whereas 35.41% and 13.54% respectively, had completed national academic establishment and national chef school training programmes.

Table 5.1c Demographic characteristics of respondents (Nationality and Training)

Nationality^a	Vancouver (N = 69)		Christchurch (N = 96)	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Canadian	45	65.21		
Canadian/Taiwan	1	1.44		
Canadian/Vietnamese	1	1.44		
Canadian/Indian	1	1.44		
Canadian/UK	1	1.44		
Canadian/Italian	1	1.44		
Indian	8	11.59	19	19.79
Austrian	1	1.44	1	1.04
Canadian/Chinese	1	1.44		
German	1	1.44	2	2.08
Fijian	1	1.44		
Serbian	1	1.44		
Korean	1	1.44	4	4.16
New Zealander			47	48.95
British			3	3.12
Chinese			8	8.33
Nepalese			2	2.08
Irish			1	1.04
Japanese			2	2.08
Thai			4	4.16
Filipino			1	1.04
Pakistani			1	1.04
Spanish			1	1.04
Training^b				
International Training	21	30.43	22	22.91
National Academic Establishment	24	34.78	34	35.41
National Chef School	22	31.88	13	13.54
In-House Training	19	27.53	60	62.50
No Formal Training	13	18.84	5	5.20
Other	2	2.89	1	1.04

^aTotals differ due to missing data from Vancouver sample.

^b Percent is greater than 100, as respondents selected all that applied; thus, multiple responses.

For those who responded to a question about how long they had held the current occupation in their current property, in Vancouver, 30.43% stated they had been with their current establishment for about 5-10 years and 18.84% for more than 10 years (Table 5.1d).

Table 5.1d Demographic characteristics of respondents (Years in current establishment)

Years in current establishment	Vancouver (N = 69)		Christchurch (N = 96)	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
0-2 years	20	28.98	31	32.29
2-4 years	15	21.73	20	20.83
5-10 years	21	30.43	23	23.95
More than 10 years	13	18.84	22	22.91

In Christchurch, 32.29% stated they had been with their current establishment for about 0-2 years, followed by 23.95% for 5-10 years, and 22.91% for more than 10 years.

The respondents were asked to rate their level of autonomy with respect to ordering supplies on a 4-point scale, from no autonomy (1) to complete autonomy (4). In Vancouver, 72.46% indicated that they have a complete level of autonomy followed by 21.73% as having some autonomy, 2.89% for little autonomy, and 2.89% as having no autonomy in making purchasing decisions for the products/ingredients for their establishments (Table 5.1e).

Table 5.1e Demographic characteristics of respondents (Autonomy)

Autonomy	Vancouver (N = 69)		Christchurch (N = 96)	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
No Autonomy	2	2.89	3	3.12
Little Autonomy	2	2.89	2	2.08
Some Autonomy	15	21.73	14	14.58
Complete Autonomy	50	72.46	77	80.20

In Christchurch, a higher proportion of respondents (80.20%) indicated that they have a complete level of autonomy, followed by 14.58% as some autonomy in making purchasing decisions from whomever he/she wishes to purchase the products/ingredients for their establishments.

Type of cuisine related to food emphasis

Many respondents' establishments provided multiple styles of cuisine on their menu selections. For greater differentiation within the respondent establishments, these establishments were further divided into four main cuisine groups from each sample (Table 5.2).

Table 5.2 Establishment's frequency by cuisine style of restaurants

Vancouver respondents (N = 69)

Group	Cuisine style	Frequency	Percent
Canadian (N = 31)			44.93
	Canadian	31	44.93
Asian (N = 16)			23.19
	Indian	11	15.94
	Chinese	3	4.35
	Korean	1	1.45
	Vietnamese	1	1.45
European (N = 13)			18.84
	Italian	10	14.49
	French	3	4.35
Other (N = 9)			13.04
	Caterer	4	5.80
	Vegetarian	2	2.90
	Mexican	2	2.90
	Fish and Chips	1	1.45

Christchurch respondents (N = 96)

Group	Cuisine style	Frequency	Percent
New Zealand (N = 38)			39.58
	New Zealand Cuisine	38	39.58
Asian (N = 40)			41.66
	Indian	16	16.66
	Chinese	7	7.29
	Korean	2	2.08
	Vietnamese	1	1.04
	Thai	10	10.41
	Japanese	4	4.16
European (N = 10)			10.41
	Italian	8	8.33
	Spanish	1	1.04
	Greek	1	1.04
Other (N = 8)			8.33
	Caterer	3	3.12
	Mexican	3	3.12
	Fish and Chips	2	2.08

In Vancouver, the most common style of cuisine served at the establishments was 'Canadian cuisine (including contemporary Canadian cuisine)', with thirty-one (44.93%) restaurants in the

survey sample identifying this as their main cuisine type. Sixteen establishments (21.74%) served mainly Asian cuisine that consists of Indian, Chinese, Korean, and Vietnamese restaurants. In Christchurch, forty respondents (41.66%) were Asian cuisine establishments which are the most common style of cuisine served at restaurants. Thirty-eight establishments (39.58%) served New Zealand cuisine (including contemporary New Zealand cuisine) (Table 5.2). The Vancouver and Christchurch results are fairly consistent with previous studies (e.g. Thorsen & Hall 2001; Smith & Hall 2003).

5.3 The Local Food Definition for the Respondents

Respondents were asked to choose from a single choice of definition of “local food” that included both a distance measure (radius spanning between 30 miles and 125 miles) and a geographic or political boundary (province or region) lines (Table 5.3).

Table 5.3 Frequency of establishment’s “Local food” definition

Vancouver respondents (N = 69)		
Description	Frequency	Percent
Within 50 km (30 miles) of travelling distance from the restaurant	5	7.24
Within 100 km (60 miles) of travelling distance from the restaurant	8	11.59
Within 161 km (100 miles) of travelling distance from the restaurant	6	8.69
Within 200 km (125 miles) of travelling distance from the restaurant	5	7.24
In the metro or greater Vancouver area (lower mainland)	9	13.04
In British Columbia	36	52.17
None of these	0	0.00
Christchurch respondents (N = 96)		
Description	Frequency	Percent
Within 50 km (30 miles) of travelling distance from the restaurant	12	12.50
Within 100 km (60 miles) of travelling distance from the restaurant	8	8.33
Within 161 km (100 miles) of travelling distance from the restaurant	1	1.04
Within 200 km (125 miles) of travelling distance from the restaurant	4	4.16
In the greater Christchurch area (Canterbury region)	54	56.25
In South Island	17	17.70
None of these	0	0.00
Do not know	0	0.00

A comparison between Vancouver and Christchurch samples shows that the majority of both groups of respondents defined “local food” according to political boundary lines (52.17% and 56.25% of the respective samples) than by a distance measure from restaurants. Respondents’

preference for a definition of “local food” from this study reflects previous findings that “local” was defined according to the geographic or political boundary lines and included a single state, province, or a county (Hinrichs 2003 [Iowa]; Futamura 2007 [Kentucky]; Darby et al. 2008 [Ohio]; Inwood et al. 2009 [Ohio]; see also Selfa & Qazi 2005; Murphy & Smith 2009; Khan & Prior 2010; Sims 2010; Pearson et al. 2011; Duram & Cawley 2012; Liang & Dunn 2013; Trivette 2015). For this study the definition of “local food” is in line with previous research (Peterson et al. 2010; Dunne et al. 2011; Ballute & Berger 2014). For example, the result of a Michigan farmers’ markets consumer survey reported that 49% of respondents defined “locally grown foods” as those grown in Michigan and 18% each defined local as grown in the Great Lakes region or within 100 miles from home (Conner et al. 2009). The present study results indicate that responses were fairly evenly distributed and there is no consensus on defining “local” and what constitutes a local food system (Pearson et al. 2011). However, it is possible that some perceptions of local food depend on the nature of the question asked. For example, in a study of attendees at farmers’ markets in Christchurch, Hall (2013) identified a greater focus on nearby products being defined as local (less than 30km) which was in keeping with UK definitions, made popular via food programmes shown on New Zealand television.

5.4 Respondents’ Participation in the Local Food System

All the participants were asked whether they currently purchase any local food products/ingredients or not. Results revealed that there was a similarity in both groups of respondents to local food purchases. The Vancouver survey sample showed 92.75% currently purchased local food products/ingredients, while the results from Christchurch showed 97.91% currently purchased local food products/ingredients. Findings from those establishments that did not purchase local food products/ingredients are presented first, followed by those that purchased.

5.4.1 Establishments that did not purchase local food products

Barriers to purchasing local food products/ingredients

The most important distinguishing feature between both samples that do not purchase local food products was “Too time consuming to locate sources” (Table B2 in Appendix B). This concern is consistent with previous studies (Curtis & Cowee 2009; Casselman 2010; Reynolds-Allie & Fields 2012). However, this factor was rated differently, although not significantly, between Vancouver and Christchurch respondents ($t = -.43, p = 0.688$). Christchurch respondents placed

more importance on the factor than Vancouver respondents. This indicates that Christchurch respondents are likely to have concerns with the time it takes them to locate the source of local food products. This may be also due to responding establishments' lack of involvement in their communities through farmers' markets or other avenues such as recommendations and word-of-mouth from other establishments. In addition, a one-way ANOVA test on "Too time consuming to locate sources" was also the only barrier factor found to be statistically significantly different among all cuisine styles of restaurants in Vancouver, although no contrasts were found to be significant [$F(2, 2) = 16.20, p = 0.05$] (Table B3 in Appendix B), but not in Christchurch, as Christchurch respondents were too small for such analyses.

Factors that were not significant in any of these tests but rated as highly perceived barriers when sourcing local food for Vancouver respondents were "Inadequate availability" (5.25), "Narrow/Limited variety of selection" (5.20), and "Seasonal changes" (5.00). Christchurch respondents were not particularly concerned about "Seasonal changes" (3.00) and "Narrow/Limited variety of selection" (3.50) factors, with most rated around the low side of the neutral point of the scale. These findings reflect results in other studies (FPC 2003; Woods et al. 2006; Curtis & Cowee 2009; Casselman 2010). However, respondents from Christchurch had the highest level of disagreement – a more neutral reflection of local purchasing for the barrier factor "Inadequate availability" (4.00). This indicates respondent indifference in regard to "Inadequate availability" as an incentive to local food purchasing. The results could be interpreted that respondents from both samples are having seasonality problems with farmers or are not able to work out this problem before it becomes a difficult obstacle for them. The factors "Inconsistent delivery schedule" (4.50) and "Incomplete information/lack of awareness" (4.00) were cited as major barriers to purchasing locally for Christchurch respondents. Respondents from this sample appeared to be unaware or did not have knowledge of the products currently being grown/produced in Canterbury. This factor is noted elsewhere (Curtis & Cowee 2009; Casselman 2010; Reynolds-Allie & Fields 2012).

Cost of the food was not a significant barrier factor in purchasing decisions for any test run. Although consistent with some other studies (Sharma et al. 2009; Schmit & Hadcock 2012; Sharma et al. 2014), this finding disputes "common wisdom" that has been reproduced in many studies (Strohbehn & Gregoire 2002; FPC 2003; Starr et al. 2003; Zdorovtsov et al. 2007; Curtis & Cowee 2009; Casselman 2010). However, the present study indicates that price is not the determinant of purchasing decisions for local food.

5.4.2 Establishments that did purchase local food products

Establishment's preferred source for local food products

Respondents who purchased local food products/ingredients were asked to identify all distribution methods through which they normally had purchased for their establishment. The results are presented in Table 5.4.

Table 5.4 Utilisation of alternative procurement sources by establishment

Procurement source	Vancouver (N = 64 ^b)		Christchurch (N = 94 ^c)	
	Frequency Yes	Percent Yes ^a	Frequency Yes	Percent Yes ^a
Local distributors	59	93.65	90	95.74
Regional distributors	39	61.90	32	34.04
National distributors	28	44.44	28	29.78
Farmers' markets	32	50.79	14	14.89
Roadside farm stands	8	12.69	3	3.19
Direct purchase from a farmer/producer (not from farm stands or farmers' markets)	36	57.14	24	25.53
Local manufacturer/processor	35	55.55	22	23.40
Community Supported Agriculture	17	26.98	0	0.00
Others (grocery stores)	3	4.76	0	0.00

^a Percent is greater than 100, as respondents selected all that applied; thus, multiple responses.

^b One respondent did not answer this question. ^c Two respondents did not answer this question.

Restaurants and chefs utilised several local channels from which they procured local farm products for their establishment. Wholesale distributor channels were most commonly utilised to purchase the largest share of ingredients for both groups of respondents. In terms of distribution methods, there was a similarity in that for both groups of respondents, local distributors were a popular choice (approximately 94-96% for both the samples). However, regional (61.90%) and national distributors (44.44%) were used more frequently in Vancouver, compared with Christchurch. These results are similar to previous studies (Reynolds-Allie & Fields 2012; Schmit & Hadcock 2012). However, these results are not aligned with the FPC (2003) study where foodservice distributors were the third choice for local procurement. In this study, 57.14% and 50.79% of the establishments from Vancouver have purchased directly from a farmer or from farmers' markets, respectively. In contrast, 25.53% and 14.89% have purchased direct from a farmer or from farmers' markets respectively in Christchurch. This purchase was either a direct shipment from the farmers' markets/farm or pick up at the farmers' markets/farm. The result is consistent with the FPC (2003) where 81% of the respondents (n = 87) purchased directly from

farmers and 71% from farmers' markets. Casselman (2010) also reported that purchasing direct from farmers was the highest preferred source of catering operations in Iowa while farmers' markets were the next highest preferred source. A larger percentage of Vancouver respondents (55.55%) used local manufacturer/processors than Christchurch (23.40%).

Local food procurement preferences also varied by style of cuisine served by restaurants with both groups of respondents. A number of procurement sources were used by different cuisine style of restaurants in both samples (Table B4 in Appendix B). Importantly, all restaurants have used at least one kind of wholesale distributor for local food procurements in both groups of samples. With the exception of direct purchase from farmers, relatively large volumes of local products were purchased through all wholesaler distributor channels. This finding is very significant in this study as there are no other studies that concentrated particularly on wholesale distributors in relation to local food procurement in the hospitality context. The data also shows that a much higher number of Asian cuisine style of restaurants in Christchurch preferred to purchase from local wholesale distributors than Vancouver (40 vs. 14). This suggests that perhaps some Asian cuisine style of restaurants in Vancouver find the process of ordering products inconvenient compared to Christchurch respondents. Three respondents from Vancouver mentioned in the survey that they had been using local grocery stores for emergency supply purposes but not as a regular way of purchasing ingredients.

5.5 Establishment's Purchasing Habits from Farmers' Market Vendors

To get a clearer idea of the specific channel utilised by the establishment, respondents were asked whether they currently purchase any local food products/ingredients from farmers' market vendors. Of the 64 respondents in Vancouver, 50% currently purchase from farmers' market vendors. In Christchurch, only 14.89% do so. Findings from those establishments that did not purchase local food products/ingredients from farmers' markets are presented first, followed by those that did purchase.

5.5.1 Establishments that did not purchase local food products from farmers' market(s)

Barriers to purchasing local food products/ingredients from farmers' market vendors

One of the key goals of this survey was to learn about the barriers of local food adoption from farmers' market vendors in order to better inform efforts to improve the connections among the restaurants and farmers' market vendors in the local food system. Based on previous research

(see Chapter Three), twelve potential barriers were identified and respondents were asked to indicate the level of agreement of each on a “1” (strongly disagree) to “7” (strongly agree) point Likert scale. Table 5.5 presents the results of the two samples as well as the results of a t-test to determine whether there were any significant differences between the means of the two samples. Both Vancouver and Christchurch respondents indicated the highest perceived barriers for the same two barrier statements – although in a different order. Vancouver respondents placed the highest rated important inhibitor in terms of agreement on the “Do not offer delivery” (6.00) statement with a total frequency of 30, of which 12 respondents (40%) identified this as their first choice, followed by “Lack of time and staff to visit the market” (5.84). Christchurch respondents placed the highest rated important inhibitor in terms of agreement on “Lack of time and staff to visit the market” (6.60) statement with a total frequency of 80, of which 45 respondents (56.25%) chose it as their first choice, followed by “Do not offer delivery” (6.33). Additionally, Christchurch respondents and the Vancouver respondents were found to be significantly different ($t = - 2.55, p = 0.015$) in regard to the barrier statement of “Lack of time and staff to visit the market”. Vancouver respondents rated this barrier with less importance than that of Christchurch respondents. The barrier statement “Do not offer delivery” was the leading reason why local food product purchases were not made among these groups of respondents. However, there were no significant differences found among these groups of respondents with the t-test. Woods et al. (2006) found that 24% of produce buyers for restaurants in Kentucky cited reliability of supply as the most common barrier when sourcing local produce. However, issues with delivery of the products appear less problematic (mid-level obstacle) in other studies (Strohbehn & Gregoire 2002; Curtis & Cowee 2009).

It appears respondents’ concerns with “Do not offer delivery” and “Lack of time and staff to visit the market” statements are limiting their adoption of local food from farmers’ markets. Most chefs are not able to pick up the products from farmers’ markets due to the limited staffing in their establishments. They prefer products to be delivered than picking it up from the farmers’ market. At the same time most chefs are also willing to pay delivery charges for the products (which is usual for the local distributors) if someone delivers the products at their establishments as it is not possible for them to purchase a large quantity and carry or transport the products from farmers’ market to their restaurant (see also Inwood et al. 2009).

The statement “Satisfied with current distributors” was rated the third most perceived barrier by both groups of respondents. Vancouver respondents were found to be significantly different from Christchurch respondents ($t = - 2.95, p = 0.005$). Vancouver respondents found this barrier to be

Table 5.5 Barriers of local food adoption from farmers' market vendors

Barrier category	Vancouver (N = 32)				Christchurch (N = 80)				t-test	Sig.
	Frequency	Mean	Std. Dev.	Rank	Frequency	Mean	Std. Dev.	Rank		
Satisfied with current distributors	31	5.29	1.57	3	80	6.19	0.99	3	-2.95	0.005*
Prefer to have one supplier	29	4.52	2.02	9	80	5.40	1.70	6	-2.09	0.042*
Do not have time for several vendors	31	4.77	2.07	5	80	5.93	1.52	4	-2.80	0.007*
The volume cannot be satisfied with farmers' market vendors	30	5.00	2.13	4	80	5.89	1.02	5	-2.18	0.036*
Unsure of quality or consistencies of products/ingredients	30	4.70	2.12	6	80	5.39	1.35	7	-1.65	0.106
Lack of information of products/ingredients availability	30	4.53	1.92	8	80	5.30	1.38	8	-1.99	0.053*
Do not offer delivery	30	6.00	1.20	1	80	6.33	1.03	2	-1.31	0.197
Lack of refund policies	29	4.45	2.27	10	80	5.28	1.32	9	-1.84	0.073
Lack of time and staff to visit the market	31	5.84	1.57	2	80	6.60	0.85	1	-2.55	0.015*
Products/ingredients are too expensive	31	4.65	1.70	7	80	4.85	1.48	10	-0.58	0.559
Parking is a problem	29	3.48	1.97	12	80	2.89	1.60	12	1.45	0.152
Farmers' market(s) are too far away	28	4.39	2.21	11	80	4.58	1.65	11	-0.39	0.693

Note: Mean based on scale of 1= "Strongly Disagree", 4= "Neither Agree nor Disagree", 7= "Strongly Agree". **T-test (2-tailed)* significant at the 0.05 level.

of less importance (5.29) in terms of agreement than Christchurch respondents (6.19). The finding also coincides with other studies (see Inwood et al. 2009). Duram and Cawley (2012) found that chefs prefer to purchase vegetables from wholesale distributors whom they trust to provide them with local food rather than directly from producers as this approach reduces the number of contacts to increase the convenience.

The fourth most identified perceived obstacle was “The volume cannot be satisfied with farmers’ market vendors” (5.00) by Vancouver respondents. However, Christchurch respondents rated this obstacle (5.89) as their fifth most identified perceived obstacle to purchase from farmers’ markets. The t-test on “The volume cannot be satisfied with farmers’ market vendors” also found that Vancouver respondents were significantly different from Christchurch respondents ($t = -2.18, p = 0.036$). Vancouver respondents rated the statement with less importance than Christchurch respondents. The overall result is reflected in other surveys (e.g. Zdorovtsov et al. 2007; Curtis & Cowee 2009; Inwood et al. 2009; Schmit et al. 2010; Schmit & Hadcock 2012).

In terms of “Parking is a problem” and “Farmers’ market(s) are too far away”, both groups of respondents rated these as lesser barriers and shared similar views to local purchasing from farmers’ markets. This is markedly different from prior research that found that individuals did not purchase local food products from farmers’ market due to the inconvenient location (Wolf et al. 1997; Eastwood et al. 1999; Andreatta & Wickliffe 2002; Murphy 2011). The contrast for the statement “Do not have time for several vendors” between Vancouver and Christchurch respondents was found to be significantly different ($t = -2.80, p = 0.007$). The Vancouver respondents found this statement to be less important (4.77) than Christchurch respondents (5.93). The statement “Do not have time for several vendors” resonates strongly with other findings (e.g. Strohbahn & Gregoire 2002; Inwood et al. 2009; Kang & Rajagopal 2014). Schmit et al. (2010) reported limited time issues as very important for a restaurant/chef, with little time to deal with numerous sellers with smaller quantities for local purchases.

When these results were evaluated in terms of the cuisine style of restaurants using one-way AVOVA tests, there were no other statistically significant differences found among these four cuisine style restaurants in Vancouver (Table B5 in Appendix B). However, a statistically significant difference was found from Christchurch respondents with the ANOVA test among four cuisine styles of restaurants that seem related to the decision not to buy from farmers’ market vendors. Factors that were significant with this tests were “Satisfied with current distributors” [$F(3, 76) = 2.96, p = 0.03$], “Unsure of quality or consistencies of

products/ingredients” [$F(3, 76) = 5.97, p = 0.00$], “Lack of information of products/ingredients availability” [$F(3, 76) = 3.77, p = 0.01$], and “Farmers’ market(s) are too far away” [$F(3, 76) = 3.21, p = 0.02$]. No contrasts were found to be significant on “Satisfied with current distributors” factors among the four cuisine styles of restaurants. The barrier statement “Prefer to have one supplier”, was the closest to being similar among all four cuisine styles of restaurants [$F(3, 76) = 2.57, p = 0.06$]. However, no significant differences among the four cuisine styles of restaurants were found for this barrier statement.

5.5.2 Establishments that did purchase local food products from farmers’ markets

Respondents were asked about their purchasing period from farmers’ markets. Many of the responding establishments in Vancouver have been purchasing local food products from farmers’ markets for a number of years (Table 5.6). Of the 30 respondents to this question, three respondents indicated they have been purchasing for the last 20 years, two respondents reported for 14 years, and two other respondents commented that they have been purchasing local food for 10 years. Four respondents indicated that the survey year was their first year for shopping at the markets and the remaining 19 respondents for between two to eight years. In Christchurch, 12 respondents reported that they have been purchasing local food products from farmers’ markets for the last two to five years and two respondents indicated that the survey year was their first year shopping at the markets. Data from this study indicated that local food usage from farmers’ markets is not a new trend with the responding establishments in Vancouver.

Table 5.6 Duration of local food purchase from farmers’ markets

Vancouver respondents (N = 30)		Christchurch respondents (N = 14)	
Purchasing period (months/year)	Number of establishments	Purchasing period (months/year)	Number of establishments
1 year	4	1 year	2
2 – 5 years	19	2 – 5 years	12
10 years	2		
14 years	2		
20 years	3		

Purchasing frequency of local food procurements from farmers’ market vendors

Purchasing frequency varied among fresh produce, proteins, dairy, and value added products with the establishments from both groups of respondents. Table 5.7 describes the purchasing frequency of local food products by the respondents that reported having done so.

Table 5.7 Purchasing frequency of local food products/ingredients from farmers' market vendors by the establishments

Vancouver respondents (N = 32)				
	Fresh produce	Proteins	Dairy	Value added products^a
Purchasing frequency	Frequency	Frequency	Frequency	Frequency
Once a week	8	7	7	10
Multiple times a week	17	6	4	5
Once a month	3	3	1	2
Every 2-4 months	2	1	2	1
Every 5-7 months	0	1	1	1
Every 8-11 months	0	0	0	0
Once a year	0	2	2	1

Christchurch respondents (N = 14)				
	Fresh produce	Proteins	Dairy	Value added products^a
Purchasing frequency	Frequency	Frequency	Frequency	Frequency
Once a week	4	2	1	0
Multiple times a week	8	4	4	1
Once a month	1	1	2	1
Every 2-4 months	0	0	0	0
Every 5-7 months	0	0	0	0
Every 8-11 months	0	0	0	0
Once a year	1	1	2	1

Note: Multiple responses accepted. a product made with at least some ingredients directly from local producers

The results showed that Vancouver respondents (n = 17) purchased fresh produce more frequently (multiple times in a week) from farmers markets than Christchurch respondents (n = 8). A larger percentage of Vancouver respondents (n = 10) bought value added products once a week, while none of the respondents from Christchurch did the same. Seven respondents purchased dairy products once in a week from farmers' markets in Vancouver, compared with only one respondent in Christchurch. This is consistent with Casselman's (2010) study who reported that restaurants in Iowa purchased dairy products once a week from local farms.

Reasons for purchasing local food products from farmers' market vendors

To identify the attraction of farmers' markets, respondents were asked about their primary reason for attending farmers' markets based upon a variety of attributes. Respondents were provided with 24 possible reasons as to why they bought from farmers' markets and asked to rate their levels of agreement with respect to the attribute statements using a Likert scale of "1" (strongly disagree) to "7" (strongly agree) (Table 5.8). The results were quite similar between the two groups of respondents. Most attributes received a mean rating of four or greater, suggesting that

respondents perceived them as beneficial to purchasing local food products from farmers' markets. The attribute "Able to get fresher food products/ingredients" was found to be the leading reason why respondents decided to purchase at farmers' markets in Vancouver, while this aspect was second to "Food products/ingredients grown/produced locally" in Christchurch (see Chapter Six). Although not the focus of the present study, previous research has also reported that one of the highly desirable characteristics for consumers' to visit farmer' markets was also to obtain fresher local food products (Trobe 2001; Gregoire et al. 2005; Selfa & Qazi 2005; Wolf et al. 2005; Guthrie et al. 2006; Connell et al. 2008; Conner et al. 2009; Zepeda & Deal 2009; Feagan et al. 2004; Hall 2013; Sadler et al. 2013; Spilková et al. 2013). Likewise, food service establishments are also finding ways to capitalise on this benefit (see also FPS 2003; Starr et al. 2003; Strohbehn & Gregoire 2002, 2003; Feagan et al. 2004; Zdorovtsov 2007; Green & Dougherty 2008; Duram & Cawley 2012).

The attribute "Food products/ingredients grown/produced locally" was the second most important reason why respondents chose to purchase from farmers' markets in Vancouver and why respondents expressed their strong support for locally grown food products. This aspect was also the main reason for shopping at farmers' market among Christchurch respondents. Similarly, Starr et al. (2003) found that restaurants that purchase food from local producers are more likely to support the foods that are grown and processed locally and that is important for them. However, in contrast, Curtis and Cowee (2009) found locally produced products were of low importance among chefs in Nevada. Nevertheless, the strong support for locally grown food products by both groups of respondents indicates that food products grown locally held the greatest opportunity for increasing local food purchases. Additionally, the attribute of "Food products/ingredients grown/produced locally" was significantly different among the four cuisine styles of restaurants in Vancouver [$F(3, 27) = 4.20, p = 0.01$] (Table B6 in Appendix B). It can be seen that the Asian cuisine style of restaurants (5.38) was significantly different from "Other" cuisine styles of restaurants (6.67) and European cuisine style of restaurants (6.71). It appears that the European cuisine style of restaurants most commonly preferred the farmers' market vendors for their local purchases.

The attribute "Able to get higher quality of food products/ingredients", was found to be second leading reason why respondents decided to purchase at farmers' markets in Vancouver. This attribute was ranked as the third most important reason in Christchurch. The finding is largely consistent with several other studies (Strohbehn & Gregoire 2002; FPC 2003; Starr et al. 2003;

Table 5.8 Attitude towards purchasing local food products/ingredients from farmers' market vendors

Category/Attribute	Frequency	Vancouver (N = 32)			Christchurch (N = 14)			t-test	Sig.	
		Mean	Std. Dev.	Rank	Frequency	Mean	Std. Dev.			Rank
Farmers' market(s) food products/ingredients helps me to meet customer demands	32	5.09	1.53	17	14	5.43	0.93	11	-0.90	0.370
Food products/ingredients are able to serve a variety of menu applications to customers	32	5.50	1.19	12	14	5.71	1.06	9	-0.60	0.551
Food products/ingredients allow me to charge a premium price	30	3.90	1.73	19	14	4.57	1.91	14	-1.11	0.275
Able to get higher quality of food products/ingredients	31	6.26	1.06	2	14	6.36	1.00	3	-0.30	0.767
Able to get fresher food products/ingredients	32	6.31	1.03	1	14	6.43	0.85	2	-0.39	0.693
Food products/ingredients grown/produced locally	31	6.26	0.96	2	14	6.57	0.75	1	-1.17	0.248
Able to get uniqueness/specialty (including heirloom varieties) of food products/ingredients	30	5.57	1.43	11	14	5.21	1.67	13	0.68	0.503
Food products/ingredients have better taste	32	5.94	1.24	5	14	6.36	0.84	3	-1.33	0.190
Food products/ingredients are safer	32	5.09	1.35	17	14	5.79	1.31	8	-1.63	0.115
Food products/ingredients are nutritious and healthy	32	5.69	1.23	9	14	5.93	1.26	7	-0.59	0.555
Ability to obtain small volume of products	31	5.84	1.66	7	14	6.36	1.15	3	-1.21	0.234
More availability of organic products	31	5.45	1.50	13	14	5.43	1.55	11	0.04	0.963
Know how products/ingredients were raised or grown	31	5.87	1.26	6	14	5.43	1.78	11	0.83	0.412
Attending farmers' market(s) helps to build working relationship with vendors	30	5.87	1.41	6	14	6.14	1.16	5	-0.68	0.500
Attending farmers' market(s) allows me to meet vendors and become acquainted with regional foods	30	6.00	1.20	4	14	6.00	1.03	6	0.00	1.000

Note: Mean based on scale of 1= "Strongly Disagree", 4= "Neither Agree nor Disagree", 7= "Strongly Agree". **T-test (2-tailed)* significant at the 0.05 level.

Table 5.8 continued

Category/Attribute	Vancouver (N = 32)				Christchurch (N = 14)				t-test	Sig.
	Frequency	Mean	Std. Dev.	Rank	Frequency	Mean	Std. Dev.	Rank		
Value for money	30	5.27	1.34	14	14	5.79	1.62	8	-1.04	0.309
Required lower transportation costs	30	4.73	1.57	18	14	5.36	1.82	12	-1.10	0.282
Food products/ingredients promote regional food security	32	5.81	1.20	8	14	5.71	1.13	9	0.26	0.793
Utilizing local food products from farmers' market(s) is an effective way to promote local foods and support local vendors	31	6.23	1.02	3	14	6.00	1.30	6	0.57	0.57
Purchasing from farmers' market(s) allows to support local economy	31	6.23	1.31	3	14	6.29	0.99	4	-0.16	0.867
Food products/ingredients from farmers' market(s) allows the establishment as a promoter to provide culinary tourism experience for domestic visitors	30	5.20	1.71	16	14	5.57	1.28	10	-0.80	0.429
Food products/ingredients from farmers' market(s) allows the establishment as a promoter to provide culinary tourism experience for international visitors	30	5.23	1.43	15	14	5.21	1.36	13	0.04	0.967
Food products/ingredients are free from or use less pesticide and/or hormones	30	5.20	1.32	16	14	6.00	1.17	6	-2.01	0.053
Purchasing from farmers' market(s) helps to the environment due to the shorter distance travelled from farm to the market (food miles)	30	5.67	1.32	10	14	5.79	1.80	8	-0.22	0.828

Note: Mean based on scale of 1= "Strongly Disagree", 4= "Neither Agree nor Disagree", 7= "Strongly Agree". **T-test (2-tailed)* significant at the 0.05 level.

Curtis & Cowee 2009; Casselman 2010; Schmit et al. 2010). Quality has also been emphasised by consumers as the most important benefit received from shopping at a farmers' market (Wolf et al. 2005; Guthrie et al. 2006).

The attribute "Purchasing from farmers' market(s) allows supporting local economy" was one of the leading reasons to purchase at farmers' markets in Vancouver (see Chapter Six). However, there were differences with regard to Christchurch, where this aspect was ranked fourth. The importance of this attribute resonates strongly with findings in other studies (e.g. Green & Dougherty 2008; Painter 2008; Dougherty & Green 2013). Supporting the local economy also motivates consumers' local food-expenditure (see Guthrie et al. 2006; Seyfang 2008; Zepeda & Deal 2009).

"Utilizing local food products from farmers' market(s) is an effective way to promote local foods and support local vendors" were the next most important reasons why respondents choose to purchase at farmers' markets in Vancouver (see Chapter Six), while Christchurch respondents rated this attribute as a less important reason (6.00) than Vancouver respondents (6.23). Several other studies have also shown that foodservice establishments purchase local foods to help support local producers (e.g. FPC 2003; Zdorovtsov et al. 2007; Green & Dougherty 2008). The finding also coincides with producer rated benefits of direct marketing to foodservice operations (Gregoire et al. 2005), in which support of local farmers/vendors was the highest rated benefit by all respondents. However, it indicates that attitudes towards supporting local vendors seemed to be more important for Vancouver respondents than Christchurch respondents in this study.

The attribute "Attending farmers' market(s) helps to build working relationship with vendors" was considered to be one of the most important reasons by Christchurch respondents than by Vancouver respondents (see also Chapter Six). This demonstrates that respondents purchased local foods from farmers' markets because they enjoyed the personal contact (social interaction) with vendors (see also FPC 2003; Starr et al. 2003; Krieger 2006; Murphy & Smith 2009; Casselman 2010; Duram & Cawley 2012). The findings also mirror those identified in the general consumer literature that explored farmer-to-consumer direct marketing (see Feagan et al. 2004; Kirwan 2004; Dodds et al. 2014), as well as in the business-to-business literature (Zabkar & Brencic 2004; Gounaris 2005).

Christchurch respondents rated "Ability to obtain small volume of products" as their third most important reason for shopping at farmers' markets while this was not regarded as important

(ranked seventh) for shopping at farmers' markets among Vancouver respondents. A number of other studies (Strohbehn & Gregoire 2002; Starr et al. 2003; Thilmany 2004; Curtis et al. 2008; Casselman 2010) suggest that the ability to purchase small volumes of products is one of the perceived benefits for local purchases. It appeared local purchasing at the farmers' markets may also give advantages to the respondents for purchasing smaller volume (quantities) or receiving irregular varieties of products, and are associated with the size of the establishments (measured in meal units served per day, week or month). Whereas ordering small volumes of local products from local/regional distributors on a consistent basis may not be possible and forces the restaurants/chefs to purchase items in larger quantities than needed, resulting in waste and a higher per-item costs. In general, a larger establishment may have quantity as its primary supply goals, while a small establishment may place more emphasis on small volumes or irregular variety of products or services. The results in the present study indicate that the Christchurch respondents represented establishments smaller in size than Vancouver respondents.

In this study, the attribute, "Food products/ingredients have better taste" was found to be different, although not significantly, between Vancouver respondents and Christchurch respondents ($t = -1.33$, $p = 0.190$). Christchurch respondents (6.36) identified this attribute as more important than Vancouver respondents (5.94). Other studies (e.g. FPC 2003; Curtis & Cowee 2009) have identified this as a top reason for buying local food. Inwood et al. (2009, p.184) found that "chefs and restaurants, regardless of their usage of local, stated that local produce tasted better than non-local foods and superior taste quality became an economic benefit". In addition, there were no other statistically significant differences found among the four cuisine styles of restaurants in Christchurch (Table B6 in Appendix B). However, there was a significant difference in "Food products/ingredients are safer" [$F(3, 28) = 3.30$, $p = 0.03$] among the four cuisine styles of restaurants in the Vancouver sample. It was revealed that the Canadian cuisine style of restaurant (mean = 4.40) was significantly different from European cuisine style restaurants (mean = 6.00, $p = .047$). Further, results suggest that "Food products/ingredients are free from or use less pesticide and/or hormones" was the attribute closest to being significantly different among four cuisine styles of restaurants [$F(3, 26) = 2.75$, $p = 0.06$]. It was found that Canadian cuisine style restaurants (mean = 4.33) were significantly different from European cuisine style restaurants (mean = 6.00, $p = .043$). It indicates that European cuisine style restaurants most commonly chose the farmers' market vendors for their local food procurement. This is also an important finding, as it indicates that European cuisine style restaurants in Vancouver think local foods are reasonably safe in being sourced from farmers' markets.

Seasonal frequency of local food products purchases from farmers' markets

Seasonal availability of products has been recognised as a major influence on local purchasing by restaurants (FPC 2003). The survey was presented with a calendar month of four seasons for both groups of respondents: winter, spring, summer, and autumn/fall. The results show that nearly all establishments (29 of the 30 establishments) from Vancouver purchased the highest amount of locally grown fresh produce from farmers' markets during the summer months (July to September) when seasonal production was in peak stages (Table B7 in Appendix B). During the months of October through December and April through June, the percentage was lower than summer months. In January through March, establishment's purchases were very limited. The responses from the Christchurch sample show similar trends. Again in comparison, the purchasing habits of those using proteins, dairy, and value added products differed from the purchasing habits for locally grown produce in both samples. However, significant differences were found in the purchasing habits for dairy and value added products throughout the year. For instance, during summer months, 33.19% of value added products were purchased in Vancouver, compared with only 17.66% in Christchurch. This indicates there is scope for further development and creation of value added products in Christchurch. Respondents' data also shows that seasonal changes had very little effect on purchase percentages of local proteins, dairy, and value added products throughout the year.

A cross-tabulation was performed to see if any particular cuisine style restaurant has used more percentage of local food from a farmers' market than others in a given particular season (Table B8 in Appendix B). There was a difference in that for both groups of respondents, during the spring and summer months the highest amount of fresh produce were purchased by "Other" cuisine style restaurants than Canadian, Asian, and European cuisine style restaurants in the Vancouver sample. In Christchurch, European cuisine style restaurants purchased fresher produce throughout the year, more so than New Zealand and Asian cuisine style restaurants.

Frequency of farmers' market vendors used by product category

Table 5.9 illustrates the number of vendors currently used for different product categories by both groups of respondents. Due to the size of the establishment, respondents purchased from a number of farmers' market vendors which was quite variable, with a range from one to one hundred vendors in the Vancouver sample, while one to fourteen vendors were used in Christchurch sample. It appeared that Vancouver respondents have higher managing capabilities for all products and supplies than Christchurch respondents. However, among all the product

categories, Vancouver respondents purchased value added products from a greater number of vendors (maximum 100). This indicates respondents may use a greater number of vendors due to the relationships they have with their vendors. In contrast, Christchurch respondents used fewer vendors (maximum seven) to purchase value added products. It could be that Christchurch respondents do not employ as many vendors as Vancouver respondents for value added products, thus they are not able to manage a greater number of vendors at the farmers' market. Strohbehn and Gregoire (2002) reported that their respondents (n = 18) rated working with multiple vendors as the second highest obstacle to purchasing locally.

Table 5.9 Mean average of number of farmers' markets vendors used by product category

Vancouver respondents					
Product category	Frequency^a	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Dev
Fresh produce	28	1	20	4.96	5.01
Proteins	18	1	10	3.00	1.97
Dairy	14	1	3	2.21	0.80
Value added products	17	1	100	8.82	23.54
Christchurch respondents					
Product category	Frequency^a	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Dev
Fresh produce	14	1	14	3.71	3.40
Proteins	8	1	6	2.13	1.88
Dairy	8	1	5	1.88	1.45
Value added products	3	1	7	3.33	3.21

^a Multiple answers accepted.

Percentage of vendors used by products' production category

Findings indicated that farmers' market product purchases represented a wide range of products by farm production practices (Table 5.10). The majority of respondents have used certified organic products and they were also concerned with the specific production practices used for growing local food. The present research findings can be compared with Inwood et al. (2009) who found that restaurant's perceived that local was important for their customers, but the organic attribute was rated modest to low interest in their customers, while restaurants in their study had little concern for specific production practices used for growing local foods.

Table 5.10 Vendors composition by production method used in local food product purchases

Vancouver respondents

Vendor category	Percent of vendor production methods used by respondents								Average	Minimum	Maximum
	Less than 10%	11-25%	26-50%	51-75%	76-99%	All	None	Do not know			
Conventional	4	2	2	9	6	2	0	0	5.00	2.00	9.00
Certified Organic	8	6	7	2	5	2	1	1	5.60	2.00	8.00
Non-certified Organic	3	8	3	3	4	1	1	1	4.20	3.00	8.00
Mixed Practices	4	3	6	3	0	2	1	2	3.20	3.00	6.00
Free Range	4	6	6	1	0	1	1	1	3.40	0.00	6.00
Other	1	1	3	1	0	1	1	3	1.20	0.00	3.00

Christchurch respondents

Vendor category	Percent of vendor production methods used by respondents								Average	Minimum	Maximum
	Less than 10%	11-25%	26-50%	51-75%	76-99%	All	None	Do not know			
Conventional	3	0	1	2	1	0	0	1	1.40	0.00	3.00
Certified Organic	0	5	0	1	2	0	0	1	1.60	0.00	5.00
Non-certified Organic	2	1	1	0	2	0	0	1	1.20	0.00	2.00
Mixed Practices	4	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	1.00	0.00	4.00
Free Range	2	2	2	0	1	0	0	1	1.40	0.00	2.00
Other	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	1.00	0.00	1.00

Note: Multiple responses accepted. Some responses include “unknown” or “other responses; as such the number do not add to 100.

Respondents also expected the number of farmers' market vendors with different production practices would increase over time (Table 5.11). The majority of respondents from both samples expressed their willingness to stay the same and indicated no change in purchasing patterns in the short-term. It may be interpreted that establishments are presently satisfied with their vendors and do not prefer to deal with a larger number of vendors because of lack of time and inconvenience of dealing with multiple vendors (Strohbehn and Gregoire 2002; FPC 2003).

Table 5.11 Establishment expectations of future local purchase from farmers' market vendors

Vancouver respondents (N = 32)

Vendors	Changes in vendors numbers		
	Increasing	Decreasing	Staying same
Conventional	4	5	13
Certified Organic	7	4	16
Non-certified Organic	9	0	16
Mixed Practices	9	1	10
Free Range	10	1	8
Other	0	0	0
Total^a	39	11	63

Christchurch respondents (N = 14)

Vendors	Changes in vendors numbers		
	Increasing	Decreasing	Staying same
Conventional	1	1	5
Certified Organic	4	1	3
Non-certified Organic	1	3	3
Mixed Practices	1	1	4
Free Range	4	1	2
Other	0	0	0
Total^a	11	7	17

Multiple answers accepted.

Delivery system used by the respondent establishments

Given that supply chain issues had been a concern expressed in the literature (Strohbehn & Gregoire 2002); respondents were asked how farmers' market products were delivered to their establishments (Table 5.12). Results showed that delivery by vendors and picked up from farmers' market by restaurant/chef were the common methods utilised among the respondent establishments, with most utilising a number of delivery arrangements.

Table 5.12 Percentage of locally purchased food delivered versus picked up

Delivery methods used	Vancouver (N = 32)		Christchurch (N = 14)	
	Frequency	Percent ^a	Frequency	Percent ^a
Delivered by vendors	11	34.37	6	42.85
Pick up from market by restaurant/chef	12	37.50	12	85.71
Both delivery methods used	9	28.12	0	0
Other delivery method (please describe)	4	12.50	0	0.00

^a Percent is greater than 100, as respondents selected all that applied; thus, multiple responses.

Payment methods

Payment “at the door” could be difficult for many chefs and restaurant managers who are not owners of their foodservice establishments and knowing the concern of payment procedure stated in the literature (Strohbehn & Gregoire 2002), participants were asked to rank four different payment options to identify which method had been used for purchasing local food products. The four options include paying with cash-on-delivery, paying by cheque, paying with credit/debit card, and periodic payment schedule (Table 5.13). Paying with cash-on-delivery was found to be the most commonly used method in both Vancouver and Christchurch samples.

Table 5.13 Frequency of payment method used for farmers’ market vendors by establishment

Method of payment	Vancouver (N = 32)		Christchurch (N = 13)	
	Frequency	Percent ^a	Frequency	Percent ^a
Cash-on-delivery	19	59.37	10	76.92
Cheque	14	43.75	2	15.38
Credit/Debit Card	7	21.87	0	0.00
Periodic payment schedule (e.g. weekly, bi-weekly, or monthly)	15	46.87	3	23.07
No preference	2	6.25	0	0.00
Other	1	3.10	0	0.00

^a Percent is greater than 100, as respondents selected all that applied; thus, multiple responses.

Respondents were also asked to rank these four different payment methods in terms of preferences for purchasing locally grown food products. Interestingly, the results show that a higher percentage of respondents stated periodic payment to be the most preferred payment method in Christchurch than Vancouver (30.76% versus 28.12%) (Table 5.14). There was a similarity in that for Vancouver and Christchurch samples, both groups indicated that paying with cash-on-delivery was a second most preferred option (25% and 30.76% of the respective samples). In contrast, Reynolds-Allie & Fields (2012) found that payment with cheque was the most preferred payment option by restaurants. However, the preference of payment methods in this study was similar to that of Strohbehn & Gregoire (2002).

Table 5.14 Frequency of payment method preferred by establishment

Method of payment	Vancouver (N = 32)		Christchurch (N = 13)	
	Frequency	Percent ^a	Frequency	Percent ^a
Cash-on-delivery	8	25.00	4	30.76
Cheque	4	12.50	1	7.69
Credit/Debit Card	7	21.87	3	23.07
Periodic payment schedule (e.g. weekly, bi-weekly, or monthly)	9	28.12	4	30.76
No preference	0	0.00	0	0.00
Other	0	0.00	0	0.00

^a Percent is greater than 100, as respondents selected all that applied; thus, multiple responses

Potential issues related to local food adoption from farmers' market

In the survey many establishments are interested in purchasing local food ingredients from farmers' markets when possible and they are also aware of their patrons' demand of local food products/ingredients (see also Chapter Six). However, there are important barriers that exist and are faced by these establishments to make greater use of local food when trying to purchase from farmers' market. Based on previous research (e.g. Strohbehn & Gregoire 2002; Curtis et al. 2008; Peterson et al. 2010; Dougherty et al. 2013), a series of potential barrier categories were included in the survey, which were intended to measure the respondents' (who purchase from farmers' markets) perceived issues or problems for the adoption of locally grown food products (Table 5.15). Results revealed that "Insufficient volumes or year round adequate volume of supply" (4.88) and "Limited market days and hours of operation" (4.47), and "Price of the products/ingredients are too high" (4.35) were the most influential perceived barrier factors identified by the respondents who did shop at farmers' markets in Vancouver. Although "insufficient volumes or year round adequate volume of supply" was rated the most highly important inhibitor for Vancouver respondents, this aspect was ranked fourth with Christchurch respondents. Similar to the findings of Starr et al. (2003) and Inwood et al. (2009), respondents in Vancouver and Christchurch were motivated to purchase local food products from farmers' markets, but regardless of their purchase volume, there were issues of volume of supply. The factor "Limited market days and hours of operation" was the second most important perceived barrier (18.75% of the 32 respondents) with Vancouver respondents while this was emerged as the top barrier factor for Christchurch respondents. This concern mirrors those identified in another study (Inwood et al. 2009) as well as by consumers (e.g. Conner et al. 2010; Hodges & Stevens 2013).

Table 5.15 Potential problems for adoption of local food products from farmers' market

Potential problem category (Factor)	Vancouver (N = 32)				Christchurch (N = 14)			
	Frequency	Mean	Std. Dev.	Rank	Frequency	Mean	Std. Dev.	Rank
Insufficient volumes or year round adequate volume of supply	32	4.88	1.83	1	14	4.57	1.83	4
Inconsistent supply of products/ingredients	30	4.27	1.74	4	14	4.00	1.84	7
Limited variety of selection	32	4.16	1.74	5	14	4.43	1.79	5
Limited market days and hours of operation	32	4.47	2.00	2	14	5.43	2.10	1
Price of the products/ingredients are too high	31	4.35	1.82	3	14	4.64	1.55	3
Lack of information of products/ingredients availability	30	3.60	1.48	11	14	3.79	1.89	9
Local health and food safety concerns	29	3.14	1.85	13	14	4.21	2.19	6
Logistics (transportation) difficulty	31	4.06	2.25	6	14	3.29	2.20	10
Clean and sturdy packaging	30	3.70	2.17	9	14	5.07	1.77	2
Consistent package size	30	3.37	2.08	12	14	4.64	1.86	3
Unavailability of parking space at the market	30	3.97	2.27	7	14	2.64	1.82	11
Labour time required to prepare the purchased products	30	3.77	2.08	8	14	3.79	1.72	9
Payment procedures/acceptance of only cash at the farmers' market(s)	29	3.69	2.07	10	14	3.93	1.90	8

Note: Mean based on scale of 1= "Strongly Disagree", 4= "Neither Agree nor Disagree", 7= "Strongly Agree".

Previous research indicated price is an identified barrier to purchasing products from local sources (e.g. Starr et al. 2003); this attribute was also negatively expressed in this study. There was a similarity in that for both groups of respondents, they have rated this barrier as the third most important inhibitor of more frequent visits or greater purchases from farmers' markets. This concern is also consistent with other studies (Peterson et al. 2010; Green & Dougherty 2008; Inwood et al. 2009). However, Sharma et al. (2014) found price of local food was of less concern among American foodservice establishments.

Respondents from Christchurch placed more importance on barrier factors "Clean and sturdy packaging" (5.07) and "Consistent package size" (4.64) than those from Vancouver. It appeared that Christchurch respondents are more negatively influenced by these factors. The result from Christchurch respondents is consistent with some previous studies (Green & Dougherty 2008; Strohbehn & Gregoire 2003).

Statistical comparisons among different cuisine style restaurants found no significant differences in Vancouver respondents (Table B9 in Appendix B). "Local health and food safety concerns" was the only barrier factor that was found closest to being statistically significantly different among the four cuisine style restaurants [$F(3, 25) = 2.78, p = 0.06$], although no contrasts were found to be significant among the four cuisine style restaurants. In contrast, there was a significant difference in the "Inconsistent supply of products/ingredients" [$F(2, 11) = 4.30, p = 0.04$] among the four cuisine style restaurants in Christchurch. Analysis indicated that New Zealand cuisine style restaurants (2.67) were significantly different from Asian cuisine style restaurants (mean = 5.17, $p = .036$). Asian cuisine styles restaurants think inconsistent product supply of local foods are a greater barrier when sourcing from farmers' markets.

5.6 Establishment's Purchasing from Farmers/Producers

One key question asked of respondents was whether they currently purchase any local food products/ingredients from farmers or not. Results showed that in Vancouver, 37.50% of establishments do not directly purchase or do not directly purchase more from local farmers/producers for their local food procurement. The remaining 62.50% of the establishments are directly purchasing their local food ingredients/products from farmers. While in Christchurch, 23.40% of establishments reported currently purchasing from farmers directly and 76.59% reported that they do not use farmers for their local food procurement. In contrast with Christchurch, the Vancouver result aligned with the study conducted by FPC (2003) that found

that chefs in restaurants preferred to purchase directly from farmers, rather than farmers' markets. Findings from those establishments that did not purchase local food products/ingredients from farmers are presented first, followed by those that did purchase.

5.6.1 Establishments that did not purchase local food products from farmers/producers

Barriers to purchasing local food products/ingredients from farmers directly

Respondents who stated they did not buy local food directly from farmers/producers were then asked for their reasons. Results shown in Table 5.16 revealed that "Satisfied with current distributors" (5.86) was rated the top barrier in terms of agreement by respondents in the Vancouver sample. The barrier factor "Satisfied with current distributors" (6.42) was also cited as the top barrier for Christchurch respondents (see Chapter Seven also). The results were very similar to the non-farmers' market purchasers in this study where respondents rated this factor as their third most important barrier for not purchasing local food ingredients/products from farmers' market vendors (Table 5.8).

The overall results tend to reflect those of other surveys (e.g. Duram & Cawley 2012; Schmit & Hadcock 2012). For example, Inwood et al. (2009) found that many restaurants in Ohio preferred to have distributors due to the established valued personal relationships with them and these longstanding relationships gave them advantages to have the quality products delivered to them. In addition, a statistically significant difference was also found from Vancouver respondents with the ANOVA test among the four cuisine styles of restaurants on "Satisfied with current distributors" [$F(3, 18) = 3.30, p = 0.04$] (Table B10 in Appendix B). This factor was close to being significantly different among the four cuisine style restaurants in Christchurch [$F(3, 68) = 2.60, p = 0.05$]. It identifies that Asian cuisine style restaurants in Vancouver and "Other" cuisine style restaurants in Christchurch have a factor limiting their purchasing decisions from farmers directly. These restaurants may wish to purchase from local farmers but local farmers cannot satisfy their requirements, while local distributors would have extensive product categories and effective delivery systems. Consistent with the findings "Price of the products/ingredients are too high" was also found another barrier factor to be significantly different among the four cuisine style of restaurants [$F(3, 68) = 3.02, p = 0.03$] in Christchurch, although based on post hoc Tukey HSD Multiple Comparisons tests no contrasts were found to be significant on this factor.

Table 5.16 Potential barriers for adoption of local food products from farmers

Barrier category (Factor)	Vancouver (N = 23)				Christchurch (N = 72)				t-test	Sig.
	Frequency	Mean	Std. Dev.	Rank	Frequency	Mean	Std. Dev.	Rank		
Satisfied with current distributors	22	5.86	1.17	1	72	6.42	1.04	1	-1.99	0.055
Do not have time to contact several farmers, inconvenient	23	5.65	1.50	2	72	6.03	1.01	3	-1.12	0.270
The volume cannot be satisfied with local farmers/producers	22	4.77	2.11	12	72	5.31	1.10	9	-1.13	0.267
Unsure of quality of products delivered	22	5.23	1.90	7	72	5.26	1.06	10	-0.08	0.932
Unsure of consistency of products delivered	22	5.36	1.89	4	72	5.51	0.96	4	-0.35	0.723
Unable to produce needed products	23	5.35	1.23	5	72	5.47	1.10	6	-0.43	0.668
Lack of information of products/ingredients availability	22	5.09	1.57	10	72	5.44	1.15	7	-0.97	0.336
Do not offer delivery	22	4.91	2.07	11	72	5.36	1.45	8	-0.95	0.347
Products are not delivered on the date or time agreed	21	5.14	1.42	9	72	5.49	1.21	5	-1.00	0.324
Local health and food safety issues	22	5.32	1.99	6	72	4.88	1.69	12	0.94	0.351
Unable to provide formal receipts	22	5.18	1.74	8	72	5.18	1.58	11	0.00	0.998
Prices of the products/ingredients are too high	22	5.32	1.39	6	72	4.85	1.41	13	1.38	0.175
Farms are too far away	21	5.57	1.89	3	72	6.15	1.45	2	-1.30	0.203

Note: Mean based on scale of 1= “Strongly Disagree”, 4= “Neither Agree nor Disagree”, 7= “Strongly Agree”. **T-test (2-tailed)* significant at the 0.05 level.

The barrier factor “Do not have time to contact several farmers, inconvenient” was also cited as one of the top three reasons for not buying directly from farmers for both samples. However, there were differences between both samples on this factor, although not significantly ($t = -1.12$, $p = 0.270$). The barrier was perceived as a more important barrier for Christchurch (6.03) than Vancouver respondents (5.65). It is possible that Christchurch operations were unable to manage many farmers due to the possibility of a smaller work force. This finding reflects results in other studies (e.g. Strohbahn & Gregoire 2002; Inwood et al. 2009; Schmit et al. 2010; Kang & Rajagopal 2014). The other two notable factors that were rated as the top barriers from both groups of respondents were “Farms are too far away” and “Unsure of consistency of products delivered”.

The barrier factor “Unsure of consistency of products delivered” was ranked fourth by both groups of respondents. While Vancouver respondents were found to be different from Christchurch respondents, this was not significant ($t = -.35$, $p = 0.723$). Vancouver respondents (5.36) rated the factor with less importance in terms of agreement than Christchurch respondents (5.51). ANOVA results on “Unsure of consistency of products delivered” found significant differences among the four cuisine style restaurants in Christchurch [$F(3, 68) = 3.86$, $p = 0.01$]. Based on post hoc Tukey HSD Multiple Comparisons test, this factor indicated that New Zealand cuisine style restaurants (mean = 5.04) were significantly different from Asian cuisine style restaurants (mean = 5.75, $p = .025$) (Table B10 in Appendix B). This is in accordance with several other studies that have shown that inconsistency of delivery does not influence acceptance of local food purchase from farmers (Strohbahn & Gregoire 2002; Schmit & Hadcock 2012; Dougherty et al. 2013). There were also no significant differences found between the two groups for “Farms are too far away”, although respondents from both groups of respondents rated this factor as one of the top perceived barriers for not purchasing from farmers directly. However, some studies have indicated a reverse pattern. Schmit and Hadcock (2012) found that “Farms are too far away” was less problematic for procurement of local foods from farmers directly. The result of this study indicates that the difference of this barrier is dependent on the location in which the criteria are applied.

The other factors that were significantly different for Christchurch respondents, but not Vancouver respondents, was “The volume cannot be satisfied with local farmers/producers”, “Unsure of quality of products delivered”, and “Do not offer delivery”. Although these concerns were not rated as the highest barrier factors among the respondents in both samples. The factor “The volume cannot be satisfied with local farmers/producers” was found to be different from

Christchurch respondents, although not significantly ($t = -1.13, p = 0.267$). For the factor “Unsure of quality of products delivered”, there was a difference, although not significantly, between both groups of respondents ($t = -0.08, p = 0.932$). The Vancouver respondents rated this factor with less importance than those in Christchurch. An ANOVA test on “Unsure of quality of products delivered” was found to be very close to being significantly different among the four cuisine style restaurants in Christchurch [$F(3, 68) = 2.72, p = 0.05$], and no contrasts were found to be significant (Table B10 in Appendix B). Additionally, “Do not offer delivery” was found to be different, however not significantly, between Vancouver and Christchurch respondents ($t = -0.95, p = 0.347$). Overall, it appears that Christchurch respondents’ concerns with product volume, quality, and delivery of the foods may be serious factors limiting their adoption of local foods from farmers, while acknowledgement of satisfaction with current distributors was an important criterion with both samples in this study. Previous research has also shown that these concerns influence acceptance of local foods from farmers directly (Curtis & Cowee 2009; Schmit & Hadcock 2012; Dougherty et al. 2013).

5.6.2 Establishments that did purchase local food products from farmers/producers

Respondents indicated that direct purchase of food from local farmers is not necessarily a new trend. For example, in Vancouver, of the 39 respondents, over five reported that they had been purchasing local food from local farmers consistently for 16 or more years (Table 5.17). In Christchurch, such purchases appear more recent. The results are very similar to those who purchase from farmers’ markets (see section 5.5.2).

Table 5.17 Duration of local food purchase by participating establishments from farmers

Vancouver respondents (N = 39)		Christchurch respondents (N = 22)	
Purchasing period (months/year)	Number of establishments	Purchasing period (months/year)	Number of establishments
1 year	6	1 year	1
2 – 5 years	17	2 – 5 years	16
6 - 10 years	8	6 - 10 years	3
11 – 15 years	3	11 – 15 years	1
16 - 20 years	5	16 – 20 years	1

Purchasing frequency of local food procurements from farmers/producers

Purchasing frequencies varied among fresh produce, proteins, dairy, and the value added products with the respondents establishments (Table 5.18). Both the Vancouver and Christchurch samples had more frequent (multiple times a week) purchasing of fresh produce. A majority of

respondents from the Vancouver sample bought dairy products and proteins directly either once a week or multiple times a week; more than the Christchurch respondents.

Table 5.18 Purchasing frequency of local food products/ingredients from farmers by the establishments

Vancouver respondents (N = 40)				
	Fresh produce	Proteins	Dairy	Value added products ^a
Purchasing frequency	Frequency	Frequency	Frequency	Frequency
Once a week	13	12	12	8
Multiple times a week	22	20	12	10
Once a month	1	2	1	3
Every 2-4 months	1	1	0	0
Every 5-7 months	0	0	1	1
Every 8-11 months	0	0	0	0
Once a year	1	1	4	3

Christchurch respondents (N = 19)				
	Fresh produce	Proteins	Dairy	Value added products ^a
Purchasing frequency	Frequency	Frequency	Frequency	Frequency
Once a week	4	4	4	0
Multiple times a week	15	6	3	1
Once a month	0	1	0	2
Every 2-4 months	0	1	0	1
Every 5-7 months	0	0	0	0
Every 8-11 months	0	0	0	0
Once a year	0	0	0	0

^a Product made with at least some ingredients directly from local producers. Multiple answers accepted.

Seasonal frequency of local food products purchases from farmers/producers by establishments

Participants were asked to identify the average percentage of local food products purchased from farmers seasonally. The highest percentage shows that nearly all the responding establishments (37 of the 40 establishments) from Vancouver purchase the highest amount of locally grown fresh produce from farmers during the summer months (July to September) when seasonal production was in peak stages (Table B11 in Appendix B). Similar trends also appeared among the respondents from Christchurch. The results are consistent with the previous recorded frequencies of purchasing from farmers' market vendors by the responding establishments (see section 5.5.2) as well as previous studies (FPC 2003; Casselman 2010). In terms of dairy, there was a similarity in that for both groups of respondents, no significant differences in purchasing

habits were found between the samples throughout the year. One significant difference was that a larger percentage of Vancouver respondents bought value added products than Christchurch respondents. This finding indicated that the development and creation of value added products does indeed exist for farmers in Christchurch. However, the purchasing habits of Christchurch respondents that used proteins differed from the purchasing habits of Vancouver respondents especially in Autumn. Respondents from both samples also indicated that seasonal changes had little, if any, effect on purchase percentages of local proteins, dairy, and value added products throughout the year.

A further analysis was performed to evaluate whether any particular cuisine type of restaurants tended to purchase more percentages of local food from the farmers in a particular season (Table B12 in Appendix B). There were no significant differences found among different cuisine style restaurants for fresh produce purchases from local farmers. However, proteins, dairy, and value added products were purchased consistently throughout the four seasons by all cuisine style restaurants. On the other hand, throughout the year, Asian cuisine style restaurants purchased more percentages of proteins, dairy, and value added products than Canadian, European, and “Other” cuisine style restaurants.

In the Christchurch sample, throughout the year “Other” cuisine style restaurants have purchased a greater percentage of fresh produce from farmers than New Zealand, Asian, and European cuisine style restaurants, while throughout the year greater percentages of protein items were purchased by New Zealand cuisine style restaurants than Asian and “Other” cuisine style restaurants. Although the small sample size makes this result a little unreliable it reflects well on the availability of local New Zealand beef and lamb. The result tends to support Smith and Hall’s (2003) study, where a majority (53.9%) of New Zealand cuisine style restaurants (included contemporary NZ cuisine) used over 70% of local products in their dishes. Furthermore, Asian cuisine style restaurants have used greater percentages of dairy and value added products throughout the year than New Zealand and “Other” cuisine style restaurants. A similar trend appears among the Asian cuisine style restaurants in Vancouver.

Frequency of farmers/producers used by product category

Respondents provided information on the number of farmers currently used and the maximum number of farmers manageable by the establishments from both samples. Table 5.19 provides the means of farmers’ uses for the entire product category from both samples. There was a similarity in that for both groups, a higher mean number of farmers were used to purchase value added

products than fresh produce, proteins and dairy items. However, there were significant differences found with a higher mean number of farmers (5.19) purchasing fresh produce in Vancouver than Christchurch (2.00). This indicates that Vancouver respondents deemed their managing capabilities higher for fresh produce farmers than Christchurch respondents. The lowest mean numbers reported from both samples were dairy farmers. This could be because dairy producers carry most, if not all, dairy items that can be purchased; while produce farmers may harvest one or two fresh produce items, thus requiring more produce farmers to purchase all required fresh produce items (Casselman 2010).

Table 5.19 Mean average of number of farmers/producers used by product category

Vancouver respondents

Product category	Frequency^a	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Dev
Fresh produce	32	1	25	5.19	6.03
Proteins	28	1	10	3.32	2.29
Dairy	21	1	3	1.71	0.71
Value added products	18	1	100	8.56	22.89

Christchurch respondents

Product category	Frequency^a	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Dev
Fresh produce	18	1	8	2.00	1.83
Proteins	13	1	6	2.15	1.72
Dairy	7	1	3	1.43	0.78
Value added products	4	1	7	2.50	3.00

^a Multiple answers accepted.

Percentage of farmers used by products production category

Respondents from both groups were asked to classify the number of vendors used by production method. Findings indicated that product purchases from farmers represented a wide range of products by farm production practices. It was found that local farm product purchases represented a wide variety of products by farm production practices (Table 5.20). For example, some establishments purchased exclusively certified organically made products, while others purchased mixed practices products. Still others bought conventional, free range, and non-certified organically made products. The data indicates that opportunities for foodservice establishments' sales appear to exist for a variety of products made under alternative production practices.

Table 5.20 Farmers composition by production method used in local food product purchases

Vancouver respondents

Farmer category	Percent of farmer production methods used by respondents								Average ^a	Minimum	Maximum
	Less than 10%	11-25%	26-50%	51-75%	76-99%	All	None	Do not know			
Conventional	4	5	4	6	2	0	0	3	4.20	2.00	6.00
Certified Organic	5	8	4	7	2	2	1	2	5.20	2.00	8.00
Non-certified Organic	5	4	4	4	0	1	1	2	3.80	0.00	6.00
Mixed Practices	4	7	5	3	2	3	0	2	4.60	2.00	9.00
Free Range	5	2	6	1	4	0	0	2	3.80	1.00	6.00
Other	1	1	0	0	1	0	1	4	0.40	0.00	1.00

Christchurch respondents

Farmer category	Percent of farmer production methods used by respondents								Average ^a	Minimum	Maximum
	Less than 10%	11-25%	26-50%	51-75%	76-99%	All	None	Do not know			
Conventional	1	1	0	2	1	2	0	0	1.00	0.00	2.00
Certified Organic	1	1	2	0	3	1	1	0	1.40	0.00	3.00
Non-certified Organic	1	0	1	0	4	1	1	0	1.40	0.00	4.00
Mixed Practices	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0.60	0.00	1.00
Free Range	4	0	1	0	3	2	0	0	1.60	0.00	4.00
Other	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0.00	0.00	0.00

Note: Multiple responses accepted. Some responses include “unknown” or “other responses; as such the number do not add to 100.

Respondents have also stated that on net they would expect the number of farms with the different production practices products would increase over time (Table 5.21). However, consistent with responses from those currently purchasing from farmers' market vendors, the majority of the respondents from both samples indicated no change in purchasing patterns in the short term. These results indicate that establishments are currently satisfied with the farmers they deal with and may not be willing to deal with too many farmers due to time, quality and consistency concerns (Nummedal & Hall 2006; Schmit & Hadcock 2012).

Table 5.21 Establishment expectations of future local purchase from farmers

Vancouver respondents (N = 36)

Vendors	Changes in farmers numbers		
	Increasing	Decreasing	Staying same
Conventional	6	6	17
Certified Organic	13	3	17
Non-certified Organic	17	2	10
Mixed Practices	8	2	16
Free Range	8	3	13
Other	0	0	0
Total^a	52	16	73

Christchurch respondents (N = 22)

Vendors	Changes in farmers numbers		
	Increasing	Decreasing	Staying same
Conventional	3	1	3
Certified Organic	3	1	6
Non-certified Organic	1	2	4
Mixed Practices	4	0	4
Free Range	4	1	3
Other	0	0	0
Total^a	15	5	20

^a Multiple answers accepted.

Delivery system used by the respondent establishments

Previous research has shown that in local purchasing, issues of distribution and delivery influence purchasing decisions from local farmers (Strohbehn & Gregoire 2002; FPC 2003). For this reason respondents were asked how they had products delivered to their establishments from a farm. The number of delivery methods preferred by the respondents for receiving local food products from farmers can be quite variable (Table 5.22). The results appear consistent with responses from those currently purchasing from farmers' market vendors in that delivered by

farmers and picked up from farmers' market by restaurant/chef were the common methods utilised among the respondents in both samples. However, 36.11% of the respondents used "Other" delivery methods such as courier services, shift cargo (on bike) or third party delivery vans in Vancouver, compared with only 9.52% of the respondents in Christchurch.

Table 5.22 Percentage of locally purchased food delivered versus picked up

Delivery methods used	Vancouver (N = 36)		Christchurch (N = 21)	
	Frequency	Percent ^a	Frequency	Percent ^a
Delivered by farmers	24	66.66	16	76.19
Pick up from market by restaurant/chef	4	11.11	6	28.57
Both delivery methods used	5	13.88	0	0.00
Other delivery method (please describe)	13	36.11	2	9.52

^aPercent is greater than 100, as respondents selected all that applied; thus, multiple responses.

Payment methods

All the participants were asked to rank four different payment options to identify which method had been used for purchasing local food products from farmers. The four options included paying with cash-on-delivery, paying by cheque, paying with credit/debit card, and periodic payment schedule. Table 5.23 provides a description of payment method used by the responding establishments from both groups.

Table 5.23 Frequency of payment method used for farmers by establishment

Method of payment	Vancouver (N = 35)		Christchurch (N = 21)	
	Frequency	Percent ^a	Frequency	Percent ^a
Cash-on-delivery	9	25.71	3	14.28
Cheque	20	57.14	1	4.76
Credit/Debit Card	11	31.42	1	4.76
Periodic payment schedule (e.g. weekly, bi-weekly, or monthly)	17	48.57	18	85.71
No preference	0	0.00	0	0.00
Other	1	2.85	0	0.00

^aPercent is greater than 100, as respondents selected all that applied; thus, multiple responses.

Respondents were also asked to rank these four different payment methods in terms of preferences for purchasing local food products (Table 5.24). Results show that a higher percentage of respondents stated periodic payment to be the most preferred payment option in Christchurch versus Vancouver (71.42% versus 28.57%). There was a similarity in that for Vancouver and Christchurch samples, both groups saw paying with cash as the second most preferred option (8.57% and 14.28% of the respective samples). However, 20% of the

respondents preferred to pay with cheque in Christchurch, compared with only 4.76% of respondents in Vancouver.

Table 5.24 Frequency of payment method prefers to use by establishment

Method of payment	Vancouver (N = 35)		Christchurch (N = 21)	
	Frequency	Percent ^a	Frequency	Percent ^a
Cash-on-delivery	3	8.57	3	14.28
Cheque	7	20.00	1	4.76
Credit/Debit Card	5	14.28	0	0.00
Periodic payment schedule (e.g. weekly, bi-weekly, or monthly)	10	28.57	15	71.42
No preference	1	2.85	0	0.00
Other	0	0.00	0	0.00

^a Percent is greater than 100, as respondents selected all that applied; thus, multiple responses.

5.7 Purchasing from Wholesale Distributors (Distributors)

5.7.1 Types of wholesale distributors currently used by the respondent establishments

Much of the research has found that foodservice establishments would prefer to purchase locally grown food products from wholesale distributors, often because of lack of time, inconsistent quality and quantity issues, delivery issues, and the inconvenience of dealing with multiple farmers (e.g. FPC 2003; Reynolds-Allie & Fields 2012; Schmit & Hadcock 2012). Very few studies have examined the foodservice establishments' motivations for purchasing local foods from wholesale distributors (e.g. Starr et al. 2003; Lawley & Howieson 2015). Given the lack of previous research on wholesale distributors, this research seeks to expand knowledge in these areas from the perspective of foodservice establishments-wholesale distributors' relationships (see also Chapter Seven).

In this study, the most frequently used wholesale distributors by the respondents in Vancouver were Sysco, GFS (Gordon Food Services), and Albion Fisheries (owned by GFS) (Table B13 in Appendix B). This result is consistent with a 2006 report on the Vancouver food distribution system that recorded that two large foodservice distributor's (hereby wholesale distributors) such as Sysco and GFS command between 60 and 65% market share (NovaCorp Consulting Inc. 2006). In 2005, almost 90% of the products were sold by the foodservice distributors that sourced directly from farms or value added producers (Vancouver Food Policy Council 2009). Furthermore, it was estimated that less than one-third of the British Columbian locally grown

ingredients were sold by foodservice distributors (Vancouver Food Policy Council 2009). Larger distributors have a high percentage of market share but many Canadian cuisine restaurants use a complex system of food procurement for their speciality and top quality food products and deal with a large number of wholesale distributors to procure specific items for their cuisine (range from one to 11) (Table B14 in Appendix B). In contrast, Asian cuisine restaurants use wholesale distributors that are completely different from those of Canadian cuisine restaurants. The most frequently named wholesale distributors used for Asian cuisine style restaurants were Van-whole produce, Meadowfresh Dairy Corporation, and Ridgecrest Dairy Ltd.

In Christchurch, all respondents used at least one kind of wholesale distributor on a regular basis for a range of locally grown food products in Christchurch (Table B15 in Appendix B). When the results were evaluated according to the different cuisine style of restaurant, New Zealand (range from one to 26) and Asian (range from one to 17) cuisine style of restaurants were more inclined towards using a higher number of wholesale distributors to source their local food products (Table B16 in Appendix B). While European (range from one to nine) and “Other” (range one to two) cuisine style restaurants were less likely to use wholesale distributors for their local food procurement. The most frequently used wholesale distributors by the responding establishments were Bidvest, Farm Chicken, Peter Rabbit’s Patch, Theos Fisheries, West Meat, and Angus Meats. This is an important finding, as it indicates that there is a reasonable level of reliability of sourcing local products from wholesale distributors and the type of ingredients that most of these wholesale distributors supply show a preference for local items.

5.8 Supplier Selection Characteristics

Decisions regarding the selection of suppliers have become increasingly important in recent years. Since suppliers vary widely with respect to delivery and billing practices, prices, and since qualities of the products vary, selecting the right supplier is important as it can significantly affect a business’s bottom-line performance (Reid & Riegel 1989; Crotts et al. 2001). Table 5.25 represents the number of characteristics attributed to supplier selection criteria for Vancouver and Christchurch respondents. The comparison of the mean ratings indicates that “Guaranteed consistent of product quality” (6.25) was the highest rated supplier selection factor for Vancouver respondents, corresponding with the second highest rated reason why respondents decided to purchase from farmers’ market vendors (see Table 5.12), while this aspect was third to “Food safety assurances” in Christchurch. However, this factor was found to be different, but

Table 5.25 Suppliers' characteristics and their importance by establishment

Factor	Vancouver (N = 60)				Christchurch (N = 94)				t-test	Sig.
	Frequency	Mean	Std. Dev.	Rank	Frequency	Mean	Std. Dev.	Rank		
Convenience in order process	60	5.75	1.79	8	94	6.49	1.17	3	-2.83	0.006*
Guaranteed consistent of product quality	60	6.25	1.49	1	94	6.49	0.94	3	-1.11	0.269
Year-round availability	60	5.37	1.79	12	94	6.18	1.33	9	-2.98	0.004*
Products/ingredients knowledge	60	5.85	1.53	7	94	6.48	1.07	4	-2.77	0.007*
Ability to meet delivery deadlines	60	6.13	1.49	3	94	6.43	1.04	5	-1.32	0.188
Products/ingredients fair prices	60	6.00	1.38	5	94	6.38	0.93	6	-1.89	0.061
Ability to provide flexible payment procedures	60	4.83	2.03	14	94	6.06	1.47	11	-4.07	0.000*
Ability to deliver quantity needed or ordered	60	6.02	1.60	4	94	6.61	0.94	2	-2.58	0.011*
Ability to provide wide range of food products/ingredients	60	5.35	1.74	13	94	6.20	1.32	8	-3.25	0.002*
Willingness to share trustworthy information	60	5.69	1.32	9	94	5.95	1.26	13	-1.17	0.243
Commitment to customer service	60	5.93	1.41	6	94	6.43	1.04	5	-2.32	0.022
Responsiveness to questions or solving problems	60	6.02	1.43	4	94	6.36	1.12	7	-1.58	0.116
Food safety assurances	60	6.15	1.56	2	94	6.67	0.94	1	-2.32	0.022*
Substitutions availability	60	5.60	1.39	10	94	6.07	1.48	10	-2.01	0.046
Ability to provide process/package food products/ingredients as requested	60	5.45	1.70	11	94	5.99	1.37	12	-2.06	0.041*

Note: Mean based on scale of 1= "Very Unimportant", 4= "Neither Important nor Unimportant", 7= "Very Important". **T-test (2-tailed)* significant at the 0.05 level.

not significantly, between Vancouver and Christchurch respondents ($t = -1.11, p = 0.269$). The Vancouver respondents (6.25) were found to be less likely than Christchurch respondents (6.49) to choose a food supplier based on “Guaranteed consistent of product quality”. This result is largely consistent with previous findings (FPC 2003; Starr et al. 2003; Gregoire et al. 2005; Casselman 2010; Curtis & Cowee 2009; Woods et al. 2006; Reynolds-Allie & Fields 2012). This result is also in accordance with several other business-to-business and hospitality studies that considered the most important attributes when selecting a supplier was consistent quality of the products at reasonable prices (Reid & Riegal 1989; Coltman 1990; Corell 1992; Jharkharia & Shankar 2007; Pearce 2007). The results from this study imply that quality is an important factor that respondents from both samples look for from their suppliers and many chefs do place a premium on quality of products and have very high standard of quality in general. Therefore, “Guaranteed consistent of product quality” becomes a key determinant for the supplier selection process in foodservice establishments with both samples.

Strict adherence to “Food safety assurances” (6.15) emerges as the key aspect for the suppliers to deliver to potential restaurant customers and was cited as the second most important supplier selection factor by Vancouver respondents, while this aspect emerged as top of the list by Christchurch respondents. The “Food safety assurances” factor was found to be significantly different between the two samples ($t = -2.32, p = 0.022$). The Christchurch respondents (6.67) identified “Food safety assurances” as more important than Vancouver respondents (6.15). This indicates that adherence to food safety assurance is vital for suppliers to successfully penetrate the foodservice market. The result strongly accords with the literature (Casselman 2010; FPC 2003; Reynolds-Allie & Fields 2012; Sharma et al. 2014). However, Gregoire et al. (2005) did report that food safety issues were the lowest rated (mean = 2.49 on a 5- point scale obstacle) concern for producers in marketing to local foodservice operations in Iowa.

Respondents cited the importance of “Ability to deliver quantity needed or ordered” in significantly different ways. In Christchurch, this aspect ranks the second most important supplier selection criterion. While this was not the case in Vancouver, respondents cited this aspect as the fourth most important supplier selection criterion. The “Ability to deliver quantity needed or ordered” was found to be significantly different ($t = -2.58, p = 0.011$) between Vancouver and Christchurch respondents. Vancouver respondents found this to be less important (6.02) than Christchurch respondents (6.61). However, there were differences (albeit not significant) with regard to Christchurch respondents, where the supplier selection criterion “Ability to meet delivery deadlines” (6.13) ranked fifth, while Vancouver respondents ranked

this aspect as their third most important supplier selection criterion for local purchases. In previous studies all these factors have been recognised as important in supplier selection processes (e.g. FPC 2003; Strohbehn & Gregoire 2003; Woods et al. 2006; Casselman 2010). The result is also consistent with business-to-business foodservice purchaser studies that found ability to deliver accurate products or supplies on time is the most important and critical determinant in choosing and managing suppliers (e.g. Reid & Riegel 1989; Feinstein & Stefanelli 2005; also see Gregoire et al. 2005 as an exception to this observation).

The factor “Products/ingredients fair prices” also emerged as important for both groups of respondents. The factor “Products/ingredients fair prices” was rated differently (albeit not significantly) between Vancouver and Christchurch respondents ($t = -1.89$, $p = 0.061$). Vancouver respondents found this factor to be less important (6.00) than Christchurch respondents (6.38) (see also Woods et al. 2006). However, the importance of reasonable price being the primary concern for selection of suppliers varies substantially in prior research (e.g. Reid & Riegel 1989; FPC 2003; Gregoire et al. 2005; Pearce 2007; Murphy & Smith 2009; Casselman 2010).

The factors “Products/ingredients knowledge”, and “Year-round availability” were ranked as moderately important to very important by both groups of respondents and all are largely consistent with other studies (e.g. FPC 2003; Murphy & Smith 2009; Casselman 2010). The factors “Products/ingredients knowledge” ($t = -2.77$, $p = 0.007$) and “Year-round availability” ($t = -2.98$, $p = 0.004$) were found to be significantly different between Vancouver and Christchurch. However, “Substitutions availability” and “Ability to provide wide range of food products/ingredients” were considered as less important factors sought in suppliers from both groups of respondents. The contrast for “Ability to provide wide range of food products/ingredients” between Vancouver and Christchurch respondents was found to be significantly different ($t = -3.25$, $p = 0.002$). These concerns are largely consistent with other studies (e.g. FPC 2003; Feinstein & Stefanelli 2005; Woods et al. 2006; Murphy & Smith 2009; Casselman 2010). In addition, “Convenience in order process” ($t = -2.83$, $p = 0.006$) and “Ability to provide process/package food products/ingredients as requested” ($t = -2.06$, $p = 0.041$) were found to be significantly different between Vancouver and Christchurch respondents. The Christchurch respondents (6.49) identified “Convenience in order process” as more important than Vancouver respondents (5.75). Likewise, Christchurch respondents (5.99) were less concerned about the “Ability to provide process/package food products/ingredients as requested” factor than Vancouver respondents (5.41), while this is rated as the least important factor for

both groups of respondents. Both of these concerns mirror those identified in other studies (e.g. FPC 2003; Strohbehn & Gregoire 2003; Gregoire et al. 2005; Woods et al. 2006; Casselman 2010) One difference that was noted, “Willingness to share trustworthy information” factor was cited as least important for Christchurch respondents, while this aspect was ranked as moderately important for Vancouver respondents. Overall, this is consistent with Murphy and Smith’s (2009) findings.

The lowest rated supplier selection factor with all the respondents from Vancouver was the “Ability to provide flexible payment procedures” (4.83), although it was ranked as being moderately important. This factor was found to be significantly different between Vancouver and Christchurch respondents ($t = -4.07, p = 0.000$). Vancouver respondents were found to be less concerned about flexible payment procedures than Christchurch respondents. Additionally, the “Ability to provide flexible payment procedures” was the factor found to be closest to being significantly different among four cuisine style restaurants [$F(3, 90) = 2.56, p = 0.06$] in Christchurch (Table B17 in Appendix B), where New Zealand cuisine style restaurants (5.64) were statistically significantly different from Asian cuisine restaurants (mean = 6.50, $p = .049$). However, no statistically significant differences among the four cuisine style restaurants were found for any of the food supplier selection factors in Vancouver.

5.9 Establishment’s Willingness to Pay (WTP) for Locally Grown Food

Products

Previous research suggests that consumer preferences and willingness to pay for locally grown products are high and based on a variety of reasons (e.g. Brown 2003; Darby et al. 2008; Martinez et al. 2010; Adams & Adams 2011; Long et al. 2013). To assess this, foodservice practitioners’ were asked (by multiple responses which is not mutually exclusive) whether they were willing to pay more for locally grown food products or not by different attributes, e.g. organic, that are often used in labelling and food promotion. In this study, fieldwork suggested a high level of understanding of the attributes and their meanings and differences by respondents. For example, in the survey organic and certified organic attributes has included. The term organic refers to being produced on organic principles but without being certified (which is quite common for small producers given the cost of certification), while the term certified organic means that the product comes from a supplier whose products have been third party certified.

In Vancouver, 65.07% (n = 63) of respondents were willing to pay more for locally grown food products while the remaining respondents do not. The results from Christchurch were similar with 63.82% (n = 94) of respondents willing to pay more for locally grown food products. Respondents who were willing to pay more for locally grown food products were asked to indicate the preferences of 15 factors associated with several empirical works that examined consumers preferences and assessed consumers' willingness to pay (WTP) for local food products (see Chapter Three). Overall, all the attributes were indicated more important for both groups of respondents (Table 5.26).

Table 5.26 Frequency of respondents WTP more for locally grown food products on different attributes

Attributes (Factors)	Vancouver (N = 41)		Christchurch (N = 60)	
	Frequency	Percent ^a	Frequency	Percent ^a
Product attributes (taste, quality, appearance, and freshness)	37	90.24	57	95.00
Safety	19	46.34	55	91.66
Nutritional value	17	41.46	50	83.33
Organic	24	58.53	34	56.66
Certified organic	18	43.90	18	30.00
Conventional	4	9.75	4	6.66
Natural	26	63.41	56	93.33
GMO-free	30	73.17	46	76.66
Absence of pesticide	28	68.29	47	78.33
Product labelled as "locally grown"	17	41.46	51	85.00
Support to the local economy	37	90.24	55	91.66
Locally grown value added products	25	60.97	36	60.00
Environmental sustainability	34	82.92	54	90.00
Support to small local vendors and farmers	36	87.80	54	90.00
Certified fair trade ^b	14	34.14		

^a Percent is greater than 100, as respondents selected all that applied; thus, multiple responses. ^b Attribute was not asked to the Christchurch respondents.

While comparing the Vancouver and Christchurch samples, both groups of respondents indicated the highest importance of WTP for the same four attributes – although in a different order. Both groups of respondents placed a greater importance on “Product attributes (taste, quality, appearance, and freshness)”, “Support to the local economy” followed by “Support to small local vendors and farmers”, and “Environmental sustainability” attributes. However, one difference was noted; a larger percentage of Christchurch respondents (85%) indicated WTP for the attribute “Product labelled as locally grown”, while only 41.46% of Vancouver respondents

reported the same. Research has shown that products labelled as being local have a favourable image that significantly influences willingness to buy and pay for protected food products (Van Ittersum et al. 2007; Darby et al. 2008).

Among the findings, the most influential local food attribute in motivating respondents' WTP more was social/community/economy. This finding suggested that the perceived benefit of supporting the local economy was the reason that influenced foodservice establishments' willingness to pay more for locally sourced foods. This finding supports Senauer's (2001) contention that when one purchases local foods, it is an expression of their social identity. From the consumers' perspective, this result also endorses Dutta et al.'s (2008) conclusion that diners are willing to pay higher prices in restaurants advocating socially responsible practices.

The "Nutrition value" of the products was also found to motivate respondents' local food expenditures. However, this aspect was more important for Christchurch respondents (91.66%) than Vancouver respondents (46.34%). Again, the finding from Vancouver is in accordance with previous literature. Loureiro and Hine (2002), and others (FPC 2003; Curtis & Cowee 2009; Ikerd 2011), found that local foods nutrient value was less important to consumers than taste, quality or social impact. In terms of product attributes (taste, quality, appearance, and freshness), this was also found to be a strong motivator of WTP for local foods. As noted in the literature review, the normal consensus among chefs are that the product attributes of local foods relate to improved flavour (Curtis et al. 2008; Inwood et al. 2009). In fact, the importance of product attributes in the context of local food is well established throughout the literature (e.g. FPC 2003). The results of this study suggest that the perceived benefits of product attributes were the main criterion that influenced respondents' purchasing decisions of local foods from both samples. In regard to environmental sustainability, this was also found to be a strong preference for respondents WTP for local foods. Again, this corresponds to the literature that found the environmentally conscious treatment of products was important to chefs (e.g. Benepe et al. 2002; Curtis & Cowee 2009). The findings of this research indicate that respondents had concerns about knowing where the product is coming from and how it is produced; thus, their decisions for paying more were influenced by these characteristics.

Consistent with these findings, there was a similarity between the groups of respondents in their WTP for conventionally produced local foods; both groups of respondents rated this attribute as a lowest preference for high WTP. This finding is in accordance with a Vancouver based study (Canadian Federation of Agriculture conducted a study in partnership with Meyers Norris

Penny) that showed that nearly three quarters of the population are willing to pay a premium for Canadian grown products, if they would know the premium will go to the Canadian farmers (Jennymae 2008). Furthermore, when these results are analysed according to the cuisine style of restaurants (Table 5.27), Canadian and European cuisine style restaurants were the most ardent in paying more for local foods in Vancouver, whereas Asian and New Zealand cuisine style restaurants from Christchurch sample did same.

Table 5.27 Cuisine style of restaurants and their percentage of WTP for local foods

Cuisine style	Vancouver (N = 63)		Christchurch (N = 94)	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Canadian (Including contemporary Canadian cuisine)	22	34.92	0	0
New Zealand Cuisine (Including contemporary New Zealand cuisine)	0	0	21	22.34
European (French, Italian, Greek, and Spanish cuisine)	9	14.28	8	8.51
Asian (Indian, Chinese, Korean, Vietnamese, and Thai cuisine)	6	9.52	27	28.72
“Other” (Caterer, Vegetarian, Fish and Chips, and Mexican cuisine)	3	4.76	4	4.25

5.10 Is Purchasing Locally Grown Food Products Profitable?

Respondents were asked whether purchasing locally grown food products has had a positive impact on their establishment’s profits. The results provided quite a contrast between the groups of respondents (Table 5.28). In Vancouver, 49.10% of the respondents agreed or strongly agreed with the statement “purchasing locally grown food products has a positive impact on my establishment’s bottom line profits” while 14.03% strongly agreed with this statement.

Table 5.28 Impact of purchasing locally grown food on establishment’s profit

Level of interest	Vancouver (N = 57)		Christchurch (N = 34)	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Strongly Disagree	1	1.75	0	0.00
Disagree Somewhat	6	10.52	3	8.82
Disagree Slightly	3	5.26	2	5.88
Neither Agree nor Disagree	19	33.33	11	32.35
Agree Slightly	9	15.78	11	32.35
Agree Somewhat	11	19.29	7	20.58
Strongly Agree	8	14.03	0	0.00
Total	57	100	34	100

In Christchurch, only 52.93% of the respondents agreed or agreed somewhat with this statement. These findings indicate that selling locally grown food products through the menu is regarded as “profitable” for close to half of the establishments from both samples. This strongly accords with the literature (e.g. FPC 2003). Reynolds-Allie and Fields (2012) concluded that 62% (n = 72) of the respondents agreed or strongly agreed that purchasing locally has had a positive impact on their restaurant’s profit.

Furthermore, comparing the Vancouver and Christchurch samples, similarities were found for Asian cuisine style restaurants. The cross tabulation results are shown in Table 5.29. It shows that 58.33% (in aggregate) of Asian cuisine style restaurants in Vancouver agreed that purchasing locally grown food has a positive impact on their restaurants’ profit. Similarly, 53.83% (in aggregate) of Asian cuisine style restaurants in Christchurch indicated the same.

Table 5.29 Impact of purchasing locally grown food on cuisine style of restaurant’s profit

Vancouver respondents (N = 57)								
Agreement with bottom line profit	Canadian		Asian		European		Other	
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Strongly Disagree	1	3.84	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00
Disagree Somewhat	2	7.69	0	0.00	4	33.33	0	0.00
Disagree Slightly	1	3.84	1	8.33	1	8.33	2	28.57
Neither Agree nor Disagree	9	34.61	4	33.33	2	16.66	2	28.57
Agree Slightly	4	15.38	3	25.00	1	8.33	1	14.28
Agree Somewhat	5	19.23	1	8.33	3	25.00	2	28.57
Strongly Agree	4	15.38	3	25.00	1	8.33	0	0.00
Total	26	100	12	100	12	100	7	100

Christchurch respondents (N = 34)								
Agreement with bottom line profit	New Zealand		Asian		European		Other	
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Strongly Disagree	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00
Disagree Somewhat	1	6.66	2	15.38	0	0.00	0	0.00
Disagree Slightly	1	6.66	0	0.00	0	0.00	1	25.00
Neither Agree nor Disagree	5	33.33	4	30.76	0	0.00	2	50.00
Agree Slightly	6	40.00	3	23.07	1	50.00	1	25.00
Agree Somewhat	2	13.33	4	30.76	1	25.00	0	0.00
Strongly Agree	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00
Total	15	100	13	100	2	100	4	100

However, there was a difference in that for both groups of respondents, a larger percentage of “Other” cuisine style restaurants (42.85%) indicated that selling locally grown food is profitable in Vancouver, compared with only 25% of “Other” cuisine style restaurants in Christchurch.

5.11 Local Food Promotions to Restaurant Customers

The respondents were asked if their establishment currently had promoted the use of local food products/ingredients information on their menus or in other promotional materials. Results from responses showed 73.01% of the respondents (n = 46) promote the use of local foods on their menus or in other their promotional materials in Vancouver. In Christchurch, more than half (51.61%, n = 48) of the respondents did the same. Respondents who do not promote local food were also asked their level of interest in promoting local food products on their menus. Results from both groups of respondents are presented in Table 5.30.

Table 5.30 Frequency of local food promotion interest by establishments

Level of interest	Vancouver (N = 17)		Christchurch (N = 45)	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Very Uninterested	0	0.00	3	6.66
Uninterested Somewhat Slightly	0	0.00	0	0.00
Uninterested Slightly	1	5.88	1	2.22
Neither Interested nor Uninterested	3	17.64	8	17.77
Interested Slightly	7	41.17	15	33.33
Interested Somewhat	5	29.41	11	24.44
Very Interested	1	5.88	7	15.55
Total	17	100	45	100

Comparing the Vancouver and Christchurch respondents, both groups were seen as more enthusiastic about the promotion of local foods on their menus. In Vancouver, 76.46% (in aggregate) of the respondents reported they were slightly, somewhat, or very interested in promoting locally grown food on their menus, while only 5.88% had no interest. Similarly, 73.32% (in aggregate) of the respondents from Christchurch were slightly, somewhat or very interested in promoting locally grown food on their menus and 8.88% had no interest in promoting local foods on their menus. These results indicate the majority of respondents from both groups were interested in promoting local foods through their menus or in other promotional materials. This is in accordance with several other studies that have shown that foodservice establishments promote the use of local foods on their menus or in other promotional

materials, and are a very effective way to inform customers (e.g. FPC 2010; Murphy & Smith 2010; Alonso & O'Neill 2010) about the local foods used in restaurants.

5.11.1 Forms of communication media and their importance to the customer experience

Establishments can promote their use of local food products in a variety of ways. Such promotion can help the establishment to get more customer exposure and enhance the experience. Respondents were asked to rate the relevance of 12 communication media associated with local food promotion that had been identified in previous surveys of restaurants as well as in the relevant literature (see Chapter Three). Clear differences were noted between the two samples and the importance they placed on communication media for local food promotion at their establishments (Table 5.31). “Educate employees about local food products/ingredients” (mean = 6.13) was rated the highest communication message for Vancouver respondents, while this aspect was the fifth to “Reputation of the restaurant” communication media in Christchurch. However, there was no significant difference found between the two groups of respondents on this aspect. The result from Vancouver is strongly aligned with previous North American studies (e.g. FPC 2003; Murphy & Smith 2009; Inwood et al. 2009; Sharma et al. 2014), the philosophy being that better educated staff members are able to transfer information to potential customers, thereby increased sales and awareness of local foods.

Furthermore, Christchurch and Vancouver respondents were found to be significantly different ($t = -2.80$, $p = 0.007$) in regards to the importance of “Reputation of the restaurant” communications when using media. In Christchurch, this aspect ranks first as the most important communication message in local food promotion, while in Vancouver, respondents cited this aspect as second most important. There were also significant differences with respect to “Reputation of the chef” ($t = -2.11$, $p = 0.037$). In Vancouver, respondents found this communication media tool to be less important (mean = 5.87) than Christchurch respondents (mean = 6.45). Other studies have identified this aspect as the most important communication tool for local food promotion to their guests (e.g. Murphy & Smith 2009; Duram & Cawley 2012). The results from the present study indicate that respondents from both samples felt their restaurants and their personal reputations are the most important communication tools for communicating information about the quality of the restaurants and its dishes to their customers.

Table 5.31 Communication factors and their importance to the guest experience

Communication tools (Factor)	Vancouver (N = 46)				Christchurch (N = 49)				t-test	Sig.
	Frequency	Mean	Std. Dev.	Rank	Frequency	Mean	Std. Dev.	Rank		
Menu descriptions	46	5.76	1.49	6	49	6.49	1.02	2	-2.75	0.007*
Identification of origins of ingredients on the menu/blackboard	46	5.26	1.54	10	49	6.14	1.38	7	-2.98	0.004
Staff (wait staff, kitchen staff, managers) knowledge about the history and background of local food products/ ingredients	46	6.00	1.33	3	49	6.43	0.89	4	-1.81	0.073
Educate employees about local food products/ingredients	46	6.13	1.20	1	49	6.39	0.95	5	-1.15	0.253
Educate customers about local food products/ingredients	46	5.50	1.62	9	49	5.88	1.24	8	-1.27	0.206
Reputation of the restaurant	46	6.07	1.34	2	49	6.67	0.63	1	-2.80	0.007*
Reputation of the chef	46	5.87	1.45	5	49	6.45	1.19	3	-2.11	0.037*
Theme of the restaurant	46	5.70	1.58	7	49	6.14	1.24	7	-1.53	0.130
Personal recommendation (Word of mouth)	46	5.89	1.52	4	49	6.37	1.27	6	-1.64	0.103
Signage (i.e. Brochures, Posters, on special erasable boards)	46	4.87	1.65	11	49	5.39	1.92	10	-1.41	0.161
Social media (e.g. Website and Facebook)	46	5.67	1.54	8	49	5.86	1.68	9	-0.57	0.568
Advertisements (i.e. Food guides, Newspaper reviews, Prize winning)	46	4.84	1.78	12	49	5.08	1.88	11	-0.63	0.527

Note: Mean based on scale of 1= “Very Unimportant”, 4= “Neither Important nor Unimportant”, 7= “Very Important”. **T-test (2-tailed)* significant at the 0.05 level.

“Menu descriptions” was cited as the second most important communication tool by Christchurch respondents while it was ranked sixth by Vancouver respondents. This was found to be significantly different between Vancouver and Christchurch respondents ($t = -2.75, p = 0.007$). It appears that Christchurch respondents found this tool to be more important to highlight local ingredients, farmers and method of preparation for their customers than Vancouver respondents. The communication media “Advertisements (i.e. Food guides, Newspaper reviews, Prize winning)” and “Signage (i.e. Brochures, Posters, on special erasable boards)” were least important to respondents from both samples.

Based on the one-way ANOVA tests, none of the factors appeared to have any statistically significant differences among different cuisine style of restaurants in Christchurch (Table B18 in Appendix B). However, a statistically significant difference was found in Vancouver respondents among the four cuisine style restaurants on “Educate employees about local food products/ingredients” [$F(3, 42) = 4.06, p = 0.013$].

Based on Post hoc Tukey HSD Multiple Comparisons test, Asian cuisine style restaurants (5.00) were significantly different from Canadian cuisine style restaurants (mean = 6.45, $p = .013$) and European cuisine style restaurants (mean = 6.56, $p = .028$), while “Other” cuisine style restaurants (5.86) did not differ significantly from Canadian, European, or Asian cuisine style restaurants. This finding indicates that European cuisine style restaurants were actively using a staff education strategy as promotional tool to their customers when local ingredients were used in the menu. This is discussed further in Chapter Seven.

5.12 Chapter Summary

This chapter has reported the findings of a questionnaire survey conducted with restaurants and chefs between Vancouver, Canada and Christchurch, New Zealand. In general, attitudes towards local food products purchases were positive; with approximately 93% and 98% of respondents in Vancouver and Christchurch, respectively, involved in local food purchases. There was a similarity in both groups of respondents in their understanding of local food and in their attitudes towards purchasing it. Some differences in results were also identified. As found in previous studies, there was no consensus on the definition of “local food” among the respondents from both groups. “Inadequate availability” and “Too time consuming to locate sources” were the two major barriers to respondents not purchasing locally from both samples.

A number of procurement sources were used by the survey respondents to purchase their local food products. Findings did show differences in local food adoption and barriers between farmers' markets, farmers and wholesale distributors. With the exception of other distribution channels, wholesale distributor channels were used most by both groups of respondents. Importantly, all restaurants used at least one kind of wholesale distributor. This evidence shows that restaurant satisfaction with current wholesale distributors were important in decisions regarding local food purchases.

The results from both samples suggest that Summer was the season with the highest percentage of all product purchases made locally. However, there was a significant difference found with value added product purchasing habits between the samples. Common barriers for local food adoption from farmers' markets and farmers included "Satisfied with current distributors", "Do not offer delivery", "Lack of time and staff to visit the market", "Do not have time to contact several farmers", "Farms are too far away", and "Unsure of consistency of products delivery" to respondents not purchasing locally, although few of these were significant. However, "Fresher and higher quality food products", "Food products grown/produced locally", and "Supporting local economy" were the major motivations for local food adoption from farmers' markets among the respondents. "Supporting local vendors/producers" and "Meeting the vendors and become acquainted with regional foods" surfaced as a relatively strong motivation for Vancouver respondents for local food adoption from farmers' markets, but these motivations were much lower for Christchurch respondents. On the other hand, Christchurch respondents were more interested in finding better taste and smaller volume of products from farmers' markets than Vancouver respondents. Common barriers cited by both groups of respondents who purchase at farmers' markets involved a lack of information about the products availability and higher product prices. However, these factors did not have significant differences between both groups of respondents. Year round product availability surfaced as a relatively strong barrier to Vancouver establishments to expanding purchases from farmers' markets, but this issue was much less problematic for Christchurch establishments.

The results of this study show that respondents from both groups of respondents were more concerned with the specific production practices used for growing local food products. The majority of the respondents have used certified organic producers than the conventional and non-certified organic producers followed by mixed practices and free range products in their local purchasing. In addition, the majority of respondents from both regions were found to be willing

to pay more for local food due to the product attributes, supporting the local economy, supporting small local vendors and farmers, and environmentally sustainable local products.

Significant differences were identified in analysing the two groups of samples in terms of supplier selection criteria. For the Vancouver respondents the principle criteria were “Guaranteed consistent of product quality”, “Food safety assurances”, and “Ability to meet delivery deadlines”, while Christchurch respondents were focussed on “Food safety assurances”, “Ability to deliver quantity needed or ordered”, and “Convenience in order process”. In addition, there was a significant difference found among the different cuisine style restaurants on the “Ability to provide flexible payment procedures” criteria in the Christchurch sample, while no statistically significant differences were found for any of the food supplier selection factors in the Vancouver sample.

Further significant differences were also found when comparing the different cuisine style restaurants for their local food procurements from farmers and/or farmers’ market vendors. There appeared to be a statistically significant difference found in “Food products/ingredients grown/produced locally”, “Food products/ingredients are safer”, and “Food products/ingredients are free from or use less pesticide and/or hormones” among the four cuisine style restaurants in Vancouver to their motivation of local food procurements from farmers’ market vendors, however, there appeared to be no statistically significant differences found in the Christchurch sample. On the other hand, statistically significant differences were found in “Satisfied with current distributors”, “Unsure of quality or consistencies of products/ingredients”, “Local health and food safety concerns”, “Lack of information of products/ingredients availability”, “Farmers’ market(s) are too far away”, “Inconsistent supply of products/ingredients” and “Price of the products/ingredients are too high” as the barrier factors among the different cuisine style restaurants that limited their purchasing decisions from farmers and/or farmers’ market vendors directly in both Vancouver and Christchurch samples.

In regard to the promotion of local foods to customers, respondents from both samples indicated “Reputation of the restaurant” was the most important message for communicating information about local foods to customers. However, significant differences were found between the two groups of respondents in “Reputation of the restaurants” factor. Vancouver respondents indicated this factor was less important, while Christchurch respondents rated this factor as more important. The other factors that were important for Christchurch or Vancouver included: “Menu description” and “Educate employees about local food products/ingredients”, “Reputation of the

chef”, and “Staff knowledge about the history and background of local food products/ingredients”.

The findings of this chapter have made clear that there is substantial support by both sets of respondents for the purchase of local food from farmers’ market vendors, farmers/producers, and wholesale distributors. However, restaurants identified a number of obstacles to purchasing. Interestingly, for the future development of direct relationships between vendors/farmers and restaurants, the majority of establishments would like to increase their local food purchases by having a greater number of farmers’ market vendors and farmers/producers under the current arrangement.

The findings from this survey are a significant addition to the academic literature. In order to provide a more complete picture of the use of local food, interviews with restaurants and chefs (managers, owners, and chefs), farmers and farmers’ market vendors, and foodservice wholesale distributors were also conducted in order to generate more data and in-depth information as well as to gain a better understanding of the topic. The next chapter will discuss the research findings from the restaurants and chefs interview sessions.

CHAPTER SIX

Results: Restaurant and Chef Interviews

6.0 Introduction

This chapter reports and discusses findings from the semi-structured interviews conducted with restaurants and chefs (managers, owners, and chefs) in Vancouver and Christchurch. The semi-structured interviews with restaurants and chefs were used as a follow up tool to allow for further in-depth and a more precise understanding of the findings gathered through the mail survey. The first section of the chapter provides the interviewee selection process, followed by details about the interviewees and the discussion of the emergent themes from interview questions. The emergent themes are presented and accompanied by selected quotes (identified by respondent numbers) to further demonstrate their significance and context. Where possible, for comparative case study analysis, each theme were compared to identify similarities, differences and contradictions, and to analyse how the findings supplement each other. Throughout this chapter, research findings are considered in relation to previous findings and the literature as discussed in Chapters Two, Three and Five.

6.1 Restaurants and Chefs

6.1.1 Interviewee selection

Respondents were asked as part of the questionnaire if they were willing to be contacted to consider participating in personal interviews for further investigation into their experiences of buying and promoting local food ingredients on their menus from local suppliers; 31 respondents from Vancouver and 28 respondents from Christchurch indicated that they would consider being interviewed as a follow up to the survey. Semi-structured interviews were conducted with all the respondents from both samples. Details of the interviewees are given below.

6.1.2 Interview respondents' profiles

Table 6.1 summarises a demographic description of the interviewees from the Vancouver and Christchurch samples. The Vancouver sample is dominated by male interviewees with 87.10% (27 participants) being male. Although not intentional, all the interviewees (28 respondents) from Christchurch sample in this study were male.

Table 6.1 Demographics of respondents: Restaurants and Chefs

City (Country)	Vancouver (Canada)	Christchurch (New Zealand)
No. of respondents	31	28
Gender	Male: 87.10% (27) Female: 12.90% (4)	Male: 100% (28)
Type of establishment	Hotel Restaurant: 29.03% (9) Restaurant: 67.74% (21) Café: 3.22% (1)	Hotel Restaurant: 10.71% (3) Restaurant: 85.71% (24) Caterer: 3.75% (1)
Position of interviewee	Executive Chef: 48.38% (15) Executive Chef-owner: 9.67% (3) Executive Sous Chef: 6.45% (2) Sous Chef: 12.90% (4) General Manager: 3.22% (1) Owner-Manager: 3.22% (1) Chef-Manager: 3.22% (1) Chef-Owner: 6.45% (2) Owner-Operator: 6.45% (2)	Executive Chef: 39.28% (11) Executive Chef-owner: 7.14% (2) Executive Sous Chef: 10.71% (3) Sous Chef: 10.71% (3) General Manager: 3.57% (1) Manager: 21.42% (6) Owner-Operator: 7.14% (2)
Years living in the region	Minimum: One year Maximum: 40 years	Minimum: Three years Maximum: 50 years
Years of industry experience	Average: 21 years Minimum: Eight years Maximum: 37 years	Average: 19 years Minimum: Three years Maximum: 38 years
Procurement sources	Wholesale distributors: 96.77% (30) Direct from farmers: 74.19% (23) Farmers markets: 51.61% (16)	Wholesale distributors: 92.85% (26) Direct from farmers: 35.71% (10) Farmers markets: 14.28% (4)

All respondents are senior members of the establishment. This is accordance with several other studies that have noted that chefs/managers are important in taking decisions regarding choice of food, menus, and types of food to be prepared; and assumes a more significant role in decisions regarding food procurement and sources of supply (Rogerson 2012; Pillay & Rogerson 2013).

The average years of industry experience of the interviewees at the time of interview was 21 years in Vancouver and 19 years in Christchurch. In terms of represented establishments, 67.74% were restaurants, 29.03% were hotel restaurants, and 3.22% was a café in Vancouver. In Christchurch, 85.71% were restaurants, 10.71% were hotel restaurants, and 3.57% was a caterer from the represented establishments. Almost all the participants most frequently use wholesale distributors (96.77% in Vancouver and 92.85% in Christchurch). Both the Vancouver and the Christchurch respondents relied on a combination of farmers markets, wholesale distributors, and farmers for purchasing local food products for their operations. In Vancouver, direct purchases from farmers were used by 74.19% of the respondents, followed by farmers’ markets (51.61%). In Christchurch, 35.71% sourced local foods directly from farmers and only 14.28% purchased directly from farmers’ markets (see Fig. 6.1a and b for a schematic). These results reinforced the findings from the mail survey in this study (see section 5.4.2). In the following section, themes from the interview questions are presented and discussed. The perception of the definition of “quality” in food products is discussed first.

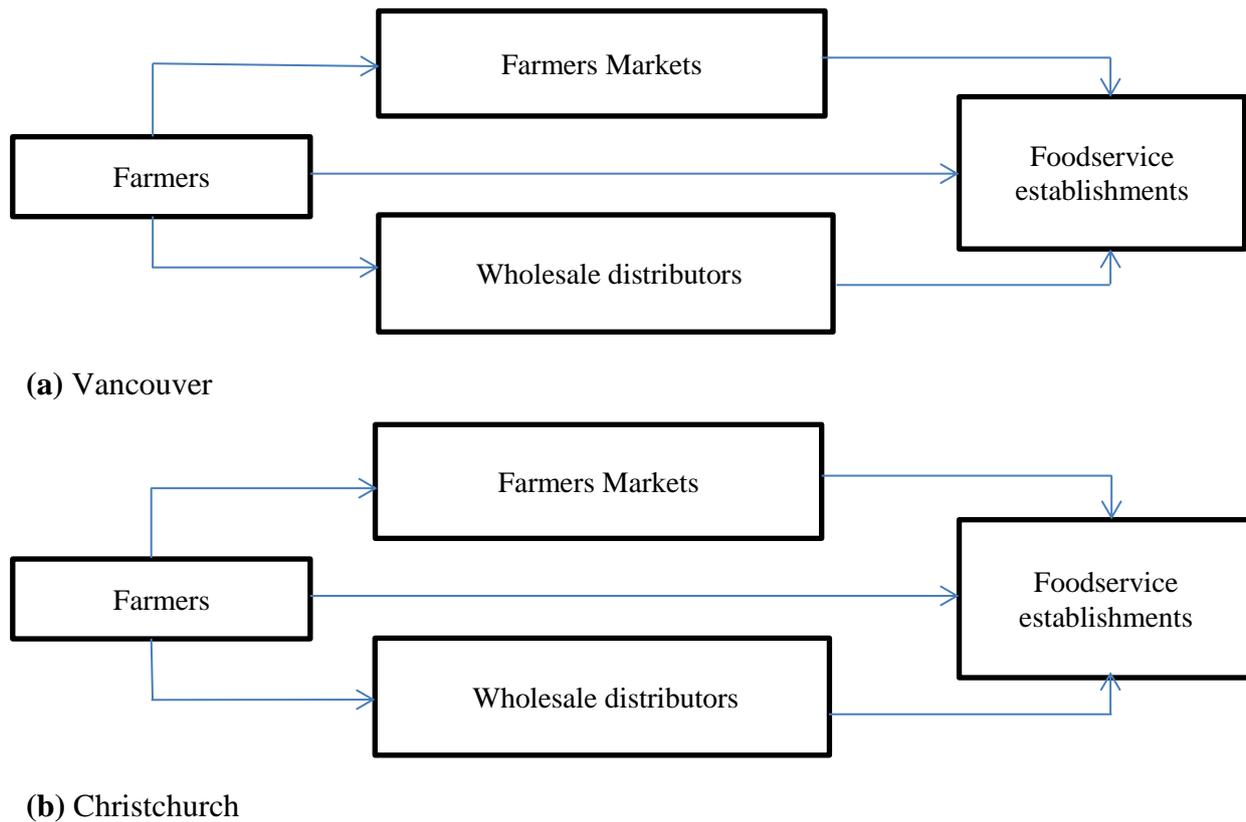


Figure 6.1. The foodservice establishment food supply chain for local food products (Source: Author).

6.1.3 Restaurants and chef definitions of “quality”

The majority of restaurant buyers prioritise quality first in purchasing and on the delivery of quality products to their customers. In the restaurant business food quality is one of the best means to maximize success (Namkung & Jang 2007). In this study, quality is more frequently defined in terms of “freshness”, “taste”, “appearance”, and “flavour” by the respondents in both regions. When choosing food products to purchase, most respondents (27 respondents in Vancouver and 28 respondents in Christchurch) claimed that they paid attention to food freshness and taste, as highlighted in the following statements:

To me when it comes to quality of the products, I consider the freshness, the appearance and of course the taste. We always do the tasting for the products. We taste the vegetables like carrots whether it is sweet or crunchy or tomatoes (Vancouver, R26).

Flavour is number one and then appearance (Vancouver, R27).

You know when I get vegetable just making sure that it is crispy and fresh. So you can say basically freshness is my quality absolutely (Christchurch, R59).

Two respondents from Vancouver also linked “quality” with a “production method” or “how products were grown” (Vancouver, R21 & R8). One respondent from Christchurch linked ‘quality’ with an “environmentally friendly production techniques” (Christchurch, R45). In addition, quality was defined by some participants in terms of price from both samples (Vancouver, R3 & R4 and Christchurch, R35 & R39). For example, one participant defined that “appearance, taste, and price is my quality of the products I buy” (Vancouver, R3).

The results indicate that for Christchurch respondents the “quality” definition is more on “freshness” than for Vancouver respondents. Several earlier studies (Sage 2003; Buller & Morris 2004; Van Rijswijk & Frewer 2008) emphasised that quality has multidimensional aspects, usually combining taste and culinary excellence, freshness, environmentally friendliness and healthy production techniques. In the present study, results indicate that some participants are more oriented towards “freshness” for food quality concerns, whereas for others “taste” represents their primary concern.

6.1.4 Perceived benefits of purchasing local food

When participants were asked about perceived benefits and/or motivations for purchasing local food products, the most commonly reported benefits of local food purchase in both samples were support to the local producers/farmers, support to the local economy/community/business, and fresher food products.

Support to local farmers

Previous research has shown that foodservice establishments’ primary reasons for purchasing local foods were to support local farmers/producers (e.g. FPC 2003). In the interviews, 21 participants (16 from Christchurch and five from Vancouver) identified the potential benefits of purchasing local food products to support their local farmers. However, the perceived motivations to support the local vendors/farmers were rated less important for Christchurch respondents than Vancouver respondents in the mail survey (see Table 5.8). Furthermore, supporting sustainable production practices often played a major role in respondent’s food purchasing practices. As one respondent’s from Christchurch sample commented:

The sustainability aspect of it, my concern, it is people who still looking after the land and caring for the land not just for putting cash on that because they get more money. So I want to support these people and encourage these people, to support these people because what these people are doing is really important for our landscape. Otherwise if our landscape is full of dairy that’s really bad for us and then it is really bad for the environment. So it is important to support these people and gather

these people to support too, so using it as educational tools. So you can say mainly for sustainability (R47).

Support to local economy/community/business

Benepe et al. (2002, p.53) stated that when foodservice establishments purchase food products from local farmers they create community “foodlinks” that strengthen the local community. In this study, eleven respondents (four from Vancouver and seven from Christchurch samples) frequently mentioned support to local economy/community/business as one of the key factors for purchasing local food products. The result has also been recognised as one of the leading perceived benefits and/or motivations for purchasing local food products from farmers/vendors at the farmers’ market in the mail survey with both groups of respondents (see Table 5.8). Purchasing foods from local producers/farmers supports the local economy, businesses, and community members, and provides a sense of community pride in many respondents from both samples:

Just supporting local business and the small growers and you know it gives you confidence of where the products are coming from, you know obviously how it’s been handled, and you can see how it is produced (Christchurch, R44).

I like the variety. I like to spread the money well. I like everybody have the share. We get more into the community to give it back (Vancouver, R3).

Another respondent from Christchurch also claimed that purchasing from local farmers is beneficial for them as they can keep money in the local region because the farmers eat at their restaurant.

It is sort of tying with whole local things like that and we are supporting to the local farmers. Lot of the farmers are bringing their family down here to eat so sort of that. They scratch my back so I also scratch on their back little bit (R59).

Fresher food products

Research has shown freshness as the most important reason foodservice establishments purchased locally (e.g. FPC 2003). In the interviews, fresher food products were the third most commonly reported benefits for purchasing local food products with both samples. The benefit/motivation to get fresher food products was shared by nine respondents in the interview process, while this was found to be the most leading reason why respondents decided to purchase from farmers market farmers/vendors in the mail survey with samples (see Table 5.8). It revealed that freshness was an important factor in purchasing decisions. Restaurants and chefs, regardless of their usage of local, reported a belief that local products tasted superior compared to items available elsewhere. As one chef affirmed:

It is around me and I don't need to go through and it is easy accessible for me to get the local food products from our locality. It is fresh and tasty.(Christchurch, R55).

Other four important reasons that emerged from both groups of respondents included: higher quality products, locally grown products, sustainable practices products, and reduced food miles.

6.1.5 Perceived barriers of purchasing local food products

Discussion with the participants revealed various barriers that they perceive as hindering them from purchasing from local sources. The most commonly reported perceived barriers were seasonality, price (cost of food products), and logistics of transportation and delivery in both samples. Also, other reported barriers were inconsistent quality products and time to be consumed to locate sources.

Seasonality

Local foods may be limited in their availability due to seasonal production schedules (FPC 2003; Starr et al. 2003; Mitchell & Hall 2003; Zdorovtsov et al. 2007; Inwood et al. 2009; Kang & Rajagopal 2014). In this study, the biggest barrier to local food purchase stated by respondents was seasonality. Seasonality has two facets: the seasonality of supply and the seasonality of demand. The seasonality of supply is associated with climate conditions that limit the availability of local produce. Respondents from both samples cited winter months as difficult times to source local food. However, most respondents (16 in Vancouver and 21 in Christchurch) were purchasing local food year round. Seasonality has also proven to be a problem from the demand side because most establishments require certain food products year round with certain volume:

Of course people like to have year round local produce. In case if it is meats that is much more easier but in case of fresh produce winter season is always a challenge so that kind of creates little bit of inconsistency with the people look forward to having local food produce or items of the month (Vancouver, R25).

Thirteen respondents from both samples referred to adapting their menu according to the variety and seasonality of supply available. For example, a respondent expressed the importance of adapting the menu from season to season:

[...] I have been here long enough to change the menu according to the seasonal availability of the local products. You do not push enough to put the Asparagus on the menu when you are not able to get that product. Like now oyster season is going on I will use that and then next Scallop season will start and I will start to put them on the menu. You know it is common sense. I am not going to put the Oyster for another six months when Oysters are not available. But now I do have Oyster the season at

this moment and I will bring small amount, I will just bring in three or four dozens, I would sell them and that could make my daily specials come on board (Christchurch, R39).

In other cases, participants adapted their menu to the fish species that were available on a given day but stressed their dissatisfaction with the product availability, with one stating:

No, sometimes you may find say for example when we specify fish species for example, New Zealand Salmon, we are an island but realistically on a daily basis you can't always get the specific species which is crazy but it's true you know. Yeah, I mean you can say salmon is available approximately 24 hours a day and 7 days in a week. You can say the same about mussels then you can say no, all of a certain they may bloom, all of a certain you cannot get them, so that is the reality (Christchurch, R34).

However, six respondents from both samples noted that proteins (meats) could be purchased all year round without difficulty. Interestingly, a respondent from Christchurch referred to the sense of adventure in dealing with seasonality issues with protein while aspiring to use local food:

It is there if the storms come and some of the protein stuffs we got only for few weeks like goats and again we need to wait for few months but I think that do not makes me a problem it makes me more interesting thing. So in fact I do not face any problem with the produces and with the proteins (R47).

Several Christchurch respondents stated that the solution to the decline in local food product availability during winter was to practice seasonal extension, including pickling and jam-making. This practice was mentioned by only one Vancouver respondent. However, some problems were identified with this strategy such as limited storage (Christchurch, R44 & R49); an issue also found in Taylor's (2009) study of restaurants in Portland, Oregon.

Price (cost of food products)

The second prominent theme with respect to barriers was the cost of food products. The potentially higher prices of local food may limit the quantity that a restaurant can purchase (Benepe et al. 2002; Starr et al. 2003; Woods et al. 2006; Curtis & Cowee 2009; Inwood et al. 2009; Reynolds-Allie & Fields 2012; Dougherty et al. 2013; Nilsson 2016). Thirteen respondents from Vancouver and seven respondents from Christchurch stated that prices of the food products were a major barrier in purchasing local foods. Price was similarly perceived as a barrier in the interview process as in the mail survey (see Table 5.16). However, in contrast to the mail survey, the interviews suggested that cost was not the determinative of purchasing decision for local food with the respondents who do not buy local food from the local sources (see Table B2 in Appendix B). Nevertheless, in line with some previous research (Schmit et al. 2010), restaurants in this study feel that prices requested by the farmers are generally too high relative to the costs

they can pass through to their customers. Likewise, the higher price of local food can discourage more prevalent use, as noted by one respondent:

Regarding price, see when certain prices goes up like lettuce goes up in a season then I try to stay away from salads for my menu and sorted out with something else (Vancouver, R24).

In another case a respondent expressed his dissatisfaction with some farmers who sell both at the farmers markets and to the restaurants, especially on the same day. As the respondent stated he views those farmers as trying to get higher prices from the farmers' market customers rather than the restaurant customers and not being willing to be part of his supply chain:

You know... I think just they are not willing to be flexible and be part of the restaurants whether they just do not produce the volume or it just not working to them because I cannot pay the price that they are going to advertise that at the market because I cannot sell that price. So, I think that is the main reason they keep the good products aside for the market customers rather than the restaurant customers. It also makes their life easy that they can bring their products in the market one day in a week and sell more (Vancouver, R23).

It is very hard to determine whether it is a typical occurrence or not, but Hinrichs (2000) found that while farmers markets can facilitate closer connections between consumers and farmers, the farmers desire for higher prices can discourage them from building community and external linkages. The price of local food is also more of an issue for some respondents than others:

Cost of food products somewhere along they are a little more expensive but obviously you get what you are paying for, right? You get better quality, you get better flavour, and you pay a premium price in my opinion. We're willing to pay that and then... (Vancouver, R7).

One respondent from Vancouver was also more concerned about farmer's fair price, as noted in the following quote:

The cost is always a question because prices go up and down and the delivery cost also they added with the products. And for the farmers price is also concern for me (R15).

Logistics of transportation and delivery

Logistics of transportation and/or delivery of the food products from farms and/or farmers markets were the third biggest barrier listed by the respondents and has been identified as a significant issue in the literature (Starr et al. 2003; FPC 2003; Strohbehn & Gregoire 2003; Zdorovtsov et al. 2007; Curtis et al. 2008; Curtis & Cowee 2009; Green & Dougherty 2009; Inwood et al. 2009; Schmit & Hadcock 2012; Dougherty et al. 2013). The findings of the interviews were in line with the data collected through the mail survey. The highest rated barriers in the mail survey of why respondents did not purchase local food from farmers' market vendors

were “do not offer delivery” in both samples (see Table 5.5). Nevertheless, in the interview process, only five respondents from Vancouver and four from Christchurch stated that the logistics of transportation and/or delivery of local food products were the obstacles they encounter when purchasing direct from farmers/vendors:

Transportation yeah of course you know that is a little more tricky for example one day of the week they deliver to us and the other day I have to personally go pick it up because delivery time is far too late and I need the product earlier on in the day (Vancouver, R7).

Normally all are good apart from the delivery. We always have trouble with the delivery. Just they come in different times. Even, though I have specified the time frame for me. I like to have my products before eleven o'clock and you know it is pointless when you get the products at 12:30 pm and at the same time we have the lunch gather in the restaurant and it is very inconvenient for me to check all the items received at that time (Christchurch, R53).

A respondent from Vancouver expressed that if the farm delivered their products to the restaurant, they would likely purchase more (Vancouver, R12). However, many respondents prefer to obtain their own foods from farmers' markets and would like to develop direct and personalised relationships with the farmers at the market and they think this relationship is important among them:

In the case of transportation as I said we go down to the market and bring down to the establishment. But if you have a good relationship with them then they definitely give you the priority and keep some stuff for you on the side (Vancouver, R25).

While self-pick up can work for some, others do not have the time or appropriate resources to obtain the products if they wished to. Moreover, most chefs are not able to pick up products either from farms or farmers' markets due to limited staffing in their restaurants. Time is critical when chefs come to the farmers' market. Consistent with previous literature (e.g. Wolf et al. 2005; Murphy 2011), respondents stated that they like spending their time shopping for products and socialising with the farmers/vendors, while they do not enjoy their time looking for parking (Vancouver, R10).

6.1.6 Importance of personal relationships with farmers/farmers' market vendors

Respondents identified personal relationships as a significant contributor to the positive experiences associated with interacting with local farmers. Restaurants and chefs value the personal relationships they have with their farmers because it allows them the flexibility to request certain food products. Balazs (2002) observed that chefs play a major role on how supplier relations are set up and noted that they travel around to find the best ingredients for their establishments and work to build strong long-term working relationships with particular

suppliers. Respondents in this study have also indicated the importance of interaction with farmers. Of the 31 interviewees in Vancouver, 14 respondents reported that they initiated their establishments' farm relationships; seven reported that farms initiated the relationship, and six reported that it was a joint effort. In Christchurch, of the 28 interviewees four respondents initiated their establishments' farm relationships, one respondent reported farms initiated the relationships, and three respondents reported by a joint effort.

Basically it works both ways. Sometimes I go to farmers' market and form new relationships with them like and they are attracted me through other chefs. Sometimes farmers do come at our restaurant back door and ask me whether I need the products or not, what they have (Vancouver, R15).

I go to the market and talk to the people. More I talk to the people more people I get connected and community grows around. So I initiated the relationship with them (Christchurch, R47).

Of the 31 interviewees in Vancouver, 26 respondents stated that they have established strong satisfactory personal relationships with their farmers, while in Christchurch, of the 28 interviewees, 10 respondents expressed similar views about farmers:

It's entirely about the relationship with the farmer. I spent the last since I have been in Vancouver ten or twelve years developing relationship with different farmers over the time to create a strong relationship to build to get. They came to me with their best stuffs and because we have been associated so many years and I am the first person come to and say these are available would you buy? Absolutely I buy it all. This relationship helps them and drives my menus. If they wouldn't come back to me every year I wouldn't have my menus (Vancouver, R19).

Some respondents had established good personal relationships with farmers which were conducive to meeting specific requirements:

I am really very satisfied. It is really nice to see how these relationships grows over the time and you know I can even go to Mr.[farmer's name] and say hey man can you try to grow me some purple potatoes and I would like to use some purple potatoes. Can you organise it or do that for me? And then he says yes! Sure why not and then sometimes he comes up with another idea and say hey! Look I have these for the week; I have these available, you want to use this you know... (Christchurch, R48)

The benefits and/or motivation for building personal relationship with farmers have been noted in earlier studies (FPC 2003; Starr et al 2003; Krieger 2006; Duran & Cawley 2012; Nilsson 2016). Personal relationships with farmers could correspond back to a finding in the mail survey that showed that restaurants and chefs emphasised the importance of personal relationships with vendors as their main reason for purchasing local foods (see Table 5.8).

Findings revealed that many respondents from both samples have developed trust and rapport with farmers through face-to-face interaction. This view agrees with the findings of Kirwan

(2004), reaffirming the trust that has built through face-to-face interaction between farmers/producers. Some respondents had established relationships over several years, through in a different place of their employment, with one stating:

[...] Just from working from restaurant to restaurant even before I was Executive Chef like you see them coming and delivering products into the kitchen and you go hey! How you're doing' right so you kind of get some introduction ... now that I'm in a position to get my own staff. I know exactly who they are. That's how I get to know them (Vancouver, R1).

6.1.7 Does personally knowing farmers/farmers' market vendors influence restaurants and chefs purchasing decisions?

28 respondents (23 interviewees from Vancouver and five interviewees from Christchurch samples) agreed that personally knowing their farmers did have an influence on their purchasing decisions (see also Hendrickson & Heffernan 2002; Smithers et al. 2008), 10 respondents regarded trust as one of the valuable attributes of their purchasing decisions:

Well as we know them so we keep going back to them. We trust their work and they will tell us if something good coming soon from what they grows you know it is big influence. If I have bad relationship then I am not going to buy from them. I am not going to trust exactly what they say. I trust exactly what the lady is growing if they can't they come down here and say chef I can't (Christchurch, R49).

In another case, a respondent indicated a willingness to pay more for produce due to the level of trust in the supplier:

A little bit, it definitely does, it does help in some other processes, I mean sometimes a farmer will come to you with a something like seems to you a little bit more expensive because of that relationship and trust is there, then you are little bit more willing to pay for that product without hesitation. So it is a trust thing for sure! You know you want to... they are doing the right thing and you are buying quality product from them and it does help (Vancouver, R8).

Well we like to continuing supporting them as their products are good quality and they always up to date with the new products what they have and when the products are coming in or which are going out of season that helps me to make the decision for the menu planning. These are the services in get from them and I am happy with that and that makes me keep purchasing from them (Christchurch, R50).

Other respondents acknowledged that purchasing decisions were influenced by product transparency:

When you are given the free access to their farm or to their orchards whatever you actually have a first-hand experience of what it takes to get their products to you. Definitely is a huge impact for me to purchase their product. It is transparent to me I mean when I can see exactly how the things are handled, there is nothing behind the scene. That really makes me to have the influence to purchase their items (Vancouver, R22)

Alongside these comments, a few respondents from both samples stated that personally knowing their farmer did not have an influence on their purchasing decisions.

In line with the above, 17 respondents (nine interviewees from Vancouver and eight interviewees from Christchurch samples) expressed that personally knowing their farmers (suppliers) also influenced their customer relationships as they could be more adaptable in accommodating their customer preferences:

I guess because it bit more of confidence when I am talking to the customers about where the products are coming from and offer bit more information so hopefully customer feel more confident about the product what we are selling to them (Vancouver, R23).

The need for education, flexibility and adaptability were also recognised in acknowledging customers' preferences by four respondents from Vancouver:

Because we know what is coming in the market or from the farmers' market vendors or farmers' we can talk to our customer. Like okay next week if you want this you can come back to get that. You know it gives us more flexibility in our menu and with our guests to introduce new items. So this way it makes good relationship with our customers (R26).

The findings are consistent with previous limited research in the hospitality context. For example, Brunetti (2009) found that restaurants in Vancouver considered the influence of personal knowledge of their supplier (farmers) to have an effect on their purchasing decisions in terms of trust, flexible pricing, delivery options, and quality of food products with the addition of being more flexible and adaptable to accommodate customer preferences.

6.1.8 Perceived benefits of purchasing local food products from wholesale distributors

In the interviews, respondents were asked about perceived benefits and/or motivations for purchasing local foods from distributors. The most commonly reported benefits were convenience in order process, price (good, cheap, and consistent), and consistency of products offered by the distributors in both samples.

Convenience

A common perceived benefit that has emerged from both samples was the convenience of using wholesalers. Convenience was cited as one of the main important factors in the supplier selection process in Christchurch respondents through the mail survey, while in Vancouver, it was ranked in eighth for the supplier selection process (see Table 5.25). The preference for convenience

among many of those interviewed was to purchase local foods from distributors in terms of on-time delivery, consistent quality, product variations, and one stop shopping:

Because of the convenience, you know your order is going to be on timely manner. You know they have a commitment and then quality will be checked and consistent. So couple of things in that area you are totally worry free on that side (Vancouver, R25).

Generally because they have lot of variety and I can go on their website and have a look anything that I want to bring up. So it is more convenient for me rather than going through with lot of different farmers for individual local products (Christchurch, R59)

Similarly, the benefits of using a single distributor was reported in one distributor interview as follows: “They can buy from one place. And I think we have bit of more consistency in our supply chain. Due to the consistency they know what they are going to get” (Christchurch, W11). Similar purchasing behaviour has also been identified in previous studies (Casselman 2003; Strohbahn & Gregoire 2003; Inwood et al. 2009; Duram & Cawley 2012 Pillay & Rogerson 2013).

In some cases, convenience in the form of direct delivery of foods also appeared to be a strong reason for several respondents from Vancouver (seven) to choose distributors delivering directly to their establishments backdoor. Similarly, Alonso & O’Neil (2010) found that convenience in delivery of the products was the main reason to purchase from large distributors among restaurants in Southern United States.

Price (good, cheap, and consistent)

Price was an important factor that emerged as the second prominent theme for the foodservice establishments. Many foodservice establishments depend on large distributors for their products and these firms are able to give assurances to keep their prices low through volume. In this study the respondents in the interview process also indicated that an important aspect of purchasing from the distributors was to receive good prices. In line with the existing literature (Danenberg & Remaud 2010; Lawley & Howieson 2015), price was regarded as one of the benefits of purchasing local foods from distributors to their business:

The reason being the prices are more constant and consistent over a period of time (Vancouver, R21).

Better pricing, easy delivery, and easy payment options, there are lot of advantages (Vancouver, R28).

Price also emerged as an important factor for both samples in the supplier selection process (see Table 5.25). The restaurants and chefs interviewed see the prices of food products as a barrier for adoption of local food products from local farmers. This finding is in line with past research that

highlighted how higher price can positively influence a chef's preference to utilise a distributor than a local farmer in their food purchasing decision (Goss 2007; Duram & Cawley 2012).

Consistency of product supply

Consistency of products from wholesale distributors was the third biggest benefit cited by respondents. Consistency of product supply is a critical business function for many food service establishments. Many local farmers are not able to meet that requirement. In contrast, local distributors are able to give assurances of consistent supply of products to the foodservice establishments by sourcing regionally from different individual farmers. For example, Danenberg and Remaud (2010) reported that the consistency of supply of seafood was one of the key reasons for purchasing from wholesalers in South Australia. In the interviews, many respondents have stated that consistency of product supply is important for their operations:

[...] consistency of the supply of the products I require for our restaurant is very important for and that can be met only by the different wholesalers and also I should mention that we are a big restaurant and do not have time for the farmers' market or seek the products direct from the farms (Christchurch, R40).

Besides convenience, price, and consistency of products, past negative experiences with a local organic food warehouse with their minimum order restriction was also behind the motives for another respondent from Vancouver for engaging with local distributors:

The reason I prefer to buy from wholesaler or distributor is the logistics of it. I was buying organic products from a warehouse that will bring in all those produce from the different local farmers. After doing this with them for couple of years their business grew and they couldn't accommodate my small order. So they would have a minimum order and I could not possibly accommodate that. So I have to go through a distributor. And it's small produce distributor but still a distributor and that is feasible for my business (R6).

This comment supports the literature which stated that one of the key motivations of using a distributor was being able to order a lower volume of food products when needed (Inwood et al. 2009).

Furthermore, in keeping with previous research (Inwood et al. 2009; Murphy & Smith 2009; Danenberg & Remaud 2010; Duram & Cawley 2012; Lawley & Howieson 2015), many establishments value personal relationships with their distributors and that was another key motivation for preferring distributors:

Because we have a good relationship, they give us good quality products, good prices, and consistency of the products, these are really important to me (Christchurch, R42).

Most responding foodservice establishments have employed multiple distributors and many reported longstanding relationships with their distributors who delivered consistent products. Therefore, many were hesitant to switch distributors. The preference among many of those interviewed was to purchase local foods from distributors who guarantee supply:

The volume we use. They can guarantee the volume lot better and more consistent. The problem is if I have to go, you see my ordering sheet like thousands of products if I have to go two or three things for every different farmers and that's the reason. By this way it saves my time also (Vancouver, R27).

Similarly, another respondent stated that his shift from local farmers to wholesalers was due to the requirement of volume (see also Danenberg & Remaud 2010):

I actually only prefer to buy from local growers but something for us we cannot get or not the amount you need sometimes I mean the volume, then we have to go to the Wholesalers (Christchurch, R48).

Local food advocates argue that food purchased from local farmers offers fewer opportunities for contamination in storage, aggregation of products and transportation due to the shorter supply chain. When local distributors are purchasing directly from local farmers they do their own due diligence of facilities and operations by visiting farms and meeting farmers (Markley, Kalb & Gustafson 2010). The interview process also found a small group of interviewees who only purchase products from distributors because of health and food safety concerns. The finding is consistent with results of the mail survey in that food safety assurances received through the supplier was the top most priority in the supplier selection process in both samples (see Table 5.25) (see also Inwood et al. 2009).

6.1.9 Perceived barriers to purchasing local food products from wholesale distributors

Most respondents declared that convenience, price, and consistency of the products were important motivations for purchasing local foods from distributors. However, qualitative responses offered by interviewees disclose several other barriers with regards to their choice of distributor, including inconsistent quality of products, on-time delivery of orders, and price fluctuations.

Inconsistent quality of products

The inconsistent quality of products from distributors was noted by nine respondents from Vancouver. Interestingly, this concern was not mentioned by any respondents in Christchurch. In the interviews, respondents indicated that consistent quality of products is an important aspect of

restaurant supply from distributors but this aspect is preventing greater purchase. It should be noted that this issue is a mirror of previous foodservice studies (Woods et al. 2006; Curtis & Cowee 2009) concerning the problems of sourcing foods from local suppliers.

On-time delivery of orders/ ability to meet delivery deadlines

On-time delivery of orders was a significant barrier for both groups of respondents (see Table 5.25) and has been identified in previous foodservice studies (Strohbehn & Gregoire 2003; Woods et al. 2006; Casselman 2010). In the discussion, several respondents were dissatisfied with the timely delivery of orders to them. Respondents from Christchurch (five respondents) expressed more dissatisfaction on factors related to on-time delivery than Vancouver respondents (three respondents). However, this view was clearly not shared by all respondents.

Price fluctuation

The potential higher price of local food is reflected on menu price and may serve as a barrier to usage, but some respondents believed that their customers would be willing to pay more and offset those prices. Five respondents from Christchurch and three respondents from Vancouver stated that price fluctuation was a challenge in using local foods from distributors. In addition, some respondents from both samples were dissatisfied with the service offered by their distributors in terms of speciality/exclusive products, limited range of products, wrong delivery of the products, and product shortage information; however they still work with these distributors:

Sometimes there is quite a limit on the products of what they can offer you because we are not directly dealing with the people who grow it, it's like a lack of information for example during the summer time we are running a special for Asparagus and all of a sudden it is not available and they do not inform us and that does affect us (Christchurch, R43).

We deal with one of the organic produce supplier and the biggest challenges we have with them is their inability to convey their shortages to us. I mean the farmers can tell me when they are going to have shortage. Why they can't figure this out and consistently they will say well the truck came in today was not the longer truck but they loaded the truck (Vancouver, R14).

Reimbursements, Incentives or Subsidies

Interviewee respondents were also asked about the kinds of reimbursements, incentives or subsidies they receive that influence their sourcing and purchasing decisions from distributors. The most commonly received incentive was bulk discounts (discounts for respondents who committed to purchase sizable quantities of products either at one time or over the course of a contract period) with 15 respondents receiving these discounts for volume purchasing from their distributors in Vancouver, and 13 respondents in Christchurch.

Purchasing contracts (Policies)

Current literature indicated that many foodservice establishments, especially institutions have contracts that may require them to make the most of their purchases from a limited number of distributors (Enshayan 2005). This research witnessed this in practice. However, only five respondents from Christchurch indicated that they do have written purchasing contracts with their distributors and this did affect their interest in purchasing decisions from local farmers, while none of the respondents from Vancouver have written purchasing contracts with their distributors. Respondents with written contracts with their distributors did so to stabilise the prices of the products and did not have the flexibility to change their distributors during the contract period. Other participants (23 from Christchurch and 29 from Vancouver) stated that they do not have any formal written contracts with their distributors and have the flexibility for changing their distributors at any time. Two respondents from Vancouver stated that previously they used to carry the written contracts with their distributors but do not carry anymore because their choice was restricted by the written contracts:

The contract doesn't give us a flexibility to do purchasing other items from other distributors. For example under contract we do not get green onions always good quality. And that is the reason I have avoided to have contract with them (R15).

In sum, the results indicate a preference for the distributors who are able to efficiently and consistently provide some amount of local food products for their establishments. Foodservice establishments are normally familiar working with a set of distributors but not with a range of farmers/producers.

6.1.10 Local food promotions to restaurant customers

Participants were asked to describe how they communicate the use of local food products to their customers and to what extent they purposefully get engaged in activities to educate, inform, and elicit customer attention on local foods. Interview data revealed that wait staff, menu descriptions, and other means of communication tools are utilised commonly to promote local foods to customers by respondents.

Communication via wait staff

In general restaurant guests have more direct contact with the wait staff than kitchen staff. Chefs and restaurants recognise that their wait staff play an important role in the dining experience. Wait staff can also play a critical role in educating guests about local foods and encourage them

for more consumption (Mentzer et al. 2001; Pratten 2003). The respondents in this research also indicated that wait staff were an important communication tool.

Respondents were asked whether their wait staffs are knowledgeable as to how the restaurant accesses local ingredients. In Vancouver, 28 out of 31 respondents and in Christchurch, 17 out of 28 respondents stated that their wait staff are knowledgeable about the sources of ingredients. The finding is also consistent with results of the mail survey (see Table 5.31). The following is a sample of statements that reflected the respondents' views on the wait staff's knowledge of restaurant local food ingredients:

Yes they are. Because we do that on a weekly meeting with the staffs and we let them know say for example our organic eggs are coming from where, how we get it and what are the price differences and how can you tell the customer it is benefitted to them (Vancouver, R16).

Of course you have to tell them. You have to teach them and you have to explain them as that comes from here that comes from there and so on. That is grown like this, this is this but they are very interested in these aspects. They are the ones who see customers first and talk to the customers first. So our front staffs are interested in it I mean about the local food that we use here. So, in my experience they are knowledgeable (Christchurch, R48).

In another case, a respondent from Vancouver stated that he spent a lot of time with his wait staff in order to make their job more rewarding:

Here, yes. I mean every restaurant is different but... the restaurant, this restaurant particularly, are knowledgeable because I spent a lot of time with them and I tell them like you know and they see the produce coming through the backdoor through the receiving end and they'll be just ...they'll be taking pictures of it oh yeah this looks very nice and so they are knowledgeable to a certain degree (R1).

A respondent from Christchurch stated that having staff familiar with ingredients will help provide more personalised service to their customers:

[...] at the end of the day they need to explain to the customer. They need to understand the products, they explain and they sometime add little bit more language to touch and make customer wants to buy it. You know that's my concept. Like provide the personalized service to the guests (R55).

Another respondent choose to involve all of his kitchen staff along with the wait staff to provide personalised service to their customers:

We rely on the whole team. It is an experience to coming to [restaurant's name] for the guests. Lot of them coming here to eat and have the experience of local food. We educate, we teach, we try to interact with them as much as possible. We, all kitchen staff, are also involved in serving the food. So for us it is important to have those interactions with the guests. They will come to know the information from me. They can get the first hand products from me. I bought the products; I prepare the food with my team and then take that to the guests. It is one of the good ways to showcase my

whole team and the guests appraise that and love to see that. You know you are giving some personal touch base to your guests and that is they appreciate. It is amazing you know (Christchurch, R49).

However, some special challenges with seasonal (part-time) staff were shared by some respondents from Christchurch. Many foodservice establishments in New Zealand hire students as part-time wait staff. Many students take the restaurant job as a second job or as a summer job and respondents claimed that therefore wait staff often have a lack of passion and interest for their job (Christchurch, R33 & R54). Staff turnover was often cited as a problem. One respondent even expressed concern that the casual wait staffs were becoming a nuisance.

[...] some of the casual waiters may be not knowledgeable like my managers, they know. Most of guys who manage the restaurant they know about it and they know what exactly going on. Well, sometimes front of the staff can even bullshit about it a little bit, I don't like the waiter who would stand and say I don't know (Christchurch, R34).

A large number of respondents from both samples (31 respondents in Vancouver and 25 in Christchurch) also acknowledged that many customers want to know the origin of the ingredients:

Again, people want to know what they are eating. They want to know what's behind it. This era of everyone can find out and know anything about anything, people want to know. They want to know where the product has come from. They want to know what they put in their mouth, what they feed their family right? There's many way to produce food. There's many good ways. But there are ways that are better. And people want the best. They want the best for the dollar right (Vancouver, R2).

They want to have more transparency and they want to know what they are eating (Christchurch, R46).

In contrast, other respondents suggested that their customers were more concerned about the “in-products” (Christchurch, R42) than the source of ingredients. Or as R13 (Vancouver) put it, “they just want to know what they are eating.”

In the interviews most respondents thought that wait staff training was important in the promotion of local food to their customers as training helps ensure effective promotion of local foods (or beverages) at restaurants (Inwood et al. 2009; Dombrosky 2012). In the mail survey, educating employees about local food products/ingredients was the highest rated communication tool used by Vancouver respondents, and the fifth most important communication tool used in Christchurch (see Table 5.31). In practice, many customers at the restaurants rely on wait staff to select special or specific menu items for them or wanted to know what their favourite items have been. In many foodservice establishments wait staff training is left to the restaurant management or food and beverage department. But in many cases chefs (especially in independent types of

foodservice establishments) are the key person who makes the decisions to purchase local foods and customise the daily menus (Sharma et al. 2012).

Many respondents (30 in Vancouver and 27 in Christchurch) stated that training is an on-going process and involves weekly team meetings and menu tasting sessions. During these meetings and menu tasting sessions wait staff will learn about the particular menu items and what they are serving. Some respondents (22 in Vancouver and five in Christchurch) also made an effort to educate their entire staff on where the food products come from and the agricultural practices of farms by having staff visit farms.

Absolutely! I think it's just as important to me just see somebody's operation as would be if a client wanted to see my walk-in cooler, of course, I would like to. Yah absolutely, I don't think that there is any reason that they have anything to hide and if they do and not being honest with me I do not want that relationship with them anyway (Vancouver, R8).

However, many respondents also indicated that they were unable to visit farms due to time constraints.

Communication via menu descriptions

Menus are an important non-verbal communication tool and supported by previous studies (FPC 2003; Inwood et al. 2009; Murphy & Smith 2009; Schmit et al. 2010; Duram & Cawley 2012; Dougherty et al. 2013). Foodservice establishments use menus for point of purchase promotions to encourage and guide their customers to specific menu items (Panitz 2000). In the mail survey "menu" has cited as the second most important communication tool in Christchurch respondents while, this aspect was ranked sixth place in Vancouver respondents. In general, foodservice establishments use the menu to highlight the specific ingredients, farmers/producers name, and the method of cooking. 29 respondents from Vancouver and 21 respondents from Christchurch supported the notion of highlighting producers/farmers names on their menus when appropriate. In addition, respondents also indicated that highlighting the producers name on the menu not only promoted the producers but also promoted the region as well. Furthermore, some respondents that highlighted the producers name in the menu indicated the preference for helping the local producers/farmers:

Absolutely I think it is very good opportunity to help my producers when I talked to customers hey! This is from [farm's name]; this is beautiful try it and if you want to buy it, please come to the farmers' market at Riccarton (Christchurch, R48).

Many respondents felt identifying producers names on the menu actually reassured their customers about the origin of their food as many customers want to know the origin of the foods they are eating at restaurants. As one respondent commented:

People want to know the source of the products. Many of my customers I would say for example for Salmon, they want to know the Salmon from the sea or not? I specify that and ask and then people go for that (Vancouver, R30).

Another respondent expressed that mentioning his farmers/producers name on the menu tells his customers that he has taken the time to visit the farm and built up the relationship with the farmers which would enhance the dining experience:

Definitely, for the people that know, for the people that are interested, they want.... not everyone's into it. But for the people that are, they want to know, they want to know the story. They want to know [farm's name] in Chilliwack. They want to know those people. This is where the pork comes from? Ok, perfect. It doesn't come from a big factory in the middle of Arkansas, some generic utility grade pork. They want to know ok, this is locally produced. I can go and see. I can roam the field. I can shake the hand of the people behind it, right? And so forth and so on (Vancouver, R2).

Several respondents believe highlighting a producer's name would enable producer to sell more people and other restaurants:

Absolutely! Because they get more traffic through their farm, they get more chefs involvement from this like hey who is using on these? I went to this guy's restaurant today he is using Canadian Chick peas, oh! Where he is getting it from and I am going to try and find out some of that (Vancouver, R8).

Similarly, another respondent indicated that farmers/producers benefited from having their name on the menu through greater sales and name recognition, noting:

Oh! Absolutely I mean it's interesting for watching from retail perspective more than from restaurant perspective. But how many businesses we help to grow into big viable business like [farm's name] farm and Winery in Langley start a small business at the beginning and they are now exporting around the world. So we definitely watching some of these guys grow up. On the counter side we also watch lot of our most successful business (Vancouver, R4).

However, the same respondent stated that, in some cases, farmers/producers could not handle the influx of business and only certain farmers/producers can actually benefit from being highlighted on the menu:

We also watch away from the business as they pulled out their products because this is what I want. I want to give a small artisan farm produces and now this is a business and I do not want to do this and then literally one of our biggest suppliers and most successful supplier ever had just walked away from their entire business because they do not want to do anymore (R4).

Interestingly, one respondent felt that their customers already know the farmers/producers name and therefore they do not put their name on the menu as they believed it will not bring more customers at his restaurant:

On our web site there is more specific information about whom we work with. Our clientele has already secured that way that so I cannot say that we can drive more people towards my direction (Vancouver, R14).

While menus were commonly used to highlight the producers' name, a respondent from Vancouver was reluctant or cautious about mentioning the producer's name on the menu due to the limitation of some ingredients or foods with supply consistency. In practice, restaurants do not want to put the products name or advertise these ingredients on pre-printed or static menus if the products are not available all the time. Thus, for seasonal products, restaurants prefer to put them on daily or weekly menus:

[...] for certain product like Salmon we get weekly and we get year round. So I have a menu saying local BC Salmon otherwise which supplies or which product is not year round I can't put that on my regular menu because I am not sure I am going to get the product for year round or not. If it is possible I would do that. And I do it for my Salmon and I can do it for some products locally which are seasonal and available at that time and it helps for the people (R30).

Communication via other means

Beyond the wait staff and menu as communication tools, thirteen respondents (eight from Vancouver and five from Christchurch) referred to having a Facebook site and/or a website. Another respondent from Vancouver promoted local food as a part of a cooking show on television. Other measures include having temporary special flyers, banners, or an erasable black/chalk boards to attract passer-by's into the restaurants. This marketing strategy has the advantage of "appealing to regular customers who might be attracted to unique and new items" (Inwood et al. 2009, p.185). Another benefit of highlighting local food as a special in different flexible communication tools is that particular menu items are in season and potentially attracting even more customers into the restaurants.

6.1.11 Local foods and Culinary Tourism

Respondents view culinary tourism as a growing trend in the restaurant industry because interest in tasting local food ingredients is an increasingly important aspect of the food experience for visitors. They mentioned that eating local food is really an exciting experience for visitors. The respondents thought that tasting local food is one way to learn and understand about local culture. Statements related to this theme defined culinary tourism and respondents understood

the impact that culinary tourism has on their establishments. When it came to defining what culinary tourism was, the respondents had a broad range of viewpoints. Definitions offered by respondents across both groups tended to be based either on geographical criteria, such as products made within the region or on the symbolic qualities of particular products that were considered ‘typical/or uniqueness’ of the places and cultures that produced them.

Several respondents (16 respondents from each sample) conceptualised culinary tourism based as of products ‘made’ in the region:

People going somewhere for to try a product from a source and where it’s grown and that’s essentially what it is. Product could be local food, local beer or it could be local wine, could be cheese, and could be whatever (Vancouver, R27).

To me culinary tourism means trying various kinds’ food products to eat in a different geographical area. (Vancouver, R16).

Other respondents (eight from Vancouver and six from Christchurch) viewed culinary tourism as symbolic of a region and providing an insight into the places and cultures that were being visited. The perspectives on culinary tourism are supported by previous studies (Hall & Mitchell 2001; Long 2004). For example, Culinary Tourism in Ontario proposed that their definition of culinary tourism be:

“Culinary tourism includes any tourism experience in which one learns about, appreciates, and/or consumes food and drink that reflects the local, regional, and national cuisine, heritage, culture, tradition, or culinary techniques” (Ministry of Tourism 2005, p.12).

Three respondents from Vancouver mentioned that culinary tourism also includes events that are associated with farm or farmers’ market visits:

I think that culinary tourism obviously you need to be promoting locally grown sustainable products, right? Go to different whether it’s farms, or wineries you know, or restaurants but making sure that those establishments are really promoting where the food is coming from knowing the product and knowing that it’s coming from a local place (R7).

This is consistent with that of the Canadian Tourism Commission (2002), which suggested that culinary tourism is not only associated with eating and drinking, but could be an event that ranges from food festivals to farm visits. In further discussion, 30 respondents from Vancouver and 21 respondents from Christchurch stated that local food ingredients are very important to the culinary tourism experience:

It’s a huge important absolutely I mean certain areas for certain things I will use the example of Vancouver, Vancouver known for Salmon fish. People come here to taste our Salmon in Vancouver.

More over people come here for fishing trip from thousands of miles away, other side of the earth even though they might not be purposely here as a culinary tourist but they are still after something that is culinary importance. So that means local ingredients have huge impact in culinary tourism (Vancouver, R22).

I think it is huge. Suppose you are going to experience the local food and hospitality and so if you are going to do that for example if you are in Kaikoura you are not going to be having some Atlantic lobster from Canada obviously instead you are going to be having Kaikoura Cray fish so I think definitely it is important. You are going to be using the local definitely. 100% needs to be but as much as you can get. And the main ingredients would be local definitely (Christchurch, R38).

In contrast, a respondent from Vancouver (R9) stated that there might be some relevance of culinary tourism for his establishment but he was not aware of its importance. One respondent from Vancouver (R31) asserted that culinary tourism is the focal point of the success of his business. In addition to these, a majority of respondents (27 from Vancouver and 22 from Christchurch) also noted that their establishments could be considered to be culinary tourism destinations.

I think so. For example now this is Bluff Oyster season which is local and we are using in our menu and we are advertising it on the board at the outside. Although we are a Thai restaurant but we are using all the ingredients from local as much as we can. So I think my establishment is one of the places where people can have culinary tourism experiences (Christchurch, R38).

6.1.12 Future prospects of purchasing local food products

Respondents were asked about their future plans of purchasing local food products from farmers and farmers' market vendors, and/or wholesale distributors. Both Vancouver and Christchurch respondents were interested in increasing (25 and 15 respondents of the respective samples) the amount of food they source locally than staying with about the same amount of food they source locally (six and 14 respondents of the respective samples). In addition, the respondents who were interested in increasing the amount of local food were asked to what extent they would increase purchase of local food products. Product availability and customer demands were mainly cited by respondents that expressed an interest in increasing the amount of purchase of local food products. Six respondents in Vancouver expressed an interest in increasing the amount of food purchases if the price were better. Interestingly, none of the respondents from Christchurch indicated any concerns with the prices of local food products.

Besides, product availability, customer demands, and better prices, several respondents from both samples indicated that to increase their purchase of local food products one or more of the following would need to exist: more support for local farmers and community, convenience, unique/speciality products, larger variety and volume of products, better logistics and delivery, and availability of sustainable, ethical, and organic products.

Earlier studies found that foodservice establishments would increase their purchase of local food products if there were a larger variety of products available in their area and better logistics and delivery systems were in place (FPC 2003). However, this study found respondents were relatively concerned with other aspects such as support local farmers and community, convenience, unique/speciality products, and availability of sustainable, ethical, and organic products in increasing the proportion of local food products in their purchasing.

In Christchurch, respondents stated that they would purchase greater amounts of local food products directly from local farmers and/or farmers' market vendors if conditions of product availability and opportunity were met. However, the desire for increased amounts of local food products were not shared by all respondents. One Christchurch respondent stated:

I think at this moment we probably stay at the same amount of food we source from local. The reason behind is the consistency of the amount I am using now. We have only one restaurant at this moment may the volume will be bigger when we have couple of restaurants. So for now we are keeping it consistency for what we want (R40).

In further discussion, participants were asked if they had any future plans of increasing, decreasing or staying about the same number of farmers and farmers' market vendors, and/or wholesalers they want to work with. In Vancouver, 19 respondents expect to increase the number of farmers and farmers' market vendors, and/or wholesalers they purchase from, while ten respondents stated they would stay constant. For Christchurch, trends were different, with 12 respondents reporting constant growth of farmers and farmers market vendors, and/or wholesalers numbers while, 21 respondents reported staying about the same. The results are reinforced by the expected change in number of farmers and farmers' market vendors in the mail survey (see Chapter five). Respondents from both samples have indicated that to increase number of farmers and farmers' market vendors, and/or wholesalers one or more of the following would need to exist: larger variety and volume of products, availability of new products, better prices, products availability, fresher ingredients, and support local economy.

Maintaining good relationships with local farmers and farmers' market vendors, and wholesalers without changing them, were also noted as a factor in not changing levels of local food purchase:

It will stay about the same because I will try most of my relationship keep steady with them. Very few things I will purchase from market but I am not going to purchase from out of my farmer relationship (Vancouver, R14).

In some cases working with fewer suppliers (the farmers and farmers' market vendors, and wholesale distributors) rather than multiple suppliers was regarded as a positive. As one respondent commented:

Well I do not like to have too many suppliers to work with me. The reason is that too much of paper work and too much of logistics, too much of payment going through, and too many papers to follow. If I have reliable three or four farmers for different things like total I would like to stick with them so I have less people to call or less people to follow up my orders and that saves my time and energy. Down the road I may cut one or two farmers also to decrease the number to avoid my specified barriers (Vancouver, R30).

Convenience in the form of dealing with a large wholesaler also appeared to be a strong reason to maintain local purchase levels as they are for a Christchurch respondent:

I guess we stay the same because we generally use one big wholesaler and I think we couldn't get away not to using the middle wholesalers. I think why do we need jump on board? When a big wholesalers can provide us for all we need. We use [wholesaler's name] and I think [wholesaler's name] is enough for us and they have everything what we need for our restaurant and you cannot beat them. They are convenient for me and they never lie to me and we have established a good relationship with them so. And also lack of genuine competition among the wholesaler market (R45).

6.2 Chapter Summary

This chapter has discussed the results of the interviews conducted with restaurants and chefs in Vancouver and Christchurch. Alongside Chapter Five, this chapter contributed to the objectives of this thesis to examine the restaurants and chefs' perceptions, motivations, barriers and constraints of buying and promoting local food ingredients on their menus. This chapter has found that restaurants and chefs definition of 'quality' is based in terms of "freshness" and "taste" in both regions.

The respondents highlighted several barriers to participating in the local food system. Similar to other studies, respondents from both samples noted seasonality, price of the food products, and logistics of transportation and delivery as the main barriers to buying locally. In spite of the barriers, there was overwhelming support for locally sourced foods. Respondents from both samples described social, economic, and ethical reasons for participating in local food chains. The major reasons that emerged included: fresher food products, strengthening the local economy/community/business, supporting the local farmers, higher quality, locally grown products, and building personal relationships with farmers.

Respondents' satisfaction with wholesale distributors was highlighted. Buying local products through wholesale distributors were viewed as beneficial among the respondents in both samples. The most common reasons were consistently cited: convenience in order process, price (good/cheap and consistent), and consistency of product supply. Barriers of sourcing from distributors were inconsistent quality of products, on-time delivery of orders, and price fluctuation. However, price fluctuation was unique to this study that was not cited as a barrier in any of the examined wholesale distributors' studies.

The findings indicated that there was a broad range of viewpoints among the respondents from both samples in terms of a culinary tourism definition. Definitions are based either on geographical criteria or on the symbolic qualities of the products. It was found that respondents believed local food has an important role to play in the culinary tourism experience. The respondents also asserted that culinary tourism is the focal point of their businesses.

Consistent with previous studies, this research found that restaurants and chefs have taken on responsibility to educate their staff about local food products. Respondents also indicated that wait staff, menu descriptions, and other communication tools were important for communicating information about local foods to their customers in both samples. However, the study also found frustrations among the Christchurch respondents with seasonal staff towards the lack of passion and interest in their jobs. Most importantly, despite the several barriers identified by the respondents in both samples, the results indicated that many respondents expect to increase their purchasing of different local food products in the future.

Overall, the semi-structured interviews provided relatively consistent findings with those of the mail survey and thus reinforced the trustworthiness of this research. Now the next chapter will discuss the research findings from the farmers and farmers' market vendors and wholesalers.

CHAPTER SEVEN

Results: Farmers and/or Farmers' Market Vendors and Wholesale Distributors (Distributors) Interviews

7.0 Introduction

To achieve the research objectives stated in Chapter One, the semi-structured interviews with farmers and/or farmers' market vendors, and distributors were conducted after the restaurant and chef interviews were completed. The intention of these interviews was to explore perceptions, motivations, barriers and constraints to working with restaurants and chefs in Vancouver and Christchurch. The results and discussions are presented in two sections: farmers and farmers' market vendors, and wholesale distributors. Each section starts with a description of the interviewee selection process, followed by the profile of participants and the discussion of the emergent themes from the interview questions. The emergent themes from interviews are presented and accompanied by selected quotes to further demonstrate their significance and context. Throughout this chapter, the findings are analysed with reference to the relevant literature outlined in Chapters Two and Three.

7.1 Farmers and/or Farmers' Market Vendors

7.1.1 Interviewee selection

The farmers and/or farmers' market vendors' interviews were undertaken after the restaurant interviews were completed. Restaurants and chefs were asked who they source for their local food products and what farms they would recommend for an interview. Interviewed farms included 10 farmers-owners, one farmer-sales co-ordinator, and a farmer-distribution co-ordinator from Vancouver (in that nine identified themselves as farmers' market vendors as well) and eight farmers-owners from Christchurch (in that seven identified themselves as farmers' market vendors) who sold food to local restaurants. Semi-structured interviews were conducted with all of these respondents from both samples. Details of the interviewees are given below.

7.1.2 Interview respondents' profiles

Table 7.1 summarises a demographic description of the interviewees from Vancouver and Christchurch. The Vancouver sample consisted of 50% (six) male and 50% (six) female

participants, while all the interviewees (eight) from Christchurch were male. Length of living in the region ranged from four years to 43 years for Vancouver participants with an average of 17.92 years of farming experience, while nine years to 56 years was the range for the Christchurch participants with an average of 15.88 years of farming experience.

Table 7.1 Demographics of respondents: Farmers and/or Farmers’ market vendors

City (Country)	Vancouver (Canada)	Christchurch (New Zealand)
No. of respondents	12	8
Gender	Male: 50% (6) Female: 50% (6)	Male: 100% (8)
Position of interviewee	Farmer-Owner: 83.33% (10) Farmer-sales-co-ordinator: 8.33% (1) Farmer-distribution co-ordinator: 8.33% (1)	Farmer-Owner: 100% (8)
Farming status	Fulltime: 100%	Fulltime: 100%
Years living in the region	Minimum: Four years Maximum: 43 years	Minimum: Nine years Maximum: 56 years
Years of farming experience	Average: 17.92 years Minimum: one Maximum: 40 years	Average: 15.88 years Minimum: four Maximum: 31
Main product	Vegetables, fresh herbs, salad greens, fruits, and free range turkey	Vegetables, fresh herbs, lettuces, salad greens, fruits, free range chicken, eggs, and free range pork
Value added products	Sausages	Salamis and pork liver pâtés, mesclin mix salad
Production techniques	Certified organic, non-certified-organic, biodynamic	Certified organic, non-certified-organic, integrated pest management (IPM), and conventional
Average percent of total farm sales by market channel	Restaurants: 30% Farmers’ market: 30.83% Distributors: 25.83% Others: 5%	Restaurants: 32.38% Farmers’ market: 23.37% Distributors: 26.63% Others: 16.76%
Arable land in acres	Average: 14.63 Range: 1-76	Average: 15.25 Range: 3-50

Seven of the 12 farms cultivated eight acres or less in the Vancouver sample. In Christchurch, two of the eight farms cultivated five acres or less. Seven Vancouver participants were certified organic while three participants were certified organic growers in Christchurch. One of the 12 participants from Vancouver raised certified organic livestock and two of the eight participants from Christchurch raised livestock. About 42% of the farms used some form of sustainable farming technique (e.g. IPM, organic) in Vancouver and about 37% in Christchurch. One participant from Vancouver and two participants from Christchurch produced value-added products and sold directly to local restaurants.

The interviews revealed the type of marketing channel used by participants in both samples. There was a similarity in that for both groups of respondents, restaurants were a most popular

choice, followed by farmers' markets, and distributors. Farms utilised few distributors to market the products, as utilising distributors is often criticised by the farmers due to the lower average product prices. However, 25% of the respondents used roadside farm stands in Christchurch, compared with only 8.33% of respondents in Vancouver. The average percent of total farm sales was 30% through restaurants, followed by 30.83% with farmers' markets, 25.83% with distributors, and 5% with others in the Vancouver sample. While in Christchurch, 32.38% with restaurants, followed by 23.37% with farmers' markets, 26.63% with distributors, and 16.76% with others.

Many farms sell food products directly to restaurants via personal deliveries or at farmers markets in both samples. Some farms also sell both at the farmers markets and to restaurants on the same day. Nine farms in Vancouver and seven farms in Christchurch sell mostly at farmers' markets and make deliveries to restaurants, but occasionally some restaurants pick up the products from stalls at the market. Two farms in Vancouver and one farm in Christchurch sold their food products directly to restaurants by personal deliveries with regular trucks. The length of time to deliver the products varied from "same day" to "two weeks" depending on the establishments and food products in both samples.

In the following section, themes from the interview questions related to respondents' perceptions, motivations, barriers and constraints to working with restaurants and chefs are presented and discussed. The perception of the definition of "local food" in food products is discussed first.

7.1.3 What does "local food" mean to farmers and/or farmers' market vendors?

Respondents were asked what local food meant to them. Definitions offered by majority respondents were based on geographical or political boundary lines (province or region)-such as products "grown" within the region or in political boundary lines than by a distance measure in both groups of respondents. In contrast, very few (one respondent in Christchurch and two respondents in Vancouver) respondents defined their "local food" in terms of the mileage or distance they would travel to sell. The actual number of miles they would travel varied considerably, ranging from 90 in Christchurch and a 100 to 210 mile radius from where they lived in Vancouver. The result was similar with the mail survey, in which respondents understanding of "local food" have coalesced around geographical or political boundary lines and distance measure as described in Chapter five. Six respondents in Vancouver and seven

respondents in Christchurch defined “local food” according to political boundaries than by distance measure from restaurants. One respondent in Vancouver went even further to explain that he would prefer food to be grown closer, rather than simply within the geographical or political boundary lines or distance measures, and wanted it to be form as close as possible:

For me, Local means “just up the road” When I was in California, I bought strawberries from a surplus stand outside an enormous farm that supplies berries all over North America. I considered the roadside ones “local” (F1).

These divergent views among the respondents in defining and describing local food reflects a wide variety of definitions found in the academic literature (Peterson et al. 2010; Sims 2010; Vecchio 2010; Sharma et al. 2012), as previously described.

7.1.4 Farmers and/or farmer’s market vendors’ definition of “quality”

For the farmers and/or farmers’ market vendor respondents, “Quality” was more frequently defined in terms of “taste”, “freshness”, and “appearance (visual aesthetics)”. Vancouver respondents defined quality primarily in terms of “taste”, “freshness”, and “appearance” associated with “proper harvesting method” and “proper production method”. Christchurch respondents linked quality only with “taste”, “freshness”, and “appearance (visual aesthetics)”. Many respondents from both samples claimed that they paid attention to food product’s taste and freshness:

I think quality is mainly freshness, taste and I do not believe it always has to look perfect. I will argue on modern tomatoes that grown on the soil and the taste as good as better than heirloom varieties. But when you buy from Supermarket and grown hydroponically and that is grown for the yields and has very little flavour in it (Christchurch, F15).

However, a number of respondents from both samples have stated that they did care about the appearance (visual aesthetics) of the products before they sell to the restaurants, as opposed to not having perfect looking products. As one respondent commented, “For me there is also aesthetics” (Vancouver, F9). The same respondent also measures quality by how products are harvested.

There are certain things people expect from our products. You know there are many ways to measure quality. You can measure quality by the taste, or by the level of maturity of the products, or how they harvested (F9).

However, two respondents from Vancouver linked “quality” with a “proper production method” along with “freshness”. In sum, the results indicated that many of the definitions of “quality” that

emerged were similar to those that emerged in the foodservice establishments' interview in this study.

7.1.5 Perceived benefits to farmers for selling local food products to restaurants and chefs

Farmers were asked about perceived benefits and/or motivations for selling to restaurants and chefs in this study. Farmers enunciated personal satisfaction, product appreciation, higher prices, and personal relationships for selling to restaurants and chefs in both samples.

Personal satisfaction

Respondents in both samples indicated that they derive personal satisfaction from selling their products to restaurants and chefs. They see chefs creating beautiful dishes with their products, thus they feel they are valued for their products and their hard work is appreciated:

Well we like the idea of our food being served to people who are our customer and now we really want the restaurant to have local produce so that's a big motivation and to see it going to a chef who is creating a beautiful food with it. It is really satisfying. When the chefs who love like we love our food and so when we met up with the chef who loves food and who loves good food. It's just like you know oh my God that means it paid off my hard work with my produce (Vancouver, F10).

Similarly, other respondents talked about wanting to sell to restaurants and chefs to keep their products local, with one stating:

I like to see them going by using local and most of the restaurants and chefs we use are selling local. So our local products will be going there locally. It is just a good outlet and chefs can easily do the product justice sort of thing and they do pretty good job with that so it shows in a good light such thing (Christchurch, F19).

Product appreciation

For some respondents, their product's appreciation seemed to be major motive to sell to the restaurants and chefs:

I want to sell my products who, entertain me and appreciate my products and part of it is in terms of developing of the brand. I want my products to be reached to the bigger audience through the chefs and restaurants and I think people are made aware of it. It helps brought people awareness of my products and you know when it featured on the menu (Vancouver, F2).

Another respondent stated that he receives his product appreciation along with the good prices and that motivated him to sell the products to restaurants and chefs:

The appreciation, getting good price and the volume I am selling to them is good for me rather than selling to my retail consumers (Christchurch, F14).

However, the same respondent clearly mentioned that he would make more money by selling his products at the market, but due to the appreciation of his products by chefs he pursued this marketing avenue for his business:

[...] if I sell to the restaurants it is going to be larger amount of the products and selling to the consumers at the market will be smaller amount of the products. But the thing is market makes more money for me but I just price the stuffs, pack it and then send to the restaurants. Moreover they appreciate my products too (F14).

Higher prices

Direct sales to restaurants can increase farmers' profits (U.S. Department of Agriculture 2002; Bendfeldt et al. 2011; Stevens 2013; Nilsson 2016). Several farmers in this study have described the benefits of selling to restaurants and chefs in order to receive price premiums:

They are totally supportive and they don't try its low value and it's like I like that. They are ready to pay above the market price. That's why I really like about restaurants. And you know its booming the restaurant things and it is growing and growing (Vancouver, F4).

[...] I often found that even dealing direct in that charging higher price when you have to deal direct and we are still cheaper than wholesalers. (Christchurch, F20).

The result is consistent with previous studies (Starr et al. 2003; Green & Dougherty 2008; Sharma et al. 2012). For example, Sharma et al.'s (2012) study found that most growers identified the benefits of selling to local restaurants; especially those were able to pay a price premium for their products. Green and Dougherty (2008) also stated that the most important motivations why Door County farmers sell their products to restaurants and chefs was the desire to obtain more consistent prices for their products.

Personal relationships

In contrast with larger distributors, respondents described enjoyment and appreciation for building the personal relationship with restaurants and chefs. This strongly accords with the literature (Taylor 2009). In this study, three respondents (two respondents from Vancouver and one respondent from Christchurch) wanted to sell directly to restaurants and chefs for personal relationships. Many farmers also engage restaurants and chefs as individuals and see restaurants and chefs as a very valuable source of marketing guidance:

The other thing we like to have the relationship with the chefs that we learn from them what people are cooking? What out there? How can you do certain foods? These things are we don't know out there. If we learn somebody is using the particular food in some other way well then we know for the next year we can grow some of those items. Like chef [chef name] came here and says that you could

sell those products which I did not know that. We know lot of our stuffs but we do not know the user end (Vancouver, F10).

In some cases, farmers see restaurants and chefs as their best source for prospective products. As one respondent from Vancouver sample remarked:

We went to the restaurant at Richmond, I went in and introduce myself and said we are starting out a new farm and he called us right back at the beginning of this year. And then he comes out to the farm. He is one of the few chefs' because he is so close to our farm that he comes like an hour before the meal start oh my Gosh we need and I have an emergency and we just had to run around. I need fennel, I need these mini tomatoes, and I need this and so on. So we just supplied and so we stopped what we were doing and go and do harvest the required products. It is all about relationship (F10).

In the present study several respondents from both samples wanted to sell directly to restaurants and chefs for reasons of: stable and predictable sale, fresher/or higher quality products, personal commitment to environment, and support to local farmers. However, support to local farmers was not necessarily shared by many restaurants and chefs.

Yeah it is good to see that some of the restaurant using our products. Lot of them talk about it but they do not actually do that (Christchurch, F15).

Two respondents from Christchurch were open to considering marketing their products to restaurants and chefs, as opposed to having the products sold to wholesalers' directly as it allows them to remain in full control of their products until its final point of sale and enables them to maximise its value-added potential:

I got no control with the wholesalers, I sell it today I do not know that reaches to kitchen and how they are handling my products. You know there is no key to love my products that could be left in a box or ruining in the box or that could be two or three days old when it gets to the chefs and then it is going to have the bad reputation for my products. And you know I do not feel comfortable with that (F18).

A different participant from Christchurch complained that dealing with markets or wholesalers was too unpredictable to market his products and he asserted that he would rather sell to restaurants and chefs:

[...] if we did not have lot of our direct supply customers we wouldn't exist. Doing what we do even in a lot of horticulture I don't think you can survive just dealing with the market or the wholesalers they are too unpredictable. The entire thing is that you can turn off one day with all of your stuffs and have no orders. And we claim we turn up and you got all of your stuffs then you need double the numbers because that is predictable. They just chase the price all the time and it is very hard to operate like that. I could sit down now and just about for the restaurants and I could be 80% accurate with what those all of my chefs will order tonight. For the wholesalers some of them could do that but most of them are not reliable to do that (F20).

Similarly, a respondent from Vancouver shared his personal values related to farming, and marketing seemed to be a major motive for selling to restaurants and chefs. The value he shared was the pride he has taken in growing the products. He offered this explanation,

Pride for who we are and our family name and it is tied to us being a family business and at the end of the day it is our name on everything. And we are personally accountable to the people we deal with. So we take pride in seeing our business's name on chef's menus. We take pride in the chefs knowing us personally and knowing our families and knowing details about us and vice versa us knowing about them and being comfortable with walking into a place, seeing a smiling face having a beer with the people that we are selling to because we mutually like and respect each other. So yeah, I mean my family and... my family has... we are very proud people and we have very strong egos and very strong personalities and that's what keeps us doing what we do as because we can sell cheap vegetables and crap but we will not do it. So these are forces (F11).

7.1.6 Perceived barriers to farmers for selling local food products to restaurants and chefs

In the interviews with farmers, several barriers emerged that they perceived as hindering them in selling directly to restaurants and chefs. The barriers were very diverse in both samples. Several respondents from Vancouver reported that they were not able to supply a required quantity or volume of products that restaurants and chefs needed to purchase (F2, F7). A different respondent who sells his products at the farmers' market stated that having limited volume was difficult for him for supplying the quantity that was necessary to meet the demands of a restaurant (F6). For the same respondent, commitment to serve farmers' market consumers also created a barrier for him to provide the required volume of products to restaurants and chefs:

The farmers' market customers are big portions of our buyers so yeah it is hard to find the balance sometimes. I do not want to disappoint the chefs and restaurant and at the same time with my farmers' market customers. As you know both segments are valuable to me (F6).

In another case, a respondent acknowledged that the uncertainty of weather conditions was the most challenging aspect of their farm work and that was one of the barriers for them to supply quality products to restaurants (see also Self et al. 2012):

To maintain the quality because my farm is far away and the weather conditions, like weather, it's not the always same and it kind of affect it. If it rains then it destroys lot of the produce. So if the temperature changes, if it is too hot or the cold. So restaurants have to consider that but they understand that part. I just have to make a phone call and say I don't have it and get it from somebody else. For sure I cannot handle the Mother Nature (Vancouver, F8).

A respondent from Christchurch stated that the cost of production also presented difficulties to sell to restaurants and chefs:

Sometimes you sell the products and make huge amount of money and sometime you do not make money out of that but still you have to do it to keep you customer happy. The products might take

longer to produce, depending on the season, depending on the weather, depending on the ground conditions you have got... you know. The products could cost twice as much in spring time to produce than summer time to produce (F14).

This comment reflects Self et al's (2012) observations that small farmers in the local food system have smaller profit margins that could be affected by the higher cost of producing foods through sustainable growing practices. In some cases, several respondents from both samples complained that restaurants and chefs do not place orders on-time and they recognised that there was a lot more work involved in this regard, as one respondent commented:

I'd say timing. Timing can be a significant challenge. You worked in restaurants a long time, sometimes chefs are a pain in the butt to get a hold of them and hard to train to get the orders out on time and so that's definitely a challenge like basically setting boundaries around when it's acceptable to place your order and if you're going to consistently place your orders that it's going to get messed (Vancouver, F5).

Another three respondents claimed that delivery costs were higher for selling directly to restaurants and chefs if they do not order enough volume/quantities of the products from them, particularly if they were located away from the city. This would imply that farmers would have to make frequent deliveries to the restaurants and chefs. This could help to create the relationships but this cost was unavoidable for the farmers:

The main problem is getting an order bag enough to make it worthwhile. It is not worth for me drive the products to the town and deliver the products which are cost only \$100, where it cost me \$100 for drive the vehicle to the town. By the time I use my labour and fuel cost then there is no worth me to supply the products to them. So it's mainly volume not enough (Christchurch, F15).

Barriers related to delivery cost are identified in previous studies (Schmit & Hadcock 2012; Sharma et al. 2012; Self et al. 2012; Dougherty et al. 2013). Additionally, in line with previous research (Sharma et al. 2012), restaurants and chefs lack of planning and forecasting can further fuel the uncertainty of product demand for farmers, as one respondent from Vancouver complained:

Production time, because they are plants and they take a while to grow. Chefs will plan their menus without consulting us and expect product to be available on the drop of a hat or they will have special events booked for a long time in advance but they won't order and they won't give us enough lead time to ensure that there's enough product for them yeah so we are as a grower and producer probably, that is probably the biggest challenge for me (F11).

Several respondents from both samples did mention that they practice seasonal extensions to meet the customer demands during the winter time. However, there were challenges to practicing seasonal extensions:

Price of the products goes up and down because of our production costs goes up and down. So if the season and cold we have to keep the products warm and keep under light so cost goes high and we have to pass that costs to our customers (Vancouver, F9).

Other specific barriers (Food safety and licensing concerns)

Many foodservice establishments require farmers to comply with institutional arrangements (licensing, certification, food safety protocols, and liability insurance) to protect against economic loss from food-borne illnesses attributed to the farmers' products. A number of respondents (seven from Vancouver and three from Christchurch) indicated that they had no concerns at all with licensing and regulations. This result is somewhat surprising, since food safety and liability concerns have often been noted as a challenge to small, local farmers in the existing research pertaining to local producers (Gregoire et al. 2005; Peterson et al. 2010). Similarly, the majority of studies from foodservice perspectives cited food safety and/or liability insurance as a concern (e.g. Gregoire & Strohbehn 2002, 2003; Huber et al. 2002; Gregoire et al. 2005; Pillay & Rogerson 2013). However, several respondents did indicate their dissatisfaction with these licensing and regulation policies, with one remarking:

Compliance with food safety is often a nightmare. Not because of the compliance but obviously you do not make money out of poisoning your customers. But the amounts of paper works are enormous. So yeah we are not saying compliance it's actually not directly to compliances being seen to be compliances. You know I mean the paper work and then I mean just developing the relationship and it's very easy for businesses that as business we rely on each other. And so that relationship is really important and you are not actually isolated businesses. You are in actually business that relies on each other and we are just trying to maintain the relationship and talking yeah. It is easy for me to cut the piece of meat but everything else is involved so that you know you are not doing wrong thing (Christchurch, F13).

Nevertheless, many respondents from both samples stated that having such certifications has been a positive impact for them in selling their products to restaurants and chefs:

I would feel that there is a positive impact as it does keeps us to be honest that you have some regulations yeah they do keep you honest. It is a source of confidence for the customers and for you too and that also keeps the grower honest. If anything goes wrong you can always check back you know (Vancouver, F9).

Only two respondents (one from each sample) mentioned that restaurants and chefs were not interested in these certifications.

7.1.7 Farmers satisfaction with restaurants and chefs working relationships and profitability

Satisfaction with restaurants and chefs and relative profitability are important to any farm's success. To assess this, respondents were asked overall how satisfied they were with the working relationships they had established with the restaurants and chefs, as well as with the level of profitability selling to restaurants and chefs. In terms of working relationships with restaurants and chefs, there were no major discrepancies between both groups of respondents. The majority of respondents stated that they were very satisfied with their restaurant and chef relationships. However, some respondents in Christchurch were less positive:

As I believe it does not work very well at this moment. Busiest month for them to get the stuffs from us at the market but it depend on the quantity. The guys sometime ask for big lot from the market but if I take a big lot to them then less for my market customers. If I am going to get them from the market and that is easiest for me but what I need to know well in beforehand so that I can add that to my stocks. So it is not taken out of my stock from my regular market customers (F15).

I am sort of satisfied with the ones who are regular and consistent but some of them inconsistent to me and its very frustration for me you know (F17).

Almost all the respondents stated that their relationship with restaurants and chefs has changed over time and become stronger as a trustworthy relationship has been built up and they get more respect for their products:

For two years now we have been selling our products regularly to some of the chefs. They became kind of friends either they bought something from me or not? For us it was important to have a steady you know how many restaurants we supply, our farmers' market support me to source the income but our relationships with the restaurants are very steady and became strong with them (Vancouver, F6).

I have some chefs whom I know them almost 15-20 years and they have left the city due to the earthquake and now they are coming back and they rang and say oh you still survive and they say now I am back again you know such things. So I do have very good relationship with them and it has built up over a time (Christchurch, F20).

In further discussion, respondents from both samples stated that this working relationship started in different ways. In Vancouver, of the 12 individuals interviewed, five reported that they initiated their farm restaurant relationships, followed by another five who reported restaurant initiated relationships, and two reported that it was a joint effort. While in Christchurch, of the eight individuals interviewed, five reported that the restaurant initiated the relationships, and three reported that it was a joint effort. Almost all respondents from both samples stated that they were very satisfied with the level of profitability of selling to restaurants and chefs, noting that selling the products to restaurants and chefs was profitable because of having no middle men involved and they have received fair prices for their products.

7.1.8 Why did restaurants and chefs choose to purchase from you?

In the interviews, farmers were asked why restaurants and chefs chose to purchase from them. Major reasons revolve around: quality products, fresher products, better shelf-life, better taste, greater variety and unique products, and certified organic products. Results showed that participants in Vancouver and Christchurch did not differ significantly in terms of quality and fresher products criterion. However, there was a remarkable difference in participants in terms of better shelf-life, better taste, greater variety and unique products, and certified organic criteria.

Quality and fresher products

Growing, processing, and selling products of the highest quality was the main reasons cited by eight respondents from Vancouver and four respondents from Christchurch. Respondents see excellence of product quality as a necessity:

[...] again the quality, quality is the big one I think, that's the biggest commitments to the chefs. If our product doesn't taste so good then they will just buy from distributors. This is the only thing we have. If our products are not the top quality we don't want to sell it and we do not send out of the farm (Vancouver, F10).

Other participants (two respondents from Vancouver and three respondents from Christchurch) acknowledged that their buyers purchased from them because they provided fresher products (Vancouver, F9 and Christchurch, F16). These answers were very similar to restaurants and chefs. The restaurant and chef buyers interviewed see quality and freshness of products as the main attributes they expect from local farmers, as a restaurant manager commented:

They are the people who supply us for the best quality things and we want the best quality things. And the customer who comes here they get the best quality things so everybody wants (Christchurch, R43).

This result has also been noted by Zdorovtsov et al. (2007) and Curtis et al. (2008). According to Curtis et al. (2008), chefs perceived the popularity of local products with freshness and quality to be the most positive aspects of making local purchasing decisions. Zdorovtsov et al. (2007) also reported that producers perceived freshness and quality as the primary benefits of buying locally.

Better shelf-life and better taste of the products

For at least four participants (two from each sample), better taste and shelf-life of the products were understood to be the main reasons their buyers purchased from them:

To get praise or positive response, if a chef orders consistently to me that is telling me that we are doing it right. I am assuming is that because chefs like the freshness, the consistency, the right range, the shelf life, and one stop shopping (Christchurch, F20).

However, in contrast, Dougherty et al. (2013) found that restaurants in Door County in Wisconsin perceived local food produce as inferior in term of shelf-life than non-local produce.

Greater variety and unique products, and certified organic products

Some participants believed that greater variety and unique products, and certified organic products, were the main reasons their buyers purchased from them. Research has shown that certified organic products are a main reason for purchasing locally grown food (FPC 2003; Woods et al. 2006; Curtis & Cowee 2009). Besides the above reasons, many participants stated that they provided a service for special request by growing/raising unique products in addition to their regular products:

I have some chefs would like me to grow some stuffs for example corn salad or lamb's lettuce, radicchio, little peas Tendrils or feathers, tomatillos. Those things I give a try and can't guarantee to them. So, I do lot of that and it's that something that I put lot of time on to it but I will do that if chef asks (Christchurch, F18).

7.1.9 Buyers preference by farmers

Farmers were asked to describe what kind of buyers "best works for their operation currently." Three respondents from Vancouver and five from Christchurch stated that they wanted to sell to restaurants and chefs who provide consistent orders. Similarly, a participant from Christchurch talked about wanting to sell to restaurants and chefs who buy consistently and love local organic products.

Obviously the restaurant that sources their products locally and also who want the organic produces and I would like to sell more products who take my products in more consistent way and those restaurants work best for me. You know the one is inconsistent you cannot judge them what they would be wanting for the next week and definitely they are unreliable (F14).

The finding is consistent with the findings of Colorado studies identifying farmers who wanted to sell to restaurants and chefs who "buy consistently and love local produce" (Starr et al. 2003, p.314). However, one participant claimed that consistency of products was a major challenge for him. Although he recognised consistency of products buyers was necessary for his business.

[...] it could be pain in the butt because restaurants and some places want consistency of the products and any complain for that one's when we have thirty one weeks and then none for another couple of four or five weeks of the products will not be acceptable for them. So I need to adjust my supply of the products to them to give them consistency of the products (Christchurch, F19).

At least two participants from Vancouver indicated that small and medium size restaurants were the best for their operation to do business with:

Mid-size restaurant is ideal for me because it will push decent amount of products so, those will be our very big buyers and it also successful (F9).

I work always with smaller restaurants those are willing to use stuff across my list. Because I do not want to sell large volume one product to chef, if they do that then they don't deal with me (F2).

Another respondent from Vancouver described the ideal buyers from her perspective; she stated that she would want someone who values her quality products:

We chose [restaurant's name] because of their values and so that's why [restaurant's name] works best for our farm. And we feel really proud that our name is on their menu. And also they loved our food because we have such quality food and we want our food to be on a plate, it is all aligned with our values (F10).

In contrast, a respondent from Vancouver wanted to sell to restaurants and chefs who were interested in paying by cash at the farmers' market due to improved revenue:

Cash pick-up at the market, we sell to 5-10 chefs each season. They come to us at the Vancouver markets. 50lb boxes of potatoes. Dodgy business, as if the chef moves away, you lose the business, or if the owner has a cash flow problem, then you don't get paid for ages, if ever. We ask for cash, and extend credit to a few very select restaurants, generally owner/operated ones (F1).

7.1.10 Farm education for restaurant personnel

Ten participants from Vancouver and seven participants from Christchurch emphasised farm visits to be the best means of educating restaurant personnel about their agricultural practices. Farmers invite restaurant personnel to the farm site in order to learn about their agriculture practices. Farmers also think visits to the farm are important for their buyers. Many of the participants in this research stated that several restaurant personnel have already visited their farms or been offered to visit their farms in the past years, although time availability is recognised as a problem (Christchurch, F18). Furthermore, one participant also felt that education about agricultural practices often happened more at the farmers' market with customers including with restaurants and chefs than at the farm (Vancouver, F5).

In addition, participants also think that organic certification is not necessary as restaurants and chefs are already educated and understand agriculture practices. Participants felt that restaurant personnel were instead interested in agricultural practices in respect to quality:

The certified organic does not mean lot to the chefs but they see these things and they want it. And they are dealing directly with me right, they don't need the paper they just take from me (Vancouver, F2).

Many participants from both samples also stated that they educate restaurant personnel by listing their food products, agricultural practices, and daily fresh sheets in their websites. Several participants also mentioned that they educate restaurant personnel and the greater public by listing their profiles in newspapers and magazines (Christchurch, F16) or via newsletters and phone calls (Christchurch, F20).

Overall, the findings showed that the farm education for restaurant personnel was valued by farmers in both samples, as visiting the farms and seeing their agricultural practices will give the confidence to sell farm products to their customers. The lack of education may be considered a lost opportunity or impediment to the farm restaurant partnership. Customer education encourages a connection between consumers and the food, so that consumers can gain a greater sense of awareness, place, and respect for the environment. For smaller farm operations where food is being grown and transported by one individual to the restaurants it would be easier to maintain a consistency in education, while for the larger farm operations, this would be required to every individual handling the food in the supply chain. Therefore, every member of the supply chain needs to be educated in order to ensure the adoption of sustainable food chain. As Dalmeny and Reynolds (2007, p.5) stated poor education means “that opportunities are often missed to generate a ‘virtuous circle’ encouraging growing both demand and supply”.

7.1.11 Farmers and fair prices

When farmers were asked whether they were paid a fair price for their products, 11 out of 12 respondents in Vancouver and seven out of eight respondents in Christchurch stated that they were paid fair prices for their products. The reasons for being paid fairly ranged from being able to set their own prices for products, higher quality products, and their efforts to grow the products.

I think the restaurants that we deal with, we are really comfortable with the price point. It is always challenging working with the restaurants because of their low price point and they do not want you to get good price. And that's why only some restaurant does local food because they don't believe the price point and they can still make money. And so the restaurant we have chosen I feel like our prices are very fair (Vancouver, F10).

On the other hand, a respondent from Vancouver claimed that he was not paid a fair price because he believed people do not want to pay if he puts the real price on his products:

I do not because if I really put the real price on it nobody will buy it. Because of the whole attitude, you know the atmosphere of the people that they don't want to pay for it (F12).

Another respondent from Vancouver discussed having problems with other farmers at the market who sold similar products for a much higher price and described his dissatisfaction with these farmers.

In further discussion, respondents were asked what criteria they use to determine their products fair price. For both groups of respondents, cost of production and a fair return on their work (i.e. wages, labour) plus a desired profit margins and matching other farmers prices were a popular choice (see also Schmit et al. 2010). As one respondent noted:

I guess kind of mostly talking with the other farmers' right. It would be ridiculous to see the product price is high or low. I mean we kind of go sometimes like that is way too much or that is too cheap. So basically we go with the comparison of other farmers or vendors. Market values sort of things you know (Vancouver, F4).

While, two respondents from Christchurch stated that whatever market sets the price and anything that can move the products is a fair price for their produce (F17, F20). Another respondent from Vancouver had a strategy of setting prices for products that included an assessment of conventional and wholesale certified organic prices (F10).

7.1.12 Future prospects of selling local food products

Respondents were asked about their future plans for selling their food products locally to restaurants and chefs. All individuals interviewed wanted to continue to sell their food to local restaurants and chefs. Interestingly, some respondents want to increase the volume of food they supply, while others want to stay about the same with the volume of food they supply to restaurants and chefs. Comparing Vancouver and Christchurch samples, both were seen as being more interested in increasing (eight and five respondents respectively) the amount of food they sell to restaurants and chefs than staying about the same. Respondents that expressed an interest in increasing the proportion of local food they were selling to restaurants and chefs mentioned several reasons: an increase in production capacity, decrease in wholesale distribution channel, an increase in speciality products to remain in competitive in the market and a decrease in standardised products, and an increase in arable land.

Reasons given by respondents continuing to sell around the same amount of products included: financial challenges on the part of restaurants, personal commitment, and satisfied with present customer base. Alongside these comments, another respondent from Christchurch indicated his futures efforts would be to sell more food to the farmers' market customers, as opposed to selling to restaurants and chefs.

In further discussion, participants were asked if they had any future plans of increasing, decreasing or staying about the same the number of restaurants and chefs they want to work with. In Vancouver, seven respondents expect to increase the number of restaurants and chefs they sell to, and six in Christchurch. Those that did indicate an interest in increasing the number of restaurants and chefs they supply to reiterated many of the same criteria mentioned above. Several respondents from both samples indicated that to increase their number of restaurants and chefs selling of local foods, one or more of the following would need to exist: more consistent demand of local products or the need to reach a bigger and more stable market. In the case of the latter factor, Gregoire et al. (2005) found that a more stable market was a perceived benefit cited by the producers to selling to local restaurants in Iowa. In addition, delivery and logistics was recognised by one respondent as a significant barrier to working with restaurants and chefs he works with:

I mean I get restaurant quite often asking us can you deliver the products then I say yes I do and then you do not heard anything more from them. It would be easier for us if they collect the products from farmers' market but they do not want to that. So that's one of the reason I do need to supply directly from my farm to their restaurants. So I am quite happy to stay at the same (Christchurch, F15).

The restaurant and chef buyers interviewed also see logistics of transportation and delivery as significant barriers to local purchasing (see section 6.1.5). Gregoire et al. (2005) also found the delivery to restaurants/foodservice as an obstacle cited by the producers in Iowa when selling to local foodservice operations.

A respondent from Christchurch noted that lack of time and staff, and a limited product range prevented him from increasing the number of restaurants and chefs they supply to in the future:

Like I said possibly I think that would be efficient if make some time for that as I have mentioned that my main reason that stopped me from delivering the products to the restaurants was due to my limitation of time, staffs and it was the lower priority compare to the other things at the moment. The price was good and the number of restaurants was good. If I have consistently twenty restaurants and cafes and pay someone to does that work then that would work out or good part of my business. I do not know how many...it is not that there would be twenty restaurants consistently want to buy that

quantity of my products at this moment. They might go through the [name of wholesaler] because the ranges of my products. I am not quite sufficient with the variety of the products at this moment (F17).

7.2 Wholesale Distributors (Distributors)

7.2.1 Response rate and interviewee selection

Previous research has presented evidence that restaurant satisfaction with wholesale distributors is an important purchasing factor (e.g. FPC 2003; Reynolds-Allie & Fields 2012; Schmit & Hadcock 2012). However, very little academic research has looked at more specific aspects of this topic in hospitality and local food studies. Therefore, this study seeks to make a further contribution at the practice and attitudes of foodservice providers towards direct supply relationships with wholesale distributors. In this study, like farmers, wholesale distributors' interviews were undertaken after the restaurant and chef interviews were completed. During the interview session, restaurants and chefs were asked who they source their local food products from and which distributors they recommend for interviews. This research included six distributors who supply fresh produce, meats, speciality meats, poultry, seafood and shellfish to local restaurants and chefs in Vancouver, while in Christchurch, ten distributors who supply similar products as well as speciality cheeses to local restaurants and chefs were included. These wholesale distributors name were most frequently mentioned during the interview sessions by the restaurants and chefs, in which many of these distributors were broad line distributors. It is also worth noting that variation in the use of distributors has been found in meat products. Two local speciality wholesale butcher distributors were mentioned by the restaurants and chefs in the Christchurch sample. Semi-structured interviews were conducted with all the respondents from both samples. Details of the interviewees are given below.

7.2.2 Interview respondents' profiles

Table 7.2 summarises the demographics of the interviewees from Vancouver and Christchurch. Of the completed interviews, six respondents were from Vancouver and ten from Christchurch. The Vancouver sample had four male and two female participants, while in Christchurch eight respondents were male. The length of time living in the region ranged from 15 to 51 years for Vancouver participants with an average of 23.66 years of industry experience and 6.5 to 13 years for the Christchurch participants with an average of 17.15 years of industry experience.

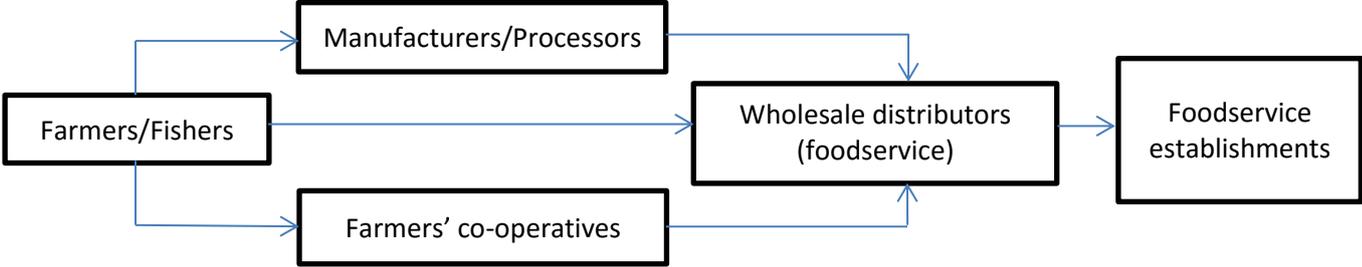
Table 7.2 Demographics of respondents: Wholesale distributors

City (Country)	Vancouver (Canada)	Christchurch (New Zealand)
No. of respondents	6	10
Gender	Male: 66.66% (4) Female: 33.33% (2)	Male: 80% (8) Female: 20% (2)
Type of distributors	Hand selected boutique meats, fresh produces, dairy and eggs, meats and speciality meats, poultry, seafood, and shellfish	Meats, Speciality cheeses, seafood and shellfish
Position of interviewee	Sales Representative: 50% (3) Business Manager: 16.66% (1) Corporate Food and Beverage Representative: 16.66% (1) Owner: 16.66% (1)	Business Development Manager: 10% (1) Purchasing and Sales Manager: 10% (1) Sales Manager: 10% (1) Owner: 40% (4) Sales Representative: 10% (1) Wholesale Manager: 10% (1) Operation Manager: 10% (1)
Years living in the region	Minimum: 15 years Maximum: 51 years	Minimum: 6.5 years Maximum: 13 years
Years of industry experience	Average: 23.66 years Minimum: 12 years Maximum: 30 years	Average: 17.15 years Minimum: 3.5 years Maximum: 35 years
Average percent of local food products purchased from local farmers	Average: 39.17 Minimum: 10 Maximum: 90	Average: 24.95 Minimum: 25 Maximum: 95

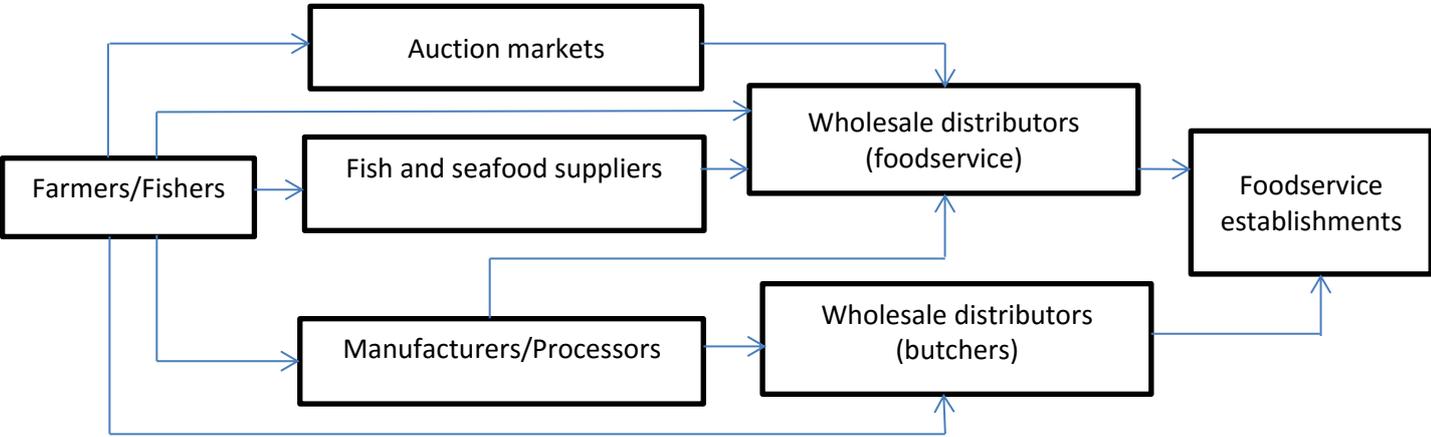
Respondents were able to provide estimates of how much of their local food products were purchased from local farmers. Their answers ranged from 10% to 90% with a mean of 39.17% and a standard deviation of 30.06% for Vancouver respondents. In Christchurch, it ranged from 25% to 95% with a mean of 24.95% and a standard deviation of 73.50%. Structurally, these results suggest that Christchurch wholesale distributors are smaller in terms of the amount of local foods supplied to restaurants and chefs than the Vancouver wholesale distributors.

Respondents used different intermediary suppliers as well as farmers to procure their products in both samples (see Fig. 7.1a and b for schematic). Analysis of sourcing activities indicates that Christchurch respondents use a more complex set of intermediaries for purchasing a wider variety of products than Vancouver respondents. In Vancouver, four respondents purchased local products directly from about 101 farmers, on average, with a range from 18 to 250 farmers. One respondent purchased meat products directly from 60 local manufacturers/processors and these manufacturers/processors sourced their meat products directly from small farmers in the region. One respondent purchased from a farmer's co-operative which secured products directly from local farmers in Vancouver. In Christchurch, four respondents purchased local products directly from 21 local farmers, on average, with a range from four to 50. One respondent procured local produce from five auction markets supplied by small farmers in the region. Two respondents purchased fish and seafood products directly from four local fish suppliers. These respondents

stated that they have to purchase fish and seafood from local fish suppliers as there was difficulty in purchasing directly from fishermen because the fish and seafood suppliers effectively control the wholesale market. Three respondents purchased meat products directly from manufacturers/processors.



(a) Vancouver



(b) Christchurch

Figure 7.1. The wholesale distributor food supply chain for local food products (Source: Author)

7.2.3 What does “local food” mean to wholesale distributors?

When it came to defining what “local food” was, the distributors had the broadest range of viewpoints. In Vancouver the definition offered by the majority of respondents was based on a distance measure rather than on geographical or political boundary lines (province or region). Whereas in Christchurch, definitions offered by the majority of respondents were based on geographical or political boundary lines (province or region) than by a distance measure, and this result was in accordance with the farmers of the region. For the larger distributors, if something is not available in the locality, but can be imported from the neighbouring province, that could be considered local also. For example, in Vancouver:

I think first obviously coming from the proximity that is within reach I mean we work with the lot of products that right from our Fraser valley but products that we can't get from the Fraser valley then we can get from Alberta, I would considered Alberta to be a local product as well (W5).

Likewise, in Christchurch local can represent buying food items nationally.

There are only three or four cheese makers locally. So, local for us tends to be local New Zealand cheese. It spreads between the North Island and South Island (W12).

7.2.4 Perceived benefits to wholesale distributors for buying local food products from local farmers

When participants were asked about perceived benefits and/or motivations for purchasing local food products in this study, the most commonly reported benefits were desire to support the local farmers/producers, customer demands (chef's demand), fresher food products, and support to the local economy/community in both samples. This result seems consistent with the restaurants and chefs' interviewed (see section 6.1.4).

Support to local farmers

Desire to support area farmers were seen as a most important influencing factor to buy locally among the interviewed distributors in Minnesota (Berkenkamp 2006). In this study, two respondents from Vancouver and six respondents from Christchurch emphasised the importance of supporting local farmers as their main reason for purchasing local food products. They also saw these relationships as an important part to providing the best fresh food products to their customers:

So for us the reason we buy local is the same reason we buy any cheese, if it's good we will buy it. If it is local and small scale and they are trying to do good thing we will also buy and we want to be involved. We want to support them; we want to get them to succeed (Christchurch, W12).

We would like to support local to provide the best and fresh part we can at that time of the year to buy that so what that means. When the fish runs you know to get some Sockeye Salmon and that is the best fresh you can provide (Vancouver, W4).

Customer demand (chef's demand)

Many respondents (four respondents from Vancouver and two respondents from Christchurch) reported that their customers were demanding local food products as there has been a great deal of interest in local food products in the media (Vancouver, W4 & W6) (see also Bloom & Hinrichs 2011).

Fresher food products

Several respondents from both samples indicated that they base their food choice on freshness of the food products and this was behind the motives for purchasing from local farmers:

Seasonality so we are going to be buying fresh one when it is fresh and so that would be the number one reasons buying local (Vancouver, W6).

Another respondent from Christchurch commented that due to freshness and taste they buy the local products and thus growers get supported (W7).

Support to the local economy/community

In line with previous studies, support to the local economy/community/business was found to be another central motivational reason determining distributors' interest in local food (Karp Resources 2012; Self et al. 2012). Some of the respondents in the present study believed that purchasing local food products from local farmers to be a means of supporting the local economy/community:

Well people are getting more and more health conscious now. And also support the community I mean keep the money in the community and also support or own growers (Christchurch, W14).

The other reason for buying local is support the local farmers and it is good for our economy but we like to say it's all on the demand of the customers' side and that is the bottom line (Vancouver, W2).

Other important reasons for buying from local farmers were less expensive, higher quality, better taste and flavour, availability (easy to buy quickly), which were consistent with other studies (Starr et al. 2003; Berkenkamp 2006), with the notable exception of faster delivery, and supplier loyalty.

7.2.5 Perceived barriers to wholesale distributors for buying local food products from local farmers

In the interviews with distributors, respondents disclosed several barriers that they perceived as hindering them to procure local food products from local farmers and suppliers. Respondents' views across both samples showed major differences. The reported barriers were very diverse. Four respondents (one from Vancouver and three from Christchurch) acknowledged that inadequate volume/quantity of the products was the most challenging aspect of their local procurement from local farmers. This is in line with past research that highlighted insufficient local supply was the most commonly cited deterrent to purchasing Minnesota-grown products

among the distributors (Berkenkamp 2006), and also reflects the comments from some restaurants and growers.

In contrast, another respondent from Christchurch who was purchasing local food products from local farmers as well as from local auction markets acknowledged his satisfaction with the local farmers he deals with in respect of consistent volume of the local food products. However, the same respondent was particularly angry that supermarket chains were committed to purchasing larger volumes of farm products directly from farmers, thus smaller wholesalers like his company face a shortage of products in the auction markets.

The biggest problem we are going to have with the supermarket that get growers to grow specifically for them like [Food company name] chicken, the growers grows chicken only for [Food company name]. That is also happening with produce too now. Some growers, they go straight to [Food company name] or [Food company name] and they just grow for these companies and it does not even go through the markets. The product goes straight from the growers to their big warehouses. So, super market picking up straight from growers and growers are not using the markets because super market uses so much volume. So we wholesalers particularly the smaller wholesalers are going to face problem about the products. So only problem we face with the products at the auction markets (Christchurch, W14).

In another case, inability to provide consistent quality of product was a major reason for failing to increase their local sourcing:

[...] the quality issue that is the main and hardest for us. Some cheese makers are trying to produce mass production cheese and the quality gets deteriorated and we won't buy their cheeses. We don't want that and it is a big reason, for us paramount is the quality of the cheese. If it is not good and if you are trying to meet the demand for everybody we do not buy that cheese (Christchurch, W12).

This comment is consistent with previous research emphasising the key barriers of local food sourcing from farmers (Berkenkamp 2006; Self et al. 2012). For example, Berkenkamp (2006) stated that quality control was one of key barriers to purchasing Minnesota-grown products among the distributors and wholesalers.

Another respondent from this group who procures products from local farmers as well as from local manufacturers spoke about inconsistent delivery of the products as a major barrier for him to sourcing the local products from the farmers:

I think for the local farmers, it is easy for them to supply the wholesalers because a wholesaler comes out with the truck about 100 cattle at a time you know that and that is done. Whereas for the local farmer if he wants to supply me then he has to take his lamb himself or organize transport and send that to me that way it takes some time also to get the products form them (Christchurch, W13).

Another participant indicated that lack of logistical capacity and processing fees prevented the respondent from greater use of local products from farmers:

I think it comes down to the logistics and understanding how to get repeat suppliers for weekly or monthly and do they have all the ability to required stuffs to be processed. You know I mean we tried to work with the local farmer who is producing rabbits but nobody wants to process and what they add okay I will do it but it's going to be these much. So automatically the price of product we have to buy those things that probably will never sale with that price. It's (price) more than we sale rabbits from Quebec for example. To buy from the local farmer what we have to pay for them is over three dollars a pound. So how would we sale that in the market? I mean it's just called a rabbit. That would be biggest challenges and I mean them understanding and having ability to get product processed at fair price and then the logistic around that for having fresh product is it worth or is it we have to killed thousands all at a time and needs to be processed at a time and we have to take them all at a time. So those are probably the biggest issues (Vancouver, W5).

However, this is not the case for all respondents. In one case, a respondent acknowledged that having good personal relationships with farmers afforded him a continuous guaranteed supply of products and this benefit was very similar to restaurants and farmers, as commented:

For us we got really very good relationship and they know what we want and it is good for them because they know they have got steady customer to take a good chunk of their products (Christchurch, W15).

7.2.6 Does businesses' internal protocol or policies influence wholesale distributors purchasing decisions?

Centralised vs. individual purchasing decisions

Centralised purchasing decisions can impact local food purchasing in number of ways. This purchasing decision can limit a person's autonomy in selecting the suppliers or products. A company may require that individual locations select the items to purchase exclusively from the list of vendors who have gone through a preapproval process. Individual locations within a larger business may have limited to purchase specific approved products or brands (e.g. fast food, retails, restaurant chains, and institutional food service settings). Other companies also may grant buyers at individual locations purchasing discretion over a small percentage of their food purchasing expenditure. Allowances like these can influence the procurement of local food from local sources. The sections below detail some of the specific ways that wholesale distributors' approach centralised or individualised purchasing, protocol, and policies impacting purchasing decisions.

There were differences in responses between the participants from both samples. In Vancouver, five respondents indicated that they did purchase local foods on a centralised decision basis and

others purchased on an individual basis. In Christchurch, there appeared to exist a greater degree of individual purchasing decisions (seven respondents) than directed on a centralised decision basis (three respondents).

Businesses' protocol and policies that influence purchasing decisions

Like foodservice establishments, many wholesale distributors require farmers and manufacturers to comply with one or more food safety protocols and/or carry liability insurance to protect against economic loss from food-borne illness due to the farmer's products. Respondents were therefore asked to identify how their businesses' internal policies and protocols (for example, food safety and health standards regulations, liabilities insurance, and other licencing and certification) influence their purchasing decisions.

All the respondents from both samples stated that their farmers and suppliers do hold some food safety requirements or certifications. Respondents noted that food safety was their company's primary concern and their company wants to purchase local foods as much as possible from the local farmers who have certifications in place:

[...] they (farmers) have to have something in place in order to be dealing with us. It couldn't be just strictly pulling out of the ground and sticking in the boxes and send it to us. They will have to have something beyond on that (Vancouver, W4).

Some of our customer requires certification and that come from the seed to growing program, to the pest control, to the watering program so definitely I would like to see those things with my farmers and well as with my suppliers (Christchurch, W16).

In other several cases respondents noted that their company has their own policies and protocol for vetting their suppliers. They also stated that it is not only for their own company's protocol but they helped to implement the policies and standards to every supplier along their supply chains. Further, respondents mentioned that their suppliers should have HACCP (Hazard Analysis Critical Control Point) certified facilities or a HACCP plan in place to have some guarantee for their customers, as one respondent noted:

Well that goes back to say for our primary smaller producers within the contract from whom we purchase products from. So it has to meet some criteria because we are HACCP approved, we have to have some guaranteed for our products for our customers. We have to have them to ship us their products within those criteria's (Vancouver, W4).

When the subsequent question about the requirement of liability insurance was raised, two respondents (one from each sample) acknowledged that their farmers did not need to have liability insurance in place to purchase local food products.

Five respondents from both samples stated that their farmers hold liability insurance to protect against economic loss from food-borne illness attributed to products:

My two farmers and the market guys have their certifications and liability insurances. Particularly market guys are very strict in this regards. So it does not impact my local food procurement from my suppliers. So everybody does have and all of us have to comply with the rules and regulations. Like I do have million dollars liability insurance and my suppliers might have same too (Christchurch, W14).

Finally, respondents from both samples did not know about this liability insurance. As one of these commented:

I do not know the procurement side from the farmers for our parent company but it would be all based on government regulations to procure the products from the farms and that is pretty standard and the government processing regulations but I do not know lots about the farms liability insurance side. Between our parent company and our company there are no impact about the rules and regulations and we know where the products are coming from (Christchurch, W11).

7.2.7 Does personally knowing farmers and/or other suppliers influence wholesale distributors purchasing decisions?

Like the restaurant and chef interviews, most respondents (four from Vancouver and nine from Christchurch) said that personally knowing their farmers and/or other suppliers did have an influence on their purchasing decisions. Respondents expressed confidence developed as result of strong good relationships between distributors and farmers and/or other suppliers rather than anonymous relationships. Respondent purchasing decisions were influenced by trust, product confidence, transparency, flexibility in terms of price, commitment to work together, and knowing the origin of products. Two respondents stated that trust was a valuable attribute in their purchasing decisions, as one commented:

[...] trustworthiness is very important. Because when we actually meet those people they can see that whether they can deliver to what they are claiming and to have a good partnership and not to let the customers down. And it is very important for them who we partner with, so those things do come into place (Vancouver, W1).

Three other respondents acknowledged that strong positive relationships with local farmers and/or other suppliers made them confident in their purchasing decisions as well as the products:

I think it does because you obviously create you know you get kind of friendship with your farmers and that way I do get more confident to buy their products and obviously they becoming more friendship and they want to please you as well (Christchurch, W13).

In another case, a respondent indicated that product transparency was a motive in purchasing decisions:

I mean if I did not know them based on how we started and how we proceeded, everything is based on that relationship, and what they stand for as a farmer and track their transparency of their operations, so we can work together to create the relationship. So you can say their transparency makes my decision to buy from them (Vancouver, W5).

Three other respondents also acknowledged that flexibility in pricing, commitment to work together, and knowing the origin of the products was a motive in purchasing decisions with farmers and/or other suppliers:

[...] they will be willing to work together with us and wants to do what they can. The facility will be required in a fashion that we can deal with without causing too many ripples and like any relationship if people listen and talk to each other, then anything works or happens. Because when you are speaking local you are taking smaller and you are talking about a different perspective on purchasing and growing (Vancouver, W4).

Overall, 12 respondents (four respondents from Vancouver and eight respondents from Christchurch) stated that personally knowing their farmers and/or other suppliers also influenced their customer relationships.

Commitments with respect to supporting each other and providing better products as a result also emerged:

I think it is important because we basically are the ambassador of the farmers and their products. We speak on behalf of them. We are the bridge that connects the gap I mean they are not meant to that what we do. And we are not meant to do what they do. But we need each other to get their products to the chefs (Vancouver, W5).

Only one respondent stated that personally knowing their farmers and/or other suppliers did not influence the relationship with their customers. This was expressed in term of product quality:

It does not influence because obviously the restaurants will have the products that they know they are getting better quality from one supplier to another supplier and so it's like a... they have back up for them. What I would say if somebody told me that they only want me to source product from this supplier I would question them why to start with? And I will work through their prices to see why that happened and I can give them same good products from somewhere else (Christchurch, W16).

7.2.8 Why restaurants and chefs chosen to purchase from you?

From the perspective of distributors, several reasons have emerged for choosing to purchase from them. Major reasons revolved around: higher quality products, better customer services, fair prices, and fresher products. Eleven respondents (two in Vancouver and nine in

Christchurch) indicated that higher quality was the main reason for adopting this practice by the restaurants and chefs. Five respondents (two from Vancouver and three respondents from Christchurch) stated that their commitment to better customer service meets the restaurants and chefs' needs for consistency of supply and delivery requirements in a timely manner. One of these respondents commented:

I think because we have good customer services, and they can have different option for their meat selections. They can buy from one place. And I think we have bit of more consistency in our supply chain. Chefs more expect from us where some other company does not have that kind guaranteed when they buy from them and they have to buy different places all the time. Due to the consistency they know what they are going to get (Christchurch, W11).

Price convenience appeared to be strong reason given by three respondents for restaurants and chefs choosing large distributors. While two other respondents acknowledged that their price might be a bit of higher than the other distributors, their higher quality products appeared to be another reason to engage in purchasing from them.

In another case, a respondent shared his company's value related to the best fresh local products they supply to the restaurants and chefs. A value shared by his company was the pride of their products. He talked about pride in the context of taking care of the products if any issues arise:

Because we support being best and fresh. So we support local and we also want to have the best fresh part for you daily the best we can provide that is pretty much on that just to give best and fresh. We also take the pride of our products. We support local as much as we can. We stand behind our products for there any issues and we take care of that part (Vancouver, W4).

A different respondent interpreted involvement in buying local foods from distributors by restaurants and chefs was to do with the opportunity to purchase smaller orders or request unique or speciality products:

From us they buy because it is different than what they can get from other wholesalers which is generally for them need to buy a bulk quantity whereas they can get smaller order or request from us and we are trying to do better than other wholesalers, which we do. And then lot of chefs get their special orders from us. They might be running to come here to get one or two things out of hundred things but they know it is going to be very good products from us and they also can get some unique or speciality category of products from us too. They also can get the products exactly what they want from us. We customised the things as well for the chefs. Like the other day, a chef from renowned restaurant wanted us to make chorizo sausages, he told me the ingredients. So two or three days later we provide the items to him (Christchurch, W13).

Product knowledge also appears to be a factor in restaurants using distributors:

I do not think they are as knowledgeable about what is available and they do not know how to go out and getting it. I guess they should prefer to bring it in through the distributors rather than getting it off the back of the truck from the local farmers (Vancouver, W3).

While, for the same respondent, food safety related concerns are also factors in purchasing via distributors.

Finally, one respondent suggested the importance of trust as the main reason for restaurants and chefs purchasing from them:

I think the number one is trust. The way you know our consultative approach with how we communicate with the chefs not only on one product and menu development so on but percent guaranteed on the product we do sale. Because you know there is lot of false advertisement out there and you know company started selling is not really what it is right. So, there is another reason trust based on our transparency and based on the, I guess our methodology behind the sales process (Vancouver, W5).

7.2.9 Perceived barriers to wholesale distributors for selling local food products to restaurants and chefs

Discussions with distributors revealed many different barriers that they perceived as hindering them from selling directly to restaurants and chefs. As with the farmers that were interviewed, the revealed barriers were very diverse among the respondents in both samples. Three respondents (one respondent from Christchurch and two respondents from Vancouver) recognised that quantity/volume demanded by local restaurants and chefs was a limitation for them:

One of the main barriers with local is that they do not have enough to supply to the foodservice I mean the quantity. Like sometimes we want hundred cases of certain products so we can sale to our customers but the local farmers says oh I don't have enough. That's why some chefs always ask us can you get this and this? Yes we can but farmers do not have enough to sale to us (Vancouver, W2).

This is a recurring issue. The farmers in this study also recognised that the quantity demanded by restaurants and chefs was a limitation for them. Likewise, the restaurant and chef buyers interviewed see inadequate volume/quantity of the products as a barrier for the adoption of local food products from local farmers. Furthermore, the restaurants and chefs interviewed also agreed that inadequate volume/quantity was a problem in sourcing local food from distributors. This will be discussed further in the next chapter.

Seasonality is clearly a major factor in local food availability. As in previous interviews with restaurants and chefs, the consistency of the volume/quantity of locally sourced food due to seasonality is perceived to be variable by distributors as well. A majority of respondents (three from Vancouver and ten from Christchurch) stated that they were selling local food products

year round. Three respondents from Vancouver were just selling during the main growing seasons. Many respondents reported that the uncertainty of weather conditions was the most challenging aspect of selling to restaurants and chefs. One of the respondents had this comment to share:

Yes in the winter when there aren't enough beef around, there is not enough supply and not enough animals been processes and go to source from Australia. Even the products you do get from New Zealand because of winter there isn't much grass around and more often more stress for the animals, the quality is not that good. And so even you get your local products isn't that awesome sometimes that's the reality in the New Zealand farming system. But then it poses lot problems for me as a sales representative. It doesn't matter what is going on, restaurant needs good quality of meat. They do not want to hear all these reasons because it is winter and there is not enough grass or something else (Christchurch, W11).

In contrast, a different respondent suggested that the seasonality issue was created by the restaurants and chefs:

Chefs sometimes want goat cheese on the menu all year round and if they want local goat cheese, they can't have it because local goat cheese doesn't produce all year round. So if they want goat cheese year round, it causes problem because they can't have it. (Christchurch, W12).

When asked to what extent distributors' deal with product seasonality, nine respondents (from both samples) revealed a number of solutions to deal with the limitation of product seasonality, with three stating:

Well you try to tell the chefs move with the season (Christchurch, W14).

We just mention it on our website that it is not available in the season or for these days (Vancouver, W7).

We tell to the chef this is coming up for the next season and so we just regularly communicate to them (Christchurch, W12).

In several cases distributors also tended to agree with the restaurants and chefs that the higher prices of local food products could be a major barrier in sourcing food locally. As one respondent from Vancouver commented:

I would say the biggest is the prospect on price because the prices of the products are increasing. Chefs are saying we love your products and I want use your products but I can use this product from here and there and this is the price. So if you can sell me with that price then I will do it. But we cannot. So, there is unwillingness to raise prices on menu and that is affecting me (W5).

Another respondent's comment also illustrated a clear barrier associated with the higher prices of local products due to the fixed amount (quotas) hindering her to sell to restaurants and chefs, as commented:

The reduction of quotas which we see with certain local products, for example Halibut we had to endorse three consecutive reductions of quotas with availability and pricing. So I have seen prices jump 30%, 40%, or 50%. Sockeye salmon last year we saw increased of at least 30%. So some of the challenges are the people can't afford to keep these high price items and they are looking for alternatives to manage their food cost. So my challenge is to keep selling some of these products (Vancouver, W6).

Interestingly, two respondents acknowledged that the barriers to utilising local foods are mainly associated with distributors and not with the restaurants and chefs, with one stating:

The barrier is probably mainly for us because we do quite a few of speciality products and we put more efforts on it and restaurants need to pay little bit more but on the other side chefs want to make money I mean they need to make money so this is probably the barriers for us with the restaurants. But once they used it and they realized it is good products then they do not create problem with the price (Christchurch, W13).

7.2.10 Future prospects of purchasing local food products

During the interviews respondents were asked if they had any future plans of increasing, decreasing, or staying about the same, the amount of food they source from farmers and/or other suppliers. Most respondents from both samples (five from Vancouver and nine from Christchurch) said they would like to increase the amount of food products from local sources. Respondents from Vancouver expressed their interest in increasing the amount of purchases if the product price remains better and customers demand more, while customer demands were mostly cited by Christchurch respondents:

So we planned to increase as there is definitely demand and pricing has to remain on a sustainable fashion. Having all those conditions being there we can definitely increase the programme (Vancouver, W1).

Only one respondent from each sample suggested they would not be increasing the amount food they source locally in the immediate future.

In further discussion, respondents were asked if they had any future plans of increasing, decreasing or staying about the same number of farmers and/or other suppliers they want work with. There was a remarkable difference in responses. In Vancouver, five respondents expect to increase the number of farmers and/or other suppliers they purchase from. For Christchurch, trends were different from Vancouver, with three respondents reporting likely growth in farmers and/or suppliers numbers, while seven respondents reported staying about the same. Respondents from both samples indicated that, to increase the number of farmers and/or other suppliers, one

or more of the following would need to exist: wider variety, greater volume of products, availability and different new products, better price, support local producer, customer demand, and compliance with policies. The results were similar to the extant literature, in which volume and product price were the key factors that should be met in order to expand local purchasing from farmers for an ethnic-based wholesaler whose buyers were mostly restaurants in Michigan (Abatekassa & Peterson 2011).

In one case, the role of strong relationships with the farmers or suppliers appeared to be a reason to not expand the number of farmers and/or other suppliers they work with, as commented:

I have two farmers and five auction markets (Fresh Max, Turners and Growers, Fresh Direct, MG Marketing, and I got another one in coming). Among the five markets my main market is Fresh Max who looks after me very well and has very strong relationship with them. So basically I want to keep all my suppliers at this moment same (Christchurch, W14).

Similarly, another respondent noted the importance of long term relationships:

I am staying about the same. We are quite happy with my supplier now. If we do get an extra supplier that would be in very long time to build the relationship make sure we are getting the fish products as possible. So, at this moment we are very happy with them and we are having very strong relationship with them (Christchurch, W10).

Having consistent high quality products with the present suppliers was also important:

I think we would like to keep it as it is. Our customers are happy with my suppliers' products because we try to keep the best stuffs for them. We do not want to have the inconsistency with the other new suppliers (Christchurch, W11).

I would like to keep the same one what I got at the moment as they have got more products for us. So we do not need to increase the farmers for us and I am sure they will be able to deal more for us. Moreover I know their quality, their products, and we built up strong relationship with them so it is not worth to look for other farmers or suppliers for me (Vancouver, W8).

Limited suppliers and potential loss of quality in products also convinced another respondent not to expand the number of suppliers:

To get the fish from other place(s) in New Zealand ... takes nine to ten hours to come to us and the fish is one day old already or may be sometimes it takes two days of journey to reach to me. So we cannot keep the quality of the fish. So, we have no choice rather than stay with the present suppliers in Christchurch. So, I do not see in future for the more suppliers except if there are other suppliers take the business along with the existing suppliers to sell the fish to us (Christchurch, W9).

7.3 Chapter Summary

This chapter has reported and analysed the main findings obtained in interview sessions with farmers and/or farmers' market vendors and wholesale distributors. These findings have been discussed to achieve the research objectives and the literature that has been reviewed in Chapters Two and Three. Differences in farmers and/or farmers' market vendors, and wholesale distributors' perceptions, motivations, barriers and constraints to working with restaurants and chefs in Vancouver and Christchurch have been explored. The relationships among these three stakeholders have also been explored.

This study highlights that there is great variability in the definition of "local food" for farmers and/or farmers' market vendors and wholesale distributors. "Local food" holds a variety of meanings for these stakeholders, such as geographically proximate, politically constructed boundary lines (province or region), and distance measures. The findings also indicated a consistency in the definition of "quality" food among most farmers and/or farmers' market vendors in both samples. The most frequently cited response was that "quality" should encompass "taste", "freshness", and "appearance". However, from the farmers' perspective, the definition of "quality" for local food products was unique to this study, and is not cited in any of the examined producer/farmer studies (e.g. Starr et al. 2003; Peterson et al. 2010; Sharma et al. 2012).

Farmers from both samples indicated personal satisfaction, product appreciation, higher prices, and building the personal relationships with restaurants and chefs as beneficial to selling to foodservice establishments. Being paid fairly was also found to be the primary motive for farmers to sell to foodservice establishments. While many of the identified benefits in this study were consistent with the extent literature, some additional unique benefits were identified by the farmers that were not identified by these previous studies. These benefits included personal satisfaction and product appreciation.

Some concerns noted by farmers in both samples were limited product volume, uncertainty of weather conditions, cost of production, and delivery costs. However, inconsistent with previous studies, food safety and liability were not major concerns for both groups of respondents.

Several farmers from both samples have a desire to increase selling their products to restaurants and chefs. More consistent demand of local products, and the need to reach a bigger and more stable market, were the key factors that should be met in order to expand their involvement in the local food system.

From the perspective of distributors, the reason for buying from local farmers includes desire to support the local farmers/producers, customer demands (chefs demand), fresher food products, and support to the local economy/community. Other consistently cited benefits were less expensive, higher quality, better taste and flavour, availability (easy to buy quickly), faster delivery, and supplier loyalty. Many of these benefits identified were discussed to a limited extent in the earlier studies. Faster delivery of food products and supplier's loyalty were unique to this study, as these factors were not mentioned in any of the other studies.

Relationship building with local farmers and/or other suppliers appears to be the other key factor that affects local food purchase decisions. It seems that distributors prefer to purchase from local farmers and/or other suppliers who have long term relationships with them. Distributors' highlighted trust of local food farmers and/or suppliers was one of the key attributes in sourcing local foods. Distributors also found that higher quality products, better customer services, fair prices, and fresher products were the main reasons for purchasing local foods by the foodservice establishments in both samples. Many of these identified reasons were consistent with restaurants and chefs' expectations regarding utilisation of distributors' channel (see section 6.1.8). However, these findings were unique to this study and were not identified in other studies.

Distributors noted inadequate volume/quantity of the products, inconsistent quality of the products, inconsistent delivery of the products, and absence of logistical capacity and processing fees as the primary obstacles to buying locally from farmers. This incurs additional transaction and transportation costs for distributors' resulting in losses of money. However, the findings also indicated that food safety and liability were not major concerns to purchase and sell local food products through their channels in both samples. They also perceived inadequate volume/quantity, product seasonality, higher prices, and competitiveness with other distributors were among the factors that made it difficult to sell local foods to foodservice establishments. When comparing these results to the existing literature, the majority of the barriers such as inadequate volume/quantity, higher prices,

and competitiveness with other distributors, and absence of logistical capacity and processing fees identified by the distributors were unique to this study and have not been discussed in previous studies.

In terms of future prospects for buying local, both groups of respondents were interested in increasing the amount of foods bought from local sources, however, there needed to be more customer demand and better product prices that would allow more products to enter the local market. The next chapter will integrate and discuss the research findings from this study in more depth.

CHAPTER EIGHT

Discussion

8.0 Introduction

This chapter analyses and integrates in more depth the main findings that have been presented in the three previous chapters. The findings are presented and discussed below in relation to the literature that was reviewed in Chapters Two and Three. The discussion given in this chapter revolves around the three research objectives that were outlined in Chapter One.

8.1 Definition of “local food”

This study highlights that the term “local food” is a relatively fluid and dynamic concept (Peterson et al. 2010; Sims 2010; Vecchio 2010; Sharma et al. 2012; Duram & Cawley 2012; Hall 2013; Trivette 2015). There was no consensus on the definition of “local food” among the respondents from both samples. As Allen and Hinrichs (2007) noted, this reflects the extensive debate about the meaning of the term “local food” with restaurants and chefs, farmers/farmers’ market vendors, and wholesale distributors adapting a range of definitions in accordance with their own interests and perceptions. In both Vancouver and Christchurch, restaurants and chefs and farmers and/or farmers’ market vendors primarily defined “local food” in terms of geographical or political boundaries than by a distance measure, while, interviews with wholesale distributors’ revealed a different understanding. In Vancouver, wholesale distributors tended to use distance as a measure, while respondents in Christchurch defined “local food” more in terms of geographical or political boundary lines than by distance. These variations lead to uncertainty surrounding the sourcing of local foods and challenges in labelling or branding products as “local” (Allen et al. 2003; Feagan 2007).

8.2 Definition of “quality”

Restaurants relationships to “quality” are interesting. Restaurants and chefs are very interested in “quality” and the majority of restaurant buyers’ prioritise quality in purchasing decisions. However, this study demonstrated that there is great variability in perceptions of what constitutes “quality” for restaurants and chefs and farmers and/or farmers’ market vendors. “Quality” is a complex term encompassing a wide range of characteristics and was defined quite differently by

different actors in the local food system. For Christchurch respondents “quality” is primarily defined by “freshness”, while for Vancouver respondents “quality” is defined by “taste”. This situation may reflect earlier studies which reported that individuals defined quality primarily in terms of “freshness” when choosing food products (Van Rijswijk & Frewer 2008). However, there was similarity with farmers and/or farmers’ market vendors definitions of “quality” for both groups of respondents where “quality” was identified more closely with “taste”, “freshness” and “appearance”, and associated with “proper harvesting method” and “proper production method (how the food was produced)” in both samples.

8.3 Benefits of Local Food as Perceived by Restaurants and Chefs, Farmers, and Wholesale Distributors

Restaurants and chefs

Respondents ranked freshness as the most important reason to shop at a farmers’ market in both samples. Restaurants and chefs who participated in the interviews also placed great importance on fresher food products as their most influential criteria for local purchase (see also Benepe 2002; Strohbehn & Gregoire 2002, 2003; Starr et al. 2003; Curtis et al. 2008; Casselman 2010; Reynolds-Allie & Fields 2012; Kang & Rajagopal 2014). Freshness is often mentioned as a factor in consumer research along with nutrition, taste, and food safety (Edwards-Jones et al. 2008; Ikerd 2011; Nie & Zepeda 2011). The notion of local food constituting fresher food is well established in the literature (Feagan et al. 2004; Selfa & Qazi 2005; Wolf et al. 2005; Zepeda & Deal 2009; Hall 2013; Sadler et al. 2013; Spilková et al. 2013; Dodds et al. 2014). As noted in Chapter Three, the general consensus among chefs is that freshness of local foods improves flavour and taste (Curtis et al. 2008). This research reinforces earlier observations that chefs consistently report freshness and taste as their most important purchasing criteria (Inwood et al. 2009).

Another key motivation that was uncovered in both the survey and interviews was the importance of supporting local farmers/vendors in the region. Several studies have reported supporting local farmers as the primary reason to purchase locally (e.g. FPC 2003; Strohbehn & Gregoire 2003; Zdorovtsov et al. 2007; Green & Dougherty 2008; Duram & Cawley 2012). As noted in Table 5.8, respondents from both samples rated this attribute as one of the main reasons for shopping at farmers’ markets. However, in the survey, differences were revealed in terms of motivations to purchase from farmers’ markets. Vancouver respondents expressed more desire to support local farmers/vendors, possibly reflecting a stronger sense of community than

Christchurch respondents. The high level of support for farmers seems to indicate a willingness to preserve local food production, or, at least, may indicate an awareness of its importance. As one respondent noted, “I like to support local growers and support local people. If you want to be in the community you need to support them because at the end of the day they are the local people who are going to eat your dishes. So that’s why you need to buy from the locals to sell to the locals” (Christchurch, R46). Nevertheless, the majority of respondents from both samples have a strong motivation to contribute to local businesses. As one restaurant manager stated, “We like to keep the money in our community” (Christchurch, R51).

Previous research has shown that the purchase of local foods by restaurants helped strengthen the local economy (Benepe 2002; Starr et al. 2003; Zdorovtsov et al. 2007; Green & Dougherty 2008). Individual consumers who purchase locally grown foods also perceive they are supporting local business, the community and economy (Selfa & Qazi 2005; Guthrie et al. 2006; Roininen et al. 2006; Painter 2008; Seyfang 2008; Feagan & Morris 2009; Zepeda & Deal 2009; Bean & Sharp 2011). Similarly in this study, helping the local economy was also considered a benefit of participation in the local food system. The findings of the present research are consistent, for example, with Casselman’s (2010) study which found aiding the local economy was perceived as the most important benefit among respondents in all catering sectors. Similarly, Strohbehn and Gregoire (2002) reported that the perceived retention of revenue in the community was a positive impact of local purchasing by food service establishments. Winter (2003) even indicated that interest in supporting community farmers and the local economy was often more important than freshness or taste. Comparisons between Strohbehn and Gregoire (2002) and the present study even suggest that the level of motivation to support local businesses has not changed much in the intervening years. This research therefore further reinforces the significance of generating a positive impact on the local economy as a motivation for local food purchase by restaurants.

The perceived quality of local foods was also found to be a strong motivator for purchasing local foods from farmers’ markets in both samples. The result provides further support for previous studies that established perceived quality as an important characteristic in local purchasing by restaurants (e.g. Benepe 2002; FPC 2003; Starr et al. 2003; Thilmany 2004; Green & Dougherty 2008; Inwood et al. 2009; Curtis & Cowee 2009; Casselman 2010; Duram & Cawley 2012; Reynolds-Allie & Fields 2012; although see Strohbehn & Gregoire 2002 and Zdorovtsov et al. 2007 as exceptions). Consumers shopping at farmers market and other direct markets also identify quality as a factor in local food purchase (Wolf et al. 2005; Guthrie et al. 2006; Dodds et al. 2014). The current research indicates the majority of respondents are able to obtain higher

quality of food products from farmers' market vendors (see Table 5.8), although it was not the most significant motivation for respondents in local purchasing. Instead, for restaurants, the quality of foods purchased is almost treated as a "given". Nevertheless, this research does reinforce earlier arguments that restaurants that purchase local foods are most likely to find them to be good quality with the potential to improve bottom line profits (Reynolds-Allie & Fields 2012; Sharma et al. 2014).

The opportunity to purchase locally grown food products was also found to motivate foodservice establishments' selections from farmers' market vendors, reflecting findings elsewhere (e.g. Starr et al. 2003). In this study, Christchurch respondents rated this attribute as more important than those in Vancouver (see Table 5.8). Previous research, such as the FPC's (2003) study, found that purchasing locally grown food products was considered profitable by nearly three quarters of the respondents in a survey of Chef's Collaborative members. Their reason for purchasing locally grown foods from farmers included positive relationships with local farmers, superior quality, freshness, customer demands, and the availability of speciality or uniqueness of the products. Curtis and Cowee's (2009) study also rated locally produced products as being of "somewhat important" range to local food purchasing by restaurants. The result of the present research shows that respondents see the value in making locally grown food purchases and expressed their strong support for locally grown food products.

Previous research on consumers found that different factors e.g. product attributes, safety, organic, and natural attributes, influence consumers' willingness to pay (WTP) an extra premium for locally grown food products (e.g. Sobal et al. 2006; Darby et al. 2008; Pirog & McCann 2009). In the present study a majority of the respondents from both samples stated that they would be willing to pay extra for locally grown food products with particular attributes (see Table 5.26). Both groups of respondents in this study placed importance on "Product attributes (taste, quality, appearance, and freshness)", "Support to the local economy", "Support to small local vendors and farmers", and "Environmental sustainability". The attribute "Product labelled as locally grown" was more important for Christchurch respondents than Vancouver. Results from this research confirm that restaurants and chefs from both samples value sustainable practices in locally grown food products, including a willingness to pay an extra premium for such produce. As one Vancouver area chef stated, "Yes, I would be and I do pay more for locally grown product. It's more that when it's organic and farmed in ethical and with fair wages being paid, the cost can inevitably rise. Vancouver has some expensive land, which also adds to the costs and all the farms I deal with pay a living wage" (R11). The overall result is similar to that

of Inwood et al. (2009). However, their study also indicated that high volume local food users were willing to pay more for local foods compared to medium and low volume user restaurants in Ohio. The present research did not find such an overall relationship although cuisine style, which was not examined in the Inwood et al. (2009) research, did indicate some effect on willingness to pay.

Interesting differences were identified among the different cuisine style restaurants with respect to their willingness to pay for local foods (see Table 5.27). In Vancouver, 34.92% of Canadian (including contemporary Canadian cuisine) cuisine style restaurants indicated they were willing to pay more for local foods compared to only 14.28% of European, 9.52% of Asian, and 4.76% of “Other” cuisine style restaurants. In Christchurch, 22.34% of New Zealand (included contemporary New Zealand cuisine) cuisine style restaurants reported a willingness to pay extra followed by 28.72% of Asian, and 8.51% of European, with 4.25% of “Other” cuisine style restaurants. It appears that in “Other” cuisine style restaurants from both samples, that primarily includes Mexican, caterer, fish and chips, and vegetarian types of cuisine, concerns with price may be a severe factor limiting them paying more for local foods from local sources. The impact of the different cuisine styles offered by restaurants on local food purchase has been little studied before and indicates a potentially significant area of future research as it may reflect not only the significance of local foodways that are partly determined by what can be grown locally but also social networks. In addition, this study only identified different cuisine style restaurants willingness to pay more for locally sourced food products from a given list of different products, which may have limited participant choice. However, further research could investigate the relationship between the different cuisine style restaurants and price levels.

Results from this research also confirm that despite the presence of strong local food initiatives in Vancouver, there were some differences found among the respondents. Several respondents had a favourable response to these initiatives and stated that they are aware of these initiatives and support some of them. However, they acknowledged that these initiatives do not make any difference to accessing local food products, and they are instead used as a promotional tool. As one executive chef commented, “They do not really make any difference in terms of access, but they do make a difference in terms of marketing and choices we make to support certain products and suppliers” (R4). A restaurant manager offered a similar critique, “Not only it is good for obvious ethical reasons; it can be a promotional tool as more and more people want to see this” (R17). These comments clearly demonstrate the importance of local food initiatives as a marketing tool.

Other studies have indicated that purchasing locally grown food has had a positive impact on foodservice establishment's bottom line profits (FPC 2003; Reynolds-Allie & Fields 2012). A majority of the respondents from both samples in this study stated that "purchasing locally grown food has a positive impact on my establishment's bottom line profit" (see Table 5.28). The result reinforces earlier arguments that have shown that selling locally grown food products through menus is a profitable business practice. The result from this study indicates that this could be significant information for local farmers as a selling point themselves when contacting the potential restaurants and chefs for marketing their products in a business to business alliance.

Farmers

Personal satisfaction, product appreciation, and higher prices for products were the major perceived benefits and/or motivations reported by farmers for selling to restaurants and chefs in both samples. Vancouver and Christchurch respondents aim to maximise their share of the food dollar through marketing to foodservice businesses. As one farmer stated, "They are totally supportive and they don't try its low value and it's like I like that. They are ready to pay above the market price. That's why I really like about restaurants and you know its booming the restaurant things and it is growing and growing" (Vancouver, F4). The current findings therefore reinforce research that suggests that farmers preferred to sell to restaurants to receive a price premium for their products and improve their cash flow (Sharma et al. 2012). Similarly, in a Swedish study, Nilsson (2016) also reported that farmers who sell direct to restaurants in the same region receive higher prices than through conventional sales channels.

Wholesale distributors

The interviews with wholesale distributors in both samples indicated that sourcing from local farmers was motivated by a desire to support local farmers/economy/community, customer demands, and providing fresher food products. The very limited previous research on the role of wholesale distributors in local food systems (Starr et al. 2003; Karp Resources 2012; Self et al. 2012) also suggested that wholesalers viewed the importance of sourcing local foods primarily in terms of improving their relationships with local communities. This study also found that wholesalers took an active role in sourcing local products and fostering partnerships with local farmers in order to provide restaurants and chefs with local produce. This study suggests that the local food movement and high demand from customers, restaurants and chefs also provide economic opportunities for farmers through direct marketing to wholesale distributors whose role in supplying foodservice operations is vital and has often been ignored in previous local

food studies. Other benefits reported by wholesalers in this study included less expensive, higher quality, better taste and flavour, availability (easy to buy quickly), faster delivery, and supplier loyalty. Many of these benefits were recognised in Starr et al. (2003). This research also suggests that sourcing locally can potentially lower distributors' transportation costs and local distributors may also benefit financially because of the potentially lower cost of products in some cases. As one manager commented, "It is cheaper to get locally because it does not have freight components" (Christchurch, W16). However, unlike Starr et al.'s study (2003), identification of quality factors, better taste and flavour, faster delivery and supplier loyalty were unique to this research.

Overall, the findings indicate that stakeholders described numerous social interactions, economic factors, and ethical reasons for participating in local food chains. Social interactions among stakeholders potentially support the development and expansion of economic interactions between farmers, restaurants, and wholesale distributors. A considerable level of value creation by stakeholders has been gained through cooperation. Stakeholders also perceive local food as part of a community building effort, which creates a positive image for their operations. However, from a broader integrated perspective local food systems enhance the society with respect to local food security and environmental benefits.

8.4 Perceived Benefits of Purchasing Local Food Products from Wholesale Distributors

Restaurants and chefs

The survey results revealed that a number of procurement sources were used by restaurants and chefs for their local products procurement in both samples, including purchasing from farmers, farmers' market vendors, and wholesale distributors (see Table 5.4). Purchasing products directly from wholesale distributors was the most preferred supplier source for locally grown products in both samples, often because of the convenience related to time, price, and assurance of consistent quality and quantity, product variations, supply issues and "one stop shopping" (see Tables 5.5, 5.16). As one executive chef commented, "Because of the convenience, you know your order is going to be on timely manner, you know they have a commitment and then quality will be checked and consistent... you are totally worried free on that side" (Vancouver, R25). Another head chef remarked, "Better pricing, easy delivery, and easy payment options, there are lot of advantages" (Vancouver, R28). Thus, buying regional products through wholesale distributors was widely viewed as the most attractive and effective way to make time

requirements manageable by restaurants and chefs in this study (see also Reynolds-Allie & Fields 2012; Schmit & Hadcock 2012).

Regardless of the current level of their local food purchases, all restaurants employed at least one kind of wholesale distributor, while the majority of the restaurants purchased through multiple distributors for specific products. This finding reinforces previous studies which reported that restaurants and chefs prefer to use multiple wholesale distributors for their purchasing because of the convenience (Strohbehn & Gregoire 2002; Inwood et al. 2009; Casselman 2010; Duram & Cawley 2012; Schmit & Hadcock 2012; Howieson et al. 2013; Kang & Rajagopal 2014). Another reason for the distributors' preference is that many restaurants and chefs who were interviewed have valued personal relationships with their distributors. One respondent summarised the basis for this preference explaining, "Because we have a good relationship, they give us good quality products, good prices, and consistency of the products, these are really important to me" (Christchurch, R42). This is also reflected in previous studies that have shown that social relationships influence purchasing from distributors (Starr et al. 2003; Duram & Cawley 2012; Schmit & Hadcock 2012).

While personal relationships with wholesale distributors were valued by many restaurants and chefs, the qualitative findings also indicated several barriers with regards to the choice of distributors. Inconsistent quality of products, on-time delivery of orders, product shortage information, and price fluctuations were major concerns among respondents in both Vancouver and Christchurch. As one head chef remarked, "Sometimes there is quite limit on the products of what they can offer you because we are not directly dealing with the people who grow it, it's like a lack of information for example during the summer time we are running a special for Asparagus and all of a sudden it is not available and they do not inform us and that does affect us" (Christchurch, R43). However, the main point here is that restaurants and chefs are already participating in this avenue to source their local foods. Issues of consistency of product quality, ability to meet delivery deadlines, and stable fair prices were the priority in the supplier selection process in both samples (see Table 5.25). These potential barriers pose significant challenges in increasing the distribution of local farm products (Strohbehn & Gregoire 2003; Woods et al. 2006; Curtis & Cowee 2009; Casselman 2010).

8.5 The Importance of Social Relationships

Restaurants and chefs

Social interaction is an important motivation for purchase of local food. Participation in local food systems facilitates business relationships between restaurants and farmers, and further increases stocks of social capital. These relationships can be established through face-to-face interaction at farmers' markets, word of mouth, and other social events. The research revealed that many restaurants and chefs from both samples have developed trust and rapport with the farmers through face-to-face interaction and local food products were sourced as a result of their personal relationships. For some restaurants and chefs, finding local food products may have been difficult, if not impossible, without these personal relationships. Restaurants and chefs agreed that personally knowing their farmer suppliers did have a positive influence on their purchasing decisions and also influenced their customer relations; as it meant restaurants and chefs could be flexible to adapt their customer preferences. More personal or intimate relationships between farmers and chefs also appeared to contribute to greater consistency in the quality of products, transparency in transactions, and price competitiveness. As such, social values have become embedded in the products that are sourced from farmers. The development of trust and rapport over time has meant that such relationships are often mutually beneficial. The importance of personal relationships between farmers and/or farmers' market vendors in positively influencing the acceptance of local foods has been identified in a number of studies (e.g. FPC 2003; Starr et al. 2003; Krieger 2006; Duram & Cawley 2012). Nilsson (2016) also found that personal relationships are important not only for receiving a higher or better quality product but also for influencing considerations of animal welfare. This research also reinforces earlier suggestions that developing strong personal relationships based on trust was the key to successful long-term supplier partnerships (Strauss 1999; Brownell & Reynolds 2002) as well as B2B relations (Zabkar & Brencic 2004; Gounaris 2005). Similarly, the results highlighted the importance of interaction between producers and consumers as a core element of farmers' markets (Hinrichs 2000; Hinrichs et al. 2004; Feagan et al. 2004; Kirwan 2004; Hall 2013).

Farmers

Farmers also valued their personal relationships with restaurants and chefs for their own sake, over and above any commercial benefits they may gain from this interaction. This research therefore confirms Ilbery and Maye's (2005) argument that the establishment of good personal relationships with customers is critically important for farmers. In this study, many farmers from both samples have stated that they are very satisfied with their customers (restaurants and chefs)

in terms of the personal and working relationships they have established, as well as with the level of profitability for selling to them. One farmer explained, “For two years now we have been selling our products regularly to some of the chefs. They became kind of friends either they bought something from me or not? For us it was important to have a steady you know how many restaurants we supply, our farmers’ market support me to source the income but our relationships with the restaurants are very steady and became strong with them” (Vancouver, F6). Another farmer from Christchurch offered a similar comment, “I have some chefs whom I know them almost 15-20 years and they have left the city due to the earthquake and now they are coming back and they rang and say oh you still survive and they say now I am back again you know such things. So I do have very good relationship with them and it has built up over a time” (F20). Thus, the existence of personal relationships provides economic opportunities for farmers through direct marketing outlets such as farmers’ markets and selling direct to restaurants and chefs (see also Dougherty et al. 2013).

Wholesale distributors

This research also found that wholesale distributors considered the influence of personal knowledge of their supplier (farmers and other producers/suppliers) to have an effect on their purchasing decisions because of trust, product confidence, transparency, price flexibility, commitment to work together, and knowing the origin of products. The influence of personal knowledge of their supplier also has an effect on their customer relations with wholesale distributors being more flexible in accommodating their customer (restaurants and chefs) preferences. As with other actors in the local food system, the relationship with farmers and/or other suppliers developed over time allowing confidence and trust in suppliers. Indeed, in the interviews with one owner of a wholesale distributor acknowledged that having a good personal relationship with farmers afforded him a continuous guaranteed supply of products, as commented, “For us we got really very good relationship and they know what we want and it is good for them because they know they have got steady customer to take a good chunk of their products” (Christchurch, W15). Previous research on B2B relationships also identified trust as central to successful relationships leading to higher levels of loyalty to the bargaining partner and thus to increased profitability because trust encourages partners to co-operate, by seeking long-term benefits and refraining from opportunistic behaviour (Anderson & Narus 1990; Anderson & Weitz 1992; Morgan & Hunt 1994; Geyskens & Steenkamp 1995). The result of this study is in line with previous foodservice studies that have shown that trust is the key element in developing a strong relationship between purchasers and suppliers (Brownell & Reynolds 2002). They also found that trust influences relationship commitment and purchasers

often make decisions with their suppliers who are perceived to be the most trustworthy in a given market. Crotts et al. (2001) indicated that social bonding was the strongest predictor of trust which was significantly correlated with commitment, arguably an important measure of success in restaurant purchasing relationships with their wholesale suppliers. Therefore, the findings of this research suggest that personal relationships are also clearly important to wholesale distributors as a means of developing trust in the farmers and/or suppliers they are buying from (see also Lindgreen 2003).

8.6 Production Standards

Another key result of this study relates to the relationships between foodservice establishments perceptions of farming and interest in local foods. In many developed countries consumer concerns about industrialised farming systems and their associated impacts on the environment, animal welfare and small-scale farmers, is leading them to buy local food and/or engaging them in alternative food systems (Marsden et al. 2000, Hinrichs 2000; Selfa & Qazi 2005; Conner et al. 2009; Tobin et al. 2012). The results of this research lend further support to this notion, as respondents from both samples have made clear significant concerns as to how specific production practices are used for growing local foods. Certified organic producers were more frequently used than conventional and non-certified organic producers in this research. Organic growing methods are therefore an important criteria for local purchase (Woods et al. (2006; Inwood et al. 2009). However, there are clear regional differences in restaurant preferences (e.g. Curtis & Cowee 2009) that may arise from characteristics of the local food system (Gössling & Hall 2013). In the survey component of this research, ideas' regarding food miles (Pirog & Paskiet 2004) was more important for Christchurch respondents than those from Vancouver as motivation for purchasing local foods from farmers' market vendors (see Table 5.8). However, in the qualitative component, and similar to Inwood et al. (2009), none of the restaurants and chefs mentioned food miles as motivations for purchasing local foods from farmers and/or farmers' market vendors.

8.7 Perceived Barriers in Local Food Procurement

Restaurants and chefs

This research found that “Inadequate availability” and “Too time consuming to locate sources” were the two major barriers for restaurants and chefs that did not purchase local foods from both samples. These themes are echoed throughout the literature (Strohbehn & Gregoire 2002, 2003;

Woods et al. 2006; Hardesty 2008; Curtis & Cowee 2009; Casselman 2010; Reynolds-Allie & Fields 2012), while similar to FPC (2003) and Sharma (2014), “Cost too high” was not the determinative factor for purchasing from local sources in the survey. However, in line with previous studies (e.g. Inwood et al. 2009; Reynolds-Allie & Fields 2012; Schmit & Hadcock 2012; Dougherty et al. 2013), the qualitative findings clearly underlined the importance of cost as a key determinant when purchasing local food products from local sources in both samples in this research. Moreover, the small number of respondents from both samples in this study who did not purchase locally (7.24% in Vancouver and 2.08% in Christchurch) was mainly attributable to “Inadequate availability” and “Too time consuming to locate sources” (see Table B2 in Appendix B). However, the importance rating for the “Too time consuming to locate sources” attribute was statistically indistinguishable from neutral, where Vancouver respondents were less concerned about this factor than Christchurch respondents. Several respondents also mentioned that inconsistent quality of products kept them away from purchasing locally (see also Woods et al. 2006; Curtis & Cowee 2009). The results give an indication that these establishments had made previous purchases and were not satisfied with farmers or they assumed quality would be inconsistent.

The qualitative results showed that the majority of the respondents from both samples placed greater importance associated with price (cost of food products), seasonality (year round availability or volume issues), and logistics of transportation and delivery of the food products when they purchase from farmers and/or farmers’ market vendors. This study confirms that these are common barriers for foodservice establishments in local food purchase (FPC 2003; Starr et al. 2003; Kirby et al. 2007; Zdorovtsov et al. 2007; Curtis et al. 2008; Curtis & Cowee 2009; Inwood et al. 2009; Peterson et al. 2010; Schmit & Hadcock 2012; Nilsson 2016). In contrast to the results from this study, Starr et al. (2003) found that only 18% of foodservice buyers ranked price alone as their prime priority, while price did not emerge as a significant factor in their statistical analysis. Indeed, Schmit and Hadcock (2012) and Sharma et al. (2014) found paying higher prices to farmers was not problematic for restaurants for local foods. Sharma et al. (2014) also argues that the cost of local foods depends on seasonality and crop conditions at a particular purchasing time, as well as willingness to purchase large volumes, both of which influence market prices. However, in this study it appears that price may be one of the most important factors in limiting the adoption of local foods. Restaurants feel that prices requested by farmers are too high relative to the costs they can pass on to their customers. As commented by one respondent, “It always difficult because it is hard for me to pass the costs on to the customers” (Christchurch, R43). On the other hand, farmers are less reluctant to offer lower prices as they

feel delivery costs are not sufficiently accounted for if small volume/quantities of products are ordered from them.

In the survey, price was identified as the third most important obstacle among the respondents who purchased local food from farmers' market vendors in both samples (see Table 5.15). The result confirms prior local food B2B research showing that institutional foodservice operators were more concerned about product cost than commercial food buyers when purchasing local food from farmers (Strohbehn & Gregoire 2003). In this research it appears that both restaurants and farmers identify the price signals of local foods as a major barrier. In order to improve this situation, restaurants may need to understand the additional costs for small-scale production and delivery, and modify their price expectations accordingly. On the other hand, farmers must recognise that restaurants are purchasing inputs, not finished commodities. Thus, both restaurants and farmers that participate in local food systems may perceive economic benefits. Price agreement may also be addressed at least in part by better promotion of readily available market information on prices in the local markets (Peterson et al. 2010).

The logistics of transportation and delivery of local food products were identified as a significant barrier to restaurants and chefs in procuring local foods (see Table 5.16), a factor identified in previous research as one of the greatest barriers foodservice establishments encounter when purchasing directly from farmers (FPC 2003; Woods et al. 2006; Kirby et al. 2007; Zdorovtsov et al. 2007; Dougherty et al. 2013; Pillay & Rogerson 2013; Nilsson 2016). However, Strohbehn and Gregoire (2002) and Curtis and Cowee (2009), found issues with delivery less problematic (a mid-level obstacle), while Starr et al. (2003) and Schmit and Hadcock (2012), found delivery to be only a minor problem for restaurants buying from local sources. Although issues of distribution and/or delivery were noted by many respondents in the survey, this study identified a small group of interviewees from both samples that considered distribution and/or delivery an important issue but not a paralysing one. However, these groups of respondents also expressed greater willingness to use local foods if the farm delivered to their restaurants. Delivery is perceived as difficult for small farmers who do not have the time or money to buy necessary delivery equipment. To this end, and as suggested by Schmit et al. (2010), co-operative marketing strategies and purchasing arrangements by groups of farmers and/or restaurants may be beneficial in addressing this. A further issue in comparing the results of this and other research are the different geographical factors, such as transport networks and patterns, which affect the distances and times between locations in a region. The impact of such issues on local food delivery has been little considered in the literature.

With respect to seasonality (year round availability and/or volume), this research reinforces that volume requirements can be problematic due to the season. Insufficient volume was identified as the most important obstacle among the respondents who adopted the local food from farmers' market vendors in both samples (see Table 5.15) for further development of local food systems. Volume requirements were also identified as the significant barrier for the foodservice establishments who do not buy from farmers and/or farmers' markets among the respondents in both samples (see Tables 5.5, 5.16). The qualitative findings further showed that respondents from both samples placed great importance on this issue when they purchase from farmers and/or farmers' market vendors (see also FPC 2003; Starr et al. 2003; Kirby et al. 2007; Curtis et al. 2008; Inwood et al. 2009; Peterson et al. 2010; Dougherty et al. 2013). In addition, similar concerns were also voiced by farmers in both samples. Farmers are often faced with issues of product availability due to seasonal variation, an issue that cannot be addressed easily, while foodservice establishments need to be aware of the full range of locally grown food products available in their region.

As indicated by the survey results, restaurant and chef satisfaction with current wholesale distributors creates barriers for local farmers and/or farmers' market vendors to include local food products in their direct distribution. Being "Satisfied with current distributors" was found to be a significant factor as to why local food products were not purchased directly from farmers and/or farmers' market vendors for both groups of respondents. This finding is in accordance with some previous research (e.g. Reynolds-Allie & Fields 2012) but not others (e.g. Schmit & Hadcock 2012). A comparison between Schmit and Hadcock's (2012) study and this research suggest that the "Satisfied with current distributors" factor was highlighted as being significant. However, the Vancouver respondents who did not purchase directly from farmers' market vendors were significantly different from Christchurch respondents in this research (see Table 5.5). In addition, 68.05% of the respondents were satisfied with current distributors in Christchurch and did not purchase from farmers directly, compared with 36.36% of respondents in Vancouver (see Table 5.16). As noted above, most respondents in the present study appeared to have benefited from current distributors due to the convenience, reliability, wide range of products, and one-stop shopping. Hence, these conditions favour wholesale distributors, or it may be assumed that these respondents found obstacles with year round availability, working with multiple farmers/vendors, safety issues, product costs, on-time delivery and payment procedures that limit the expansion of local food adoption directly from farmers and/or farmers' market vendors. Foodservice buyers consider all these criteria when selecting their suppliers

(Feinstein & Stefanelli 2005; Murphy & Smith 2009; Casselman 2010; Feenstra et al. 2011). Strohbehn and Gregoire (2003) found that when chefs have information about availability, packaging size, production cost, timely delivery and time of the day food is delivered, they were more likely to purchase local products. Strohbehn and Gregoire (2003) also concluded that foodservice operators faced drawbacks to working with multiple suppliers when having to deal with arrangements for timely delivery, as well as working within a set budget and organisational payment procedures. This research suggests that local farmers can help to offset these obstacles by offering relevant information as well as being more aware of foodservice operators need for convenience, especially as not having the time for dealing with multiple farmers is an important discriminating attribute of local food usage for some restaurants, although Christchurch respondents rated this factor more important as compared to Vancouver respondents (see Tables 5.5, 5.16).

This research confirms that “Limited market days and hours of operation” was rated as the most important inhibitor of more frequent visits or greater purchases from farmers’ market vendors for both groups of respondents, reflecting findings elsewhere (e.g. Inwood et al. 2009). However, no significant difference was found for this barrier between Vancouver and Christchurch respondents (see Table 5.15). The restaurant experience therefore mirrors that of the wider consumer (Hodges & Stevens 2013; Dodds et al. 2014). The findings in this research indicate that those establishments’ whose staff have greater flexibility in their schedule will have an easier time patronising farmers’ markets. The result suggests that longer hours of operation could make shopping at farmers’ markets more convenient and support greater purchase of local foods, although this also depends on the local context and situation of the vendors.

Wholesale distributors

In both the Christchurch and Vancouver samples, inadequate volume/quantity, inconsistent quality, and transportation of delivery were commonly considered by wholesalers as barriers or limiting factors for increasing local food in their inventory (see also Feenstra et al. 2011). The problem of wholesalers receiving consistent quality produce from farmers was also identified in Berkenkamp (2006). For wholesale distributors, a critical mass of customer demand as well as supply from farmers must often be in place in order to mitigate purchasing barriers for local foods. In order to address the deficiencies of inadequate volume/quantity, wholesale distributors and local farmers need to work closely to plan around availability of the products. Therefore, information flows and knowledge transfer between the farmers and wholesale distributors is essential for understanding each other’s needs and perspectives. In keeping with farmers’

interview responses, no policies (e.g. food safety and health standards regulations, liabilities insurance, and other licencing and certification) that regulated procurement were reported as barriers by wholesale distributors. Therefore, this study differs greatly from the findings of Berkenkamp (2006) on wholesalers and distributors in Minnesota, that found liabilities insurance was an important barrier for buying local products. Such a finding also reflects the importance of institutional factors in promoting or restricting local food purchase from smaller producers.

8.8 Perceived Barriers of Selling Local Food Products to Restaurants and Chefs

Farmers

With regards to barriers to greater sale of local foods, the qualitative findings revealed several diverse marketing barriers that were reported by farmers in both Vancouver and Christchurch. Barriers reported by farmers included lack of quantity or volume of the products that restaurants and chefs needed to purchase, the uncertainty of weather conditions, placing orders on-time, delivery costs, and cost of production. These barriers were also echoed throughout the literature (e.g. Benepe et al. 2002; Gregoire & Strohbehm 2002; Gregoire et al. 2005; Sharma et al. 2012; Nilsson 2016). However, among respondents, two financial barriers were consistently cited: cost of production and delivery costs. These findings also indicate that there were higher costs associated to farmers for delivery of products to the restaurants than when selling directly to the wholesalers or selling at the farmers' market to consumers. In contrast, farmers' market sales require less transportation and are confined to one location, thus reducing delivery costs. The current research therefore extends the empirical research work among farmers/producers groups and foodservice sectors (Gregoire & Strohbehm 2002; Gregoire et al. 2005; Sharma et al. 2012).

While several marketing issues were noted by farmers, the qualitative findings from both samples revealed that all farmers felt that they received a fair price for their products. Farmers believed it was in their ability to set their own price for higher quality products. A fair price was regarded as consisting of a fair return on their work and the real cost of production (i.e., wages, labour) plus a desired profit margin and matching other farmers' prices of the products.

Wholesale distributors

In this research social interactions and economic factors were revealed as vital benefits for wholesale distributors to participation in local food systems. The majority of the interviewed wholesale distributors stated that they sell local food products year round to restaurants and

chefs. However, two barriers were consistently reported: higher prices of the local food products (inconsistent and varying buyer-seller relationships) and product availability (due to uncertainty of weather conditions). The results showed that the distributors struggled between their recognition that farmers need to get fair prices to sustain their occupation and their own need to offer low prices to their customers (restaurants and chefs) to stay competitive. The distributors were aware of how much their buyers would pay for local products. When it came to the prices, the distributors were acutely aware of their responsibility towards their buyers and respected the fact that most of their clients' needed to re-sell the products to their consumers. One distributor stated, "I have seen prices jump 30%, 40%, or 50%. Sockeye salmon last year we saw increased of at least 30%. So some of the challenges are the people can't afford to keep these high price items and they are looking for alternatives to manage their food cost. So my challenge is to keep selling some of these products" (Vancouver, W6). Wholesale distributors are prioritising their buyer's needs in the food system. Nevertheless, working with higher-end restaurants may give distributors some flexibility to support farmers when seeking higher prices. This evidence reinforces the argument made in an earlier study that wholesale distributors often felt caught between offering fair prices to farmers and giving low prices to their buyers, with the latter being the most crucial for wholesale distributors' economic viability (Bloom & Hinrichs 2011).

Wholesale distributors mentioned that lack of quantity/volume demanded by local restaurants and chefs was another very challenging part in sourcing local foods. This reflects a recurring concern that farmers had of being able to supply restaurants and chefs the quantity/volume at which the foodservice establishments need to purchase. Generally, the business models for most wholesale distributors (foodservice) are based on large volumes and year round-supply. Thus, wholesale distributors need to be convinced that farmers can provide sufficient volume to satisfy their customer (restaurants and chefs) requirements and supply this volume reliably and consistently. However, it is often difficult for wholesale distributors to quantify the available supply of local products at any given time. As a result of seasonal variations, produce availability can vary by several weeks from the "usual" or may be cut short by weather fluctuations. Nevertheless, many wholesale distributors reported growing demand for local foods by restaurants and chefs and some wholesale distributors who are not presently working with small and medium-sized farmers may be willing to work with these farmers into their supply chain.

8.9 Supplier Selection Criteria

This study reveals some significant findings among the two samples with regard to supplier selection criteria (see Table 5.25). The most important factors when selecting a supplier were “Food safety assurances”, “Guaranteed consistent of product quality”, and “Ability to deliver quantity needed or ordered”. The “Food safety assurances” factor was the most influential among the four evaluated factors. Previous research has shown that local foods have been associated with several real (Grunert 2005) and perceived food safety concerns (Strohbehn & Gregoire 2005). Thus, “Food safety assurances” becomes a crucial concern for restaurants. The result of this study is in line with previous studies where “Food safety assurances” was considered more important than other selection criteria (e.g. commitment to customer service and ability to meet delivery dead line) by foodservice establishments (Casselman 2010), although food safety assurance was not the most important criterion in the selection of foodservice suppliers in other studies (FPC 2003; Strohbehn & Gregoire 2003; Woods et al. 2006), but it was indeed an important factor to consider from local and conventional sources. It is possible that the degree to which food safety is an issue depends on personal and local experiences of breaches of food safety that affect consumer confidence.

In regard to the “Guaranteed consistent of product quality” factor, significant differences were reported with Vancouver respondents rating this factor of lower importance than those from Christchurch (see Table 5.25). The results confirm prior studies that have shown that consistent quality products is one of the consideration factors for selecting foodservice suppliers (Woods et al. 2006; Casselman 2010) and reinforces earlier arguments that suggested that buyers should consider the suppliers quality consistency when evaluating suppliers, as selecting a supplier is critical in the development of long-term relationships (Coltman 1990; Corell 1992). Other research examining the purchasing practices of large foodservice organisations concluded that the most important attribute when selecting a supplier was consistent quality at reasonable prices (Reid & Riegal 1989). However, this research confirms that restaurants and chefs have very high standards of quality in general and are looking for quality from local suppliers; there are potential differences in notions of quality depending on the cuisine style and the restaurant market.

Previous research concluded that “Ability to deliver quantity needed or ordered” is an important factor when selecting a supplier in foodservice establishments (e.g. FPC 2003; Casselman 2010). The result of this study showed that Christchurch respondents indicated this factor as more

important than Vancouver respondents, and that foodservice establishments concern with this factor may limit their experimentation with local foods or they may just assume that the quantity would be inconsistent.

Other factors that did emerge as statistically significant were “Convenience in order process”, “Year-round availability”, “Products/ingredients knowledge”, “Products/ingredients fair prices”, “Ability to provide flexible payment procedures”, “Ability to provide wide range of food products/ingredients”, and “Ability to provide process/package food products/ingredients as requested”. These criteria have been widely discussed in past studies (FPC 2003; Strohbehn & Gregoire 2003; Gregoire et al. 2005; Woods et al. 2006; Murphy & Smith 2009; Casselman 2010). However, all these factors were rated as a less important consideration for Vancouver respondents than those from Christchurch.

8.10 Local Food Promotion

Taking the quantitative and qualitative results together, respondents from both samples indicated the importance of wait staff, menu descriptions, and/or other means of communication awareness (e.g. Facebook site, website, temporary flyers, banners, erasable black/chalk boards, cooking show on television) as communication tools when promoting local food to restaurants customers. Wait staff are the most commonly used promotional activity for local foods (e.g. Inwood et al. 2009; Murphy & Smith 2009; Alonso & O’Neil 2010; Sharma et al. 2014). Training of front and kitchen staff about local food has also been found to increase sales and, potentially, menu prices (Ortiz 2010). This study revealed that chefs were taking responsibility to educate their staff about local products to transfer information to potential customers for increased sales and awareness of local foods. However, in the qualitative findings, educational efforts were stronger about the merits of local food on the menu among the Vancouver respondents than Christchurch respondents. One restaurant owner stated, “Yes training is important because the front staffs are one who will communicate the concept to the customers and if they don’t communicate I would say more than 80% depend on them. You can just put the menu that may not work, but you know a bit of explanation, and staffs create the curiosity to the customer and tell to the customer what the local market and farmers, does help a lot” (Vancouver, R25). One chef explained, “By regular meetings. I do always menu tasting because they should know how it should taste and only then they can recommend to anybody. So if anybody asks a question, say for example fresh vegetarian roll we have, if staff does not taste it ever then they would not be in a position to answer your question how it taste like” (Vancouver, R16).

The training of chefs, managers, wait staff, and kitchen staff in some restaurants could be intensive with use of local food associated with having staff visit farms. A head chef remarked, "...it is important that I visit the farms and understands their agricultural practices. It gives me the clear picture of my products where it is coming from and how they grow the products so on for better understanding of the products I use in my cuisine" (Christchurch, R47). However, while this may be ideal, many respondents also recognised time constraints as well as the practicalities of undertaking such visits, especially for part-time staff.

In general, chefs are passionate about local food and want to pass their experience to the customers through wait staff (Murphy & Smith 2009). In order to do so, chefs want their staff to know from where the ingredients come and offer lessons on the characteristics of the ingredients, thus enhancing the diners experience about the local foods. However, this study found that this is a special challenge with seasonal staff and staff turnover, but all agreed that telling the story about the local food to the guests and having staff familiar with local ingredients enhances the guest experience. The wait staff's role in customer satisfaction is vital (Pratten 2003) by providing information on which customers can make the decisions about their food choice in the restaurant (Inwood et al. 2009), which potentially leads to an improved dining experience and increased return visits (Sharma et al. 2014).

The menu was also found to be a strong communication tool for local food promotion to the customers in the qualitative data (see FPC 2003; Murphy & Smith 2009; Inwood et al. 2009; Alonso & O'Neil 2010). Nevertheless, the menu as a communication tool was rated a less important consideration for Vancouver respondents than those from Christchurch (see Table 5.31). While the menu was commonly used by the respondents, for some interviewees, the attitude towards the use of this tool seemed to be less significant. One chef claimed, "I don't rely on menu as heavily some people do. I like keep verbiage on the menu very minimal so that if you have question or guest might have. It's up to the server to actually talk about the product and that's why the servers have to be educated well what they are serving" (Vancouver, R22).

Similar to Murphy and Smith (2009), this research also found that restaurants and chefs supported the notion of naming farmers on menus, whenever it was possible. A possible explanation for this occurrence is that it demonstrates a relationship with farmers and identifying farmers offers reassurance to customers and creates interest, thus enhancing the dining experience. In addition, name recognition may increase farm sales. As mentioned by one chef,

“...they get benefits from this. Because there are more name recognition. So more recognition they have and they get more business out of this” (Vancouver, R19). Another chef said that the motives for doing this, “I think ...it sort of helps to create brand and their business as well” (Christchurch, R59).

8.11 Future Prospects of Purchasing and/or Selling Local Food Products

Restaurants and chefs

This research has found that many respondents from both samples expect to increase their purchasing of different local food products from farmers’ market vendors and farmers in the future (see Tables 5.11, 5.21). However, the majority of respondents indicated no change in purchasing patterns in the short-term. The findings indicate that establishments are currently satisfied with their vendors and farmers they deal with and may not prefer to deal with a larger number of farmers and vendors because of the time, quality and supply issues involved (Smith & Hall 2003; Nummedal & Hall 2006; Schmit & Hadcock 2012). In the qualitative data respondents from both samples indicated that the conditions to increase their sources of local products from farmer, farmers’ market vendors and/or wholesale distributors included: adequate availability (volume/quantity/variety), cost effectiveness, unique/speciality products, customer demands, environment friendly products, and better logistics and delivery systems. One difference that was noted was that none of the respondents from Christchurch stated any concerns with the cost effectiveness of the local food products unlike some from Vancouver.

Farmers

Most of the interviewed farmers are interested in selling more of their products and want to decrease the wholesale distribution channel in order to maximise their revenue from direct selling to restaurants and chefs. However, for them, more consistent demand of local products, and the need to reach a bigger and more stable market were the key factors that should be met in order to expand their involvement in the local food system. This finding is similar to Gregoire et al.’s (2005) study, although as noted above, the issues of delivery and logistics is a significant barrier to working with restaurants and chefs. As one farmer stated, “I mean I get restaurant quite often asking us can you deliver the products then I say yes I do and then you do not heard anything more from them. It would be easier for us if they collect the products from farmers’ market but they do not want to do that. So that’s one of the reason I do need to supply directly from my farm to their restaurants. So I am quite happy to stay at the same” (Christchurch, F15).

Wholesale distributors

Among wholesale distributors, respondents from both samples have expressed their interest in increasing the amount of food products from local sources. However, they noted that to increase local food sourcing there needed to be better availability of products (volume/variety/new), better price, customer demand, and compliance with policies that would allow more value-added products to enter local foodservice establishments. It should be noted that many of these issues mirror those of Abatekassa and Peterson's (2011) discussion concerning the problems of establishing sustainable linkages with local wholesale distributors (restaurants provider) and local farmers. In this study, wholesale distributors expressed mixed reactions regarding the importance of increasing the amount of food products from local sources. Wholesale distributors, particularly from Christchurch, who were dedicated to selling local foods (especially fish) to restaurants and chefs considered logistics (distribution) as critical in increasing local food sources due to potential loss of quality and saw no way to address this issue, because it was out of the distributor's hand. "To get the fish from other place(s) in New Zealand takes nine to ten hours to come to us and the fish is one day old already or may be sometimes it takes two days of journey to reach to me. So we cannot keep the quality of the fish. So, we have no choice rather than stay with the present suppliers in Christchurch. So, I do not see in future for the more suppliers except if there are other suppliers taking the business along with the existing suppliers to sell the fish to us" (W9). Structural issues may be limiting more widespread distribution and adoption of local foods. In general, wholesale distributors prefer to purchase high volume food products from larger producers or through local food aggregators in order to remain price competitive and to ensure product quantity and quality, and minimising products safety related risks.

8.12 Chapter Summary

This chapter has discussed the main findings obtained from the quantitative and qualitative phases in this research. The restaurant and chefs' perceptions, motivations, and barriers and constraints of buying and promoting local food ingredients on their menus has been revisited, and both similarities and differences between the findings of this and previous research have been presented. The different governance, strategies and interventions that affected the use of local foods as well as the relationships between restaurants and chefs, farmers and/or farmers' market vendors, and wholesale distributors has also been outlined with specific reference to Vancouver and Christchurch. The next chapter draws the conclusions from this study and provides some implications for future research.

CHAPTER NINE

Conclusions and Future Research

9.0 Introduction

This chapter provides the conclusions of this research. The chapter is organised into five sections. The first section summarises the main findings. The second section indicates how these findings answer the research objectives stated in Chapter One. The third section elicits the contributions of this study from academic and managerial perspectives. Several limitations to the study are then acknowledged and recommendations proposed for future research. Finally, the main conclusions of this study are highlighted.

9.1 Summary of Research Findings

This research has examined restaurant and chef's perceptions, motivations, and barriers and constraints of buying and promoting local food ingredients on their menus. This research has also identified the different strategies and interventions that may affect the use of local foods as well as the relationships between restaurants and chefs, farmers and/or farmers' market vendors, and wholesale distributors in Vancouver and Christchurch. The contested notion of "local food" was explored (Chapter Two). This thesis found that definitions of "local food" vary in the literature with respect to geographical proximity (Pearson et al. 2011); relational proximity (Hinrich 2000; Self & Qazi 2005); social, economic and environmental proximity (Feenstra 2002; Feagan 2007); and value added proximity (Barham 2002). It also indicated that although interest in "local food" has resulted in a number of academic studies, little is known of how restaurants and chefs and wholesale distributors perceive "local food" from a hospitality context. The various proximities are generally not explored, although they are important as they contribute significantly and positively to the likelihood of purchasing.

Chapter Three provided a review of the literature on issues related to short food supply chains; motivations, barriers and opportunities in local food purchase; and the complexity of local food systems. Several benefits and barriers of direct marketing from the perspectives of farmers, wholesale distributors, and foodservice establishments were also examined, although the literature on wholesale distributors is extremely limited in quantity and scope. In addition, an empirical research gap was identified with respect to knowledge of producer-to-restaurant direct

marketing and supply relationships (including farmer's markets). Thus, the present study seeks to expand the knowledge in these areas from the perspective of foodservice establishments.

The selection of research methods and design was discussed in Chapter Four. This chapter also provided an overview of the study areas of Vancouver and Christchurch in a comparative context. The mixed methods (pragmatic paradigm) perspective was adopted in this study and has proven to be the most appropriate to achieve the objectives set in this study. Two phases of data collection were formulated for restaurant and chef respondents, while data on farmers and/or farmers' market vendors and wholesale distributors' was only conducted in interviews. A total of 759 questionnaires were mailed out to selected foodservice establishments in Vancouver, with 69 useable responses received, providing a response rate of 9.09%. In order to further contextualise the results, interviews with 31 restaurants and chefs, 12 farmers and/or farmers' market vendors, and six wholesale distributors were conducted in Vancouver. In Christchurch, a total of 455 questionnaires were sent out, with 96 completed questionnaires being returned contributing to a 21.09% response rate. This was also further enriched by interviews undertaken with 28 restaurants and chefs, eight farmers and/or farmers' market vendors, and ten wholesale distributors in Christchurch.

Both descriptive and inferential statistics were employed in this study and were presented in Chapter Five. Results showed that there was no consensus on the definition of "local food" among the respondents from both groups of samples (re-described). Results also showed differences in local food adoptions and barriers from farmers, farmers' market vendors and wholesale distributors. Common barriers for local food adoption from farmers' markets and farmers were cited by both samples and involved "Satisfied with current distributors", "Do not offer delivery", "Lack of time and staff to visit market", "Do not have time to contact several farmers", "Farms are too far away", and "Unsure of consistency of products delivery". "Fresher and higher quality food products", "Food products grown/produced locally", and "Supporting local economy" were strong motivations for local food adoption from farmers' markets among the respondents. Lack of availability and time were also cited as major barriers to purchasing locally, as was inconsistent delivery schedules by the respondents who did not currently make any local purchases. However, restaurant satisfaction with current wholesale distributors was an important influence on purchasing decisions and is a significant finding of the study with respect to local food purchase. The findings also gave a clear indication of substantial support by both groups of foodservice respondents for local food adoption from farmers, farmers' market vendors, and wholesale distributors, while identified barriers are primary obstacles to purchases.

In addition, many establishments mentioned that selling local food products through the menu is a profitable business practice. The majority of respondents from both samples also stated that they would be willing to pay extra for locally grown food products, for product attributes, and supporting local farmers and the local economy. However, significant differences were identified in analysing the two groups for different cuisine style restaurants in terms of willingness to pay more for local foods. From both samples, price was found to be a serious limiting factor for “Other” cuisine style restaurants while for the Canadian and the New Zealand cuisine style restaurants price was not nearly as important.

Interview results and discussions were presented in Chapters Six and Seven. Several barriers to participating in the local food system were highlighted. The four most frequently mentioned barriers were: cost of the food products, inadequate volume/quantity, inconsistent quality of the products, and the logistics of transportation and delivery of food products. Identification of the delivery system as an issue is consistent with several other studies (e.g. Strohbahn & Gregoire 2003; Gregoire et al. 2005) and, according to Inwood et al. (2009), seems to be recurring problem in expanding restaurant participation in local food systems. However, each group of stakeholders had different opinions as to what were the major barriers (Table 9.1).

Table 9.1 Summary of barriers to stakeholder participation in local food systems

Restaurants and chefs	Farmers and/or farmers’ market vendors	Wholesale distributors
Seasonality (inadequate volume/quantity)	Seasonality (inadequate volume/quantity)	Inadequate volume/quantity
Higher prices	Cost of production	Inconsistent quality
Logistics of transportation and delivery	Delivery costs	Logistics of transportation and delivery
Inconsistent quality	On-time order	Lack of logistical capacity
Time to be consumed to locate sources		Processing fees
		Higher prices

In spite of the barriers, there was overwhelming support for locally grown food products. Stakeholders described numerous social interactions, economic factors, and ethical reasons for participating in local food systems (Table 9.2). Several important distinctions emerged between the different actors in the food system with respect to involvement in local food. Restaurants and chefs appeared primarily motivated by a desire to support to the local community and their personal relationships with the local farmers. They associated local food with fresh and better quality. Wholesale distributors also described cost savings associated with less expensive and faster delivery of the products.

Table 9.2 Summary of benefits and/or motivations to stakeholder participation in local food systems

Restaurants and chefs	Farmers and/or farmers' market vendors	Wholesale distributors
Support to local farmers	Personal satisfaction	Support to local farmers
Support to local economy/ community/business	Products appreciation	Support to local economy/ community/business
Freshness	Higher prices	Freshness
Building of personal relationships	Building personal relationships	Building of personal relationships
Higher quality	Higher quality	Higher quality
Locally grown products	Freshness	Less expensive
Sustainable practices products	Personal commitment to environment	Customer demand
Reduce food miles	Ownership over the products	Availability (easy to buy quickly)
	Set own prices according to costs (fair price)	Better taste and flavour
	Stable and Predictable sale	Faster delivery
	Support to local farmers	Supplier loyalty

Similar to restaurants and chefs, farmers were driven by the economic benefits associated with branding food as local. Results with respect to supplier selection criteria showed that the three major supplier-selection criteria include “Food safety assurance”, “Guarantee consistent of product quality”, and “Ability to deliver quantity needed to order”. Results reveal that as opinion leaders, chefs utilise wait staff, menu descriptions and/or other communication tools (e.g. Facebook site, website, temporary flyers, banners, erasable black/chalk boards, and cooking shows on television) to promote local foods to customers. Many restaurants and chefs from both samples defined culinary tourism as either based on geographical proximity or on the symbolic qualities of particular products. Culinary tourism was seen as a growing force in the restaurant industry because interest in tasting local food ingredients is an important dimension of food experience for visitors. Chapter Eight discussed the main findings from the mail survey and interview sessions and highlights interesting findings.

Major findings based on the comparative element of the study

This study attempted to explore the relationships involved in the procurement of local food ingredients and how these shape restaurant menu offerings in the cities of Vancouver, Canada, and Christchurch, New Zealand. The findings demonstrated that local food is desirable and stakeholders show an interest in sourcing local food products. Vancouver has made enormous efforts in local food initiatives while, Christchurch, has few local policy interventions. There are also discrepancies among the stakeholders from both samples in defining and conceptualizing local foods, and in the extent of local food sourcing experiences and practices. The divergent

views and complexities in the perceptions of “local” indicates the uncertainties surrounding sourcing local food by stakeholders and the challenges of analysing local food systems.

In comparing Vancouver and Christchurch, results show that restaurants and chefs in both locations exhibit a great interest in social interactions (personal relationships) as an important motivation for purchase of local foods from farmers and/or farmers’ market vendors and wholesale distributors. However, desire to build working relationships with vendors at the farmers’ markets was considered to be more important by Christchurch respondents than those from Vancouver. In addition, their current long term relationships with these regional suppliers are seen as major hindrance to create new relationships with the local food suppliers. The willingness to pay more for local foods, however, is similar in both regions’ restaurant and chef respondents. While this factor is influenced by product attributes, sustainable practices and supporting social/community/economy attributes, for restaurants and chefs, inconsistent delivery schedule, incomplete product information/lack of awareness, product volume, and quality appears to be more of a challenge for Christchurch respondents than those from Vancouver in sourcing local foods from farmers and/farmers’ market vendors. Such barriers created the opportunity for wholesale distributors in both the regions to provide local foods to restaurants and chefs. It can be argued from these findings that, at least in the study areas, local foods have better market access through wholesale distributors than directly from farmers and/farmers’ market vendors.

Other limitations common to both regions for wholesale distributors purchasing local foods from farmers are inadequate volume/quantity, higher prices, inconsistent quality, and transportation of delivery of products. These were commonly considered as barriers or limiting factors for increasing local food in their inventory. Furthermore, the importance of policies (e.g. food safety and health standards regulations, liabilities insurance, and other licencing and certification) that regulated procurement of local foods have not been reported as major barriers to purchase and sell local food products among the stakeholders in both samples. Despite this, the results indicate that economic considerations, specifically fair prices for farmers was clearly central in both samples to the development of selling to restaurants and chefs. But personal satisfaction and product appreciation also motivated farmers for selling to restaurants and chefs in both samples. The recognition that restaurants and chefs would purchase higher priced products that are differentiated by both sensory and credence characteristics (e.g. quality products, fresher products, better shelf-life, better taste, greater variety and unique products, and certified organic products) is also essential.

9.2 Revisiting Research Objectives

In order to perform this study, three objectives were stated in Chapter One. This section outlines how the findings revealed in this study have addressed the research objectives.

Research objective one

The first research objective was to identify how the notion of local food is defined by restaurants and chefs, farmers and/or farmers' market vendors, and wholesale distributors. The findings suggested that the definition of "local food" is problematic. There are neither standards nor any widely accepted definition of "local food", and the participants give a wide range of responses. Respondents defined two broad types of attributes that may define local food: geographic or political boundary (province or region) lines and distance measures. These suggest that the meaning of local food varied greatly among restaurants and chefs, farmers and/or farmers' market vendors, and wholesale distributors by location within Vancouver and Christchurch. Therefore, these perceptions indicate (1) the uncertainty surrounding sourcing of local foods by restaurants and chefs and wholesale distributors, and (2) the challenges in analysing and understanding the local food systems. These findings broaden the hospitality literature in the perception of "local food", as very little has been reported about how restaurants and chefs and wholesale distributors perceive "local food" in a hospitality context, while a number of studies have examined how farmers and/farmers' market vendors perceive "local food" in a consumer context.

Research objective two

The second research objective was to identify the motivations and constraints surrounding the supply of local food to restaurants and chefs from farmers and/or farmers' markets vendors, and wholesale distributors. The results indicated that overall, there is interest in purchasing and/or selling local foods among the stakeholders. Along with intangible motivations such as supporting the local economy and local farmers, many other tangible benefits such as freshness and higher quality products were reported by both restaurants and chefs and wholesale distributors. Both stakeholders found building personal relationships with farmers are important for procuring local foods.

Farmers' greatest perceived benefits were personal satisfaction, product appreciation, higher prices, higher quality, and freshness, for selling to restaurants and chefs, while building personal relationships was also indicated as a benefit. The other main benefit reported by both farmers

and restaurants and chefs was related to the improved environment. Barriers to restaurants marketing as reported by farmers included cost of production, delivery costs, and on-time order. However, transport logistics and/or delivery of products from farmers and/or farmers' markets still remains as a barrier for local purchasing by restaurants and chefs. While, year round guaranteed availability of local foods due to the seasonality was reported as a key barrier among the restaurants, farmers, and wholesale distributors in both samples.

The study showed that no contradictory policy (such as food safety and health standards regulations, liabilities insurance, and other licencing and certification) regulating procurement and/or selling was reported as barrier among the stakeholders in both samples, while local food has been associated with food safety and liability concerns in local jurisdictions (Strohbehn & Gregoire 2005; Berkenkamp 2006; Pillay & Rogerson 2013). Thus, policy regulations were not the key factors to evaluate the buying and/or selling decision-making processes among the stakeholders. Restaurants and chefs and wholesale distributors, however, emphasised that they are accountable to their customers and it is important for their businesses, and therefore farmers must have these certifications with them.

Research objective three

The third research objective sought to investigate how restaurants and chefs promote local food on their menus. Both survey and interview findings have confirmed that menu descriptions and other means of communication tools (e.g. Facebook site, website, temporary flyers, banners, erasable black/chalk board, and cooking show on television) were important, and wait staff were important as opinion leaders for communicating information about local foods to their customers in both samples. The findings showed that chefs have taken on the responsibility to educate their staff about local foods and they sometimes meet for tasting and discussions of local ingredients (Murphy & Smith 2009). However, the study also found frustrations among the respondents towards seasonal staff and staff turnover in the Christchurch sample.

9.3 Contributions of this Research

9.3.1 Implications for the local food literature

This study has enriched the body of literature in hospitality and tourism studies in several ways. A substantial number of academic studies have been conducted that discuss how consumers and farmers interact directly (e.g. Kirwan 2004; Selfa & Qazi 2005; Bloom & Hinrichs 2011;

Vecchio 2010), although limited knowledge exists about relationships between hospitality businesses and farmers (Telfer & Wall 2000; Starr et al. 2003; Torres & Momsen 2004; Gregoire et al. 2005; Goss 2007; Zdorovtsov et al. 2007; Deale et al. 2008; Green & Dougherty 2008; Alonso 2010; Alonso & O'Neill 2010, 2011; Peterson et al. 2010; O'Donovan et al. 2012; Sharma et al. 2012; Schmit & Hadcock 2012; Dougherty et al. 2013; Pillay & Rogerson 2013), and little knowledge exists on the relationships between hospitality businesses and wholesale distributors (foodservice) in a local food supply context (Starr et al. 2003; Danenberg & Remaud 2009; Self et al. 2012; Lawley & Howieson 2015). However, the above studies are often separate in terms of aims and objectives. A significant empirical research gap exists with respect to knowledge of farmers' market-to-hospitality businesses direct marketing and supply relationships. This study is therefore one of the first to compare restaurants and chefs perceptions, motivations, barriers and constraints of buying and promoting local food ingredients on their menus. The comparative approach is also a contribution to the literature on local food, as is the investigation of the interrelationships between restaurants and chefs, farmers and/or farmers' market vendors, and wholesale distributors. The importance of the latter actor in the local food system is noted as being a particularly significant contribution to the literature on hospitality and local food.

This thesis has highlighted the reality of the restaurant – farmers' market relationship. The foodservice establishment's purchase local food from farmers' market vendors mainly because of fresher and higher quality food products and a strong commitment to supporting local farmers/vendors and the local economy. Furthermore, product availability, information on product availability, and higher product prices are identified as significant cited barriers in expanding purchases from farmers' markets.

This study also contributes to the hospitality literature by investigating the definition of "local food" among restaurants and chefs, and farmers and/or farmers' market vendors. Although many other fields including hospitality, marketing, and consumer behaviour acknowledge the definition of "local food" (Hinrichs 2003; Peterson et al. 2010; Vecchio 2010; Sharma et al. 2012; Trivette 2015; Gössling & Hall 2016a, 2016b), research investigating the antecedents and definition of "local food" in hospitality is limited, especially with wholesale distributors in the hospitality context (Abatekassa & Peterson 2011), and in providing comparisons between different actors in the same local food system.

Wholesale distributor motivation for purchasing from local farmers were mainly focused on quality, taste and flavour, faster delivery of the products, and farmers' loyalty, while transportation of delivery and absence of logistical capacity and processing fees were revealed as barriers. Restaurants and chefs purchase from wholesale distributors because of product quality, customer services, and fair prices, while price fluctuations were cited as a barrier for local food purchase from wholesale distributors. In contrast, concerns noted by wholesale distributors for selling to restaurants and chefs included inadequate volume/quantity, higher prices, and competitiveness with other distributors in respect of price and quality, and the direct delivery option by local farmers. Indeed, these have not been reported elsewhere in the literature.

The findings indicate that for farmers, the most important factor in explaining selling intentions to restaurants and chefs is for personal satisfaction and product appreciation, which is not consistent with the more general results of previous work (e.g. Starr et al. 2003; Alonso & O'Neill 2010; O'Donovan et al. 2012; Schmit & Hadcock 2012; Dougherty et al. 2013; Kang & Rajagopal 2014; Lillywhite & Simonsen 2014; Frash Jr. et al. 2015). The study also highlighted that maintenance of personal relationships is a necessary step in creating a successful business with restaurants and chefs, yet there has been little empirical research of this in the literature (Starr et al. 2003; Duran & Cawley 2012; Sharma et al. 2014).

9.3.2 Managerial implications

The outcomes of this research have several lessons and insights relevant to the practical development of the local food system and supply chain. This study shows a preference of restaurants for wholesale distributors from which is purchased the largest share of local food products, as they are able to efficiently and consistently provide products to restaurants. Similar to other studies (Inwood et al. 2003; Schmit & Hadcock 2012), such preference is not unique to restaurants. Restaurant satisfaction with wholesale distributors has created opportunities for local farmers to move greater volumes of their products through these channels. In general, restaurants are more familiar in procuring from wholesale distributors rather than working with a large numbers of farmers. This clearly may create some challenges for farmers in working with restaurants. However, restaurants as well as farmers recognise the time constraints that businesses face. Furthermore, farmers need to give greater attention to volume requirements, delivery schedules and food safety assurance with larger wholesale distributors.

While the price of the local food products did not appear to be a serious concern for some non-purchasers (restaurants and chefs), price was an issue for many respondents who are purchasing from farmers and/or farmers' market vendors. Local farmers therefore need to develop competitive pricing standards for similar products and this information needs to be made more readily available to encourage effective purchasing decisions. Many distributors tended to agree with restaurants and chefs regarding the higher prices of local food products. In addressing this, producers need to be aware of the way that price is communicated and address the perception that local food is expensive.

Many restaurants and chefs, farmers, and wholesale distributors interviewed noted seasonality issues as a key barrier to guaranteeing the availability of local food products year round. The weather conditions are beyond wholesale distributor and farmer control making it difficult for them to guarantee supply. In meeting this challenge, restaurants and chefs could develop purchasing contracts to ensure that wholesale distributors will provide local food products when it is available within agreed specifications. Hence, wholesale distributors would commit to buying from local farmers when the local products are available in the region. However, this strategy might create risks for both restaurants and chefs and wholesale distributors. Restaurants and chefs also need to stress to their customers that eating local food often implies that they are seasonal products (see FPC 2003 for an example of an educational and information campaign). Seasonality issues can also be reduced by more creative thinking by chain restaurants which traditionally have fixed menus. For example, instructing customers in advance about seasonal products can help chain restaurants to modify their menu choice according to item availability (Day-Fansworth et al. 2009).

There were also important insights for wholesale distributors in overcoming inadequate volumes of local food when buying from farmers, which has implications across a wide range of marketing activities including clearer promotion of local food, in particular making restaurants and chefs aware of availability. To alleviate volume issues, wholesale distributors may need to work more closely with local farmers in planning around product availability. For instance, if one area is not harvesting or if one area is affected by bad weather then alternative suppliers could be used to get the products on time. However, this requires improved collaboration and communication between wholesale distributors and local producers.

This study showed that most restaurants and chefs had rated transport logistics and/or delivery of products from farmers and/or farmers' markets as a barrier when it comes to local purchasing.

Delivery costs were also identified as a barrier to restaurants and chefs in procuring and selling local food products. This will continue to be a challenge for most small to medium size local farmers. In addressing this, advance purchase arrangements could help some farmers to pool resources and provide and promote a range of products in sufficient quantities (Gregoire et al. 2005). Cooperation can help reduce transaction costs and collective initiatives enable farmers to produce quality food without investing in excessive labour and/or capital (Verhaegen & Huylenbroeck 2001; Gooch 2006). Producer-Involved Distribution Systems (PIDS) can be considered another form of distribution that reduce the barrier of transportation and facilitates re-localisation. A traditional large distributor does not carry unique products as it requires special handling and services that PIDS can offer to their buyers. PIDS aggregate and market products from a number of farmers and organise the sale to buyers (e.g. restaurants). PIDS service allows the sharing of costs among several farmers for better services associated with storing, marketing, selling and transporting the products to the buyers (Stott et al. 2014).

This study indicated that social networks are extremely important for local food systems. Restaurants and chefs like the personal connection that can be developed with farmers; through farmers' markets, direct sales with farmers, recommendation from fellow operations, and events. Similarly, the FPC (2003) study recognised that respondents made local purchases in order to establish positive working relationships with the growers/producers. This research finding has clear implications for farmers who seek personal relationships with restaurants and chefs. Farmers need to go directly to the restaurants and chefs to provide and receive information and/or work closely with wholesale distributors to improve information flow. However, due to the fragmented nature of the value chain many small scale farmers, small wholesale distributors, and small food service establishments may face obstacles to do so. Tactics such as workshop mingles, farm and restaurant tours, and locally sourced food events can be useful mechanisms to bring producers, restaurants and wholesalers together (Brain et al. 2015).

While selling to restaurants and chefs is only one form of direct marketing, this approach could provide some useful marketing decisions for farmers to obtain larger and more stable direct accounts. In general, chain restaurants are unlikely to purchase locally grown food products as they are unable to make their own purchasing decisions (Starr et al. 2003). Hence, farmers seeking larger, stable, and direct markets should avoid chain restaurants and target buyers from other locally owned restaurants as they are more likely to purchase local products (Starr et al. 2003; Kirby 2006; Curtis & Cowee 2009).

This research also suggests that chefs need to take greater responsibility in educating their staff about local food products (Murphy & Smith 2009; Sharma et al. 2014). This education is critical to ensure information transfer to customers. If chefs want to increase their sales and awareness of local foods, they should focus on staff education. Local farmers could regard this is an opportunity by providing better information about local food products to restaurant management.

Finally, both restaurants and chefs and wholesale distributors can increase their participation in local food systems by developing market specific local food product purchasing specifications and guidelines. This will provide a clearer understanding about their requirements in regards to local food products.

9.3.3 Policy implications

The results of the study have policy implications as well. In this study, restaurants and chefs, farmers, and wholesale distributors clearly indicated several significant barriers to regional food supply. It is necessary to acknowledge some of the barriers and the role that public policy interventions can play in facilitating localisation and further contributing to the development of regional food systems.

City and local government planners can play a major role by developing policies, programmes, and planning frameworks that support local food systems (Mendes 2008; Morgan 2009). The American Planning Association's (2007) guide to community and regional food planning provides directions as to how municipal and regional governments can support greater local food procurement practices in urban centres. One way is via the facilitation of city planners, as city planners can play a major role in bringing together farmers, processors and those purchasing local food, such as foodservice establishment professionals and wholesale distributors under one umbrella to provide greater opportunities for market networks and can build the connections and relationships that already exist in the local food systems. Local government can also educate and raise awareness about local food issues and the opportunities they present for local and regional economies. NGOs (Non-governmental organisation) and other community groups focused on food issues also have a role in the food planning community and in engaging with different actors such as restaurants and chefs and wholesale distributors within the local food system (Morgan 2009). Promoting community gardens and promoting local businesses that utilise local foods could be other practical recommendations to alleviate local food security challenges (Hughes & Lew 2013). Depending on the jurisdiction and policy settings, other measures such as

financial incentives, purchasing agreements, or the creation of a local food policy council may also be appropriate. It should be noted that the City of Vancouver currently has a Food Policy Council that has made efforts towards local food business development in enhancing food security in the region and facilitates the incorporation of farmers, consumers, and restaurants and chefs into local food networks to build long term goals and actions. Christchurch does not have such a committee.

9.4 Limitations and Future Research

This study has several limitations and suggests several openings for future study. The research was based upon extensive quantitative and qualitative investigation of a representative sample in Vancouver and Christchurch. The foodservice establishments (restaurants and chefs) survey had a fairly low response rate, however the response rate achieved in this study was typical for the hospitality industry (e.g. Casselman 2010; Sharma et al. 2014). With the exception of restaurants and chefs, the number of semi-structured interviews with farmers and/or farmers' market vendors, and wholesale distributors was also relatively small although again comparable with a number of other studies (e.g. Feenstra et al. 2011; Self et al. 2012; Sharma et al. 2012). The opportunity to undertake similar comparable studies in other countries at a similar stage of development, or with more basic agri-food supply chain infrastructures therefore exists. In addition, findings from similar studies conducted in other parts of the country (either in Canada or in New Zealand) could be compared with the findings from this study to evaluate differences within and between regions.

This research focus was on foodservice establishments in urban markets. There is scope to expand and replicate the research to explore some of the perceptions, motivations, practices, and challenges that exist for rural foodservice establishments, as well as for local farmers to compare whether differences exist for their involvement in local food chains. Another set of questions that concerns the views and experiences of other actors such as consumers, especially in a rural context, would be worthwhile.

The responses received for this study was representative of independent, chain/corporate owned, and franchise establishments in both samples. Future research could investigate the differences between the sizes of the establishments (seating capacity and/or the number of covers that a restaurant does in a specified time period). Although no definitive relationship was observed from the data, the size of the establishments may be a significant factor in the amount of local

food purchases from local sources, as smaller/independently owned establishments appeared to tend to purchase more local products than larger establishments (see also Curtis & Cowee 2009). However, this relationship was clearly affected by the type of cuisine the restaurants specialised in.

In both samples, the quantitative research highlighted respondents' interest in the organic local food products category; it would be useful to know whether the farmers' perspectives in a particular region is consistent with foodservice establishments and the degree to which organic products are marketed locally. Similarly, research could be extended to examine the extent to which local food purchasing is driven by ethical decision-making and feelings of social responsibility.

This study suggested that selling approach and personal relationships with farmers was important to foodservice establishments. Future research may seek to explore various selling techniques used by local farmers when marketing their products to foodservice establishments. Foodservice establishments utilised menu, wait staff, Facebook and website, erasable black/chalk boards, and cooking shows to promote the concept of local food among their staff and customers. However, further research is required to examine the degree to which these strategies are able to create high awareness and sustained adoption of local food products.

For practical reason, such as limited time frame and scope of the research, formal menu and webpages analysis was not conducted in this study. Formal menu analysis may be conducted as an extension of this research to examine the idea of how restaurants in Vancouver and Christchurch value local food and how they advertise their use of local foods on menus. Furthermore, menu analysis could also examine how the restaurants promoted producers and regions on their menu and would allow the researcher to reveal the usage of local food as well as the extent to which local was used for product differentiation (Curtis 2008; Ortiz 2010).

In this research local food was considered as a "homogenous" product class. Additional research is necessary to investigate purchasing behaviour by foodservice establishments in different categories such as artisan food products that may reveal different results and may have more specific implications at an individual category level. The survey data was self-reported and this may present limitations on respondent's accuracy. The seasonal aspect of the foodservice industry could also have been a limitation. Survey data was collected in the summer months, a typically busy period for foodservice operations and thus presenting challenges on the ability to

collect all necessary data from surveys. Although the length and details in the survey may have presented limitations in that time constraints could have affected the accuracy and thoroughness of the responses provided, its approach did provide for the gathering of a depth of information unusual in local food studies in the hospitality industry. Further research should consider adopting a longitudinal research design that examine changes in the relationships involved in the procurement of local ingredients and how these shape menu offerings over time. Finally, while quantitative and qualitative approaches were used to capture data in this work, it would be beneficial for future studies to also consider observational and ethnographic research to understand the factors that may have influenced restaurants and chefs' perceptions, motivations, barriers and constraints of buying and promoting local food ingredients on their menus. Such research could also be important for examining copreneurship in small producers and restaurants as well as examining gender and lifestyle dimensions in the local food system (Hall & Rusher 2004; Bensemann & Hall 2010).

9.5 Concluding Remarks

This study examined the relationships involved in the procurement of local food ingredients from local sources and how these shape menu offerings. Results from surveys and personal interviews throughout the supply chain, from farm to foodservice establishments have provided a nuanced and comprehensive view of the opportunities and barriers existing in local food systems. Overall, this research reveals strong support by Vancouver and Christchurch restaurants and chefs towards the purchase of local food products from farmers, farmers' market vendors, and wholesale distributors, even though there is no consensus on exactly what local food means (Pearson et al. 2011; Hall 2013; Trivette 2015). There is also a positive attitude among the restaurants from both Christchurch and Vancouver towards increasing the number of farmers' market vendors and farmers they purchase local food products from in the future.

Findings indicated that the purchasing pattern of local food products from farmers and/or farmers' market vendors, and wholesale distributors varied greatly by foodservice establishments. Restaurants and chefs most valued product-related attributes are quality, freshness, and products grown locally with sustainable practices in their purchasing decisions from farmers and/or farmers' market vendors. Social interaction with farmers and/or vendors to enhance or increase social capital was particularly valued, as indicated by the strong emphasis on developing trustful relations. Purchasing through farmers market vendors or direct from farmers

allows chefs to seek personal connections and this was found to be essential to restaurants and chefs purchasing decisions in this study for both samples.

Despite the importance of personal relationships with farmers, the findings from this study showed that the most preferred method of purchasing local foods was through wholesale distributors that specialised in locally grown food products. This finding indicates that restaurants and chefs have better access to local foods through wholesale distributors than farmers and/or farmers' market vendors in both the study areas. Importantly, results showed that all foodservice establishments used at least one kind of wholesale distributor. This presented evidence that restaurant satisfaction with current wholesale distributors is an important purchasing factor, often because of convenience with respect to time, price, and assurance of quality and supply issues, and therefore this is clearly a potentially important channel for farmers to move their products through if they wish to supply local restaurants. This study indicates that local farmers should work collaboratively with wholesale distributors in including more local foods in their distribution. Thus, there is potential scope to further expand the sale of local foods to restaurants and thereby potentially developing another route through to consumers to embrace local foods. However, there are significant barriers that were revealed in this study that need to be managed, as well as the need for greater awareness of the potential role of wholesalers in encouraging local food purchases, which has not previously been emphasised in local food studies given the desire to shorten supply chains so as to increase returns to producers (Hall & Gössling 2013a, 2016a, 2016b). In addition, findings also indicate that restaurants and chefs long-term relationships with wholesale distributors are potentially a major hindrance in creating new relationships with local farmers. However, inconsistent quality, price, and on-time delivery of products also limits the expansion of local farm products in this channel. As already noted, many of these issues could be managed by providing price sheets for local and non-local for the same products, information sharing and delivery of products in a timely manner. In this study some wholesalers are not presently working with small and medium-sized farmers. However, they have expressed their interest in working with these farmers into their supply chain, future research could explore buying and selling behaviours among these interested wholesale distributors and farmers.

Overall, the findings indicate that access for local food products are mainly based on existing relationships and linkages between the supply chain actors (hereby restaurants and chefs and wholesale distributors) and the local farmers, that allow all the actors to build trust over time. Trust is a vital factor in business-to-business relationships. A substantial body of literature has

identified trust as a determining factor in business relations and social interaction. Such findings describe trust as an important coordination mechanism that reduces uncertainty and attains superior performance and competitive advantages (e.g. Cox et al. 2007). Therefore, the results in this study emphasise that local food market success within the food supply chain actor depends not only on various supplier selection criteria such as price, quality, required quantity, on-time delivery, and food safety assurance, but also on other factors such as trust, reliability and information sharing.

Broader social-emotional goals (supporting local community/economy and supporting local farmers) were also important in determining purchases of local foods for restaurants and chefs. They perceived it as part of a community building effort that can create a positive image for their establishments. Such findings are assumed to be vital for the success of local food systems (Ilbery & Maye 2005). Comparing the benefits and/or motivations of restaurants and chefs with wholesale distributors in local food purchasing decisions in both samples reveal similarities in the importance of quality, freshness, social-emotional goals, and social interactions, but also some differences. Economic benefits (cheaper price, minimised transportation costs), customer demands (restaurants and chefs), and faster availability of the products were the benefits identified by the wholesale distributors in their purchasing decisions of local foods. On the other hand, establishing personal relationships, personal satisfaction, product appreciation, and the price premiums received for their products were the primary benefits reported by farmers.

While price appears to be an inconsistent concern for wholesale distributors in both samples, it was an issue for restaurants and chefs in local food adoption from local sources. In line with previous studies, inconsistent quality, inadequate availability, and transport and delivery logistics remain problems among both restaurants and chefs and wholesale distributors in this study. Availability of time to locate sources was reported as a barrier for restaurants and chefs that did not purchase local foods in both samples. The study therefore encourages local farmers to offset these barriers by offering timely information about product cost and availability, and flexibility with delivery where possible.

This study also adds to the existing literature by probing the challenges farmers face related to restaurants and chefs. The major obstacles in selling to local foodservice establishments were small volumes and the placing of orders on-time. Other challenges discussed by farmers were delivery costs and cost of production. These issues have received less attention in the literature

and only limited research has been conducted (e.g. Sharma et al. 2012), but pose important questions for the future of local food in foodservice establishments.

Local food products retain some differences in values for the different actors in the supply chain. Nevertheless, for restaurants, chefs and wholesale distributors, local food sourcing is important in gaining positive images among their customers and enhancing social interaction with those who support local foods. Restaurants and chefs, as well as food wholesalers, are important actors in developing a broader appreciation of local food products and are important actors in the local food system whose role has not been sufficiently recognised in previous research. This is especially so given that restaurants and chefs are taste makers and their conceptualisations and promotion of local food can influence society as a whole. Therefore, a number of practical challenges such as delivery problems, incomplete information about product availability and the amount of time taken in sourcing, must be overcome for more widespread adoption of local food in the foodservice community and beyond.

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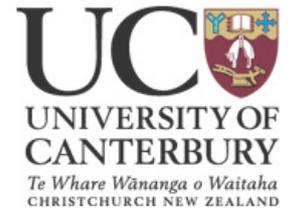
APPENDICES

Appendix A: Data collection tools

**Self-Administered Survey:
Vancouver, Canada and Christchurch, New Zealand (English)**

A1. Information Sheet: Restaurants and chefs

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Tel: +64 22 371 1844
E-Mail: hiran.roy@pg.canterbury.ac.nz
Date: 10th March 2014



“The Role of Local Food in Restaurants”

INFORMATION SHEET FOR RESTAURANTS AND CHEFS

You are invited to participate in this survey on the topic of “The Role of Local Food in Restaurants” which I am doing for my doctoral research. As a trained chef (Certified Chef de Cuisine) with 24 years of work experience in the hospitality trade in Canada, U.S.A, Hong Kong, Cayman Island, and India I am trying to gain a better understanding of the significance of local food in restaurants and the reality of local food use and purchase as compared to what is often shown in the media. In this survey, I would like to know your perceptions, motivations, and barriers and constraints of buying and promoting local food products/ingredients on the menu at your restaurant. Over the past decade, interest in local food has increased in popularity among the general public as well as in the restaurant context. Therefore, your restaurant is included as one of several restaurants to be involved in my study. I believe that because you are actively involved in the management and operation of your organization, you are best suited to speak about your perceptions, motivations, and barriers and constraints of buying from the local farmers’ market(s), farmers, and suppliers as well as the promotion of local food products/ingredients to restaurant guests. I do not need any confidential information concerning your restaurant; I only need your viewpoint for different aspects of local food procurement and promoting local food products/ingredients by your restaurant. The information sheet outlines the standard procedures undertaken for such research.

Your participation in this study is completely voluntary. There are no known or anticipated risks to you as a participant in this study. It will take approximately 25-35 minutes to complete the survey questionnaire. If you are interested this can be followed, at a later date, by an interview of approximately one hour in length to take place in a mutually agreed upon time at your business location or over the telephone or via skype. The interview will only be conducted among the participants who are willing to participate in this stage of the study. During the survey restaurants and chefs will be asked who (e.g. farmers’ market(s) vendors, farmers/producers, or wholesalers) they source food from locally. You may also decline the interview part and may decline to answer any of the survey questions if you so wish. You will also have the opportunity to win a movie ticket (family package) through a raffle among the 650-700 participants who has completed the survey. A follow-up reminder postcard or e-mail will be sent or telephone call will be conducted to you, if do not replied within two weeks of sending survey questionnaire. Further you may decide to withdraw from this study at any time without any negative consequences by advising the researcher, including withdrawal of any information you have provided, until your questionnaire has been added to the others collected. You may also request a copy of the survey results at the conclusion of the project when data analysis is completed.

Any information you provide will be kept confidential. Your name or name of your restaurant will not appear in any thesis or report resulting from this study, however, with your permission anonymous quotations may be used. Data from this research will be reported only in the aggregate and used for academic purposes. Information gained from the survey questionnaires will be stored for ten years at secure facilities and /or in password protected electronic form within the University of Canterbury before being destroyed. Your contact information will neither be published nor divulged to any third party and will not be used for purposes other than contacting you about this research.

The research is being carried out as a requirement for PhD degree at the University of Canterbury, New Zealand by Hiran Roy under the supervision of Professor C. Michael Hall (E-mail: michael.hall@canterbury.ac.nz; Phone: +64 3 364 2987 ext. 8612) and Professor Paul Ballantine (E-

mail: paul.ballantine@canterbury.ac.nz; Phone: +64 3 364 2987 ext. 3622). They will be pleased to discuss any concerns you may have about participation in the project.

This project has been reviewed and approved by the University of Canterbury Human Ethics Committee. If you have any complaints regarding this project please address to The Chair, Human Ethics Committee, University of Canterbury, Private Bag 4800, Christchurch, New Zealand (E-mail: human-ethics@canterbury.ac.nz).

If you are agreed to participate in this study, you are asked to complete the enclosed consent form and survey questionnaire and return using the enclosed self-addressed, stamped envelope via mail.

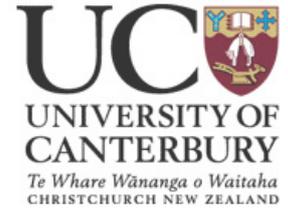
Thank you in advance for your time and assistance in this project.

Yours sincerely,

Hiran Roy (PhD. Student)
Department of Management, Marketing, and Entrepreneurship
College of Business and Economics
University of Canterbury
Private Bag 4800
Christchurch 8140
New Zealand

A2. Consent Form: Restaurants and chefs

Hiran Roy (PhD. Student)
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College of Business and Economics
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Date: 10th March 2014



“The Role of Local Food in Restaurants”

CONSENT FORM FOR RESTAURANTS AND CHEF

I have read and understood the description of the above-named project. On this basis I agree to participate as a subject in the project, and I give consent to the publication of results of the project with the understanding that anonymity will be preserved.

I also understand that I may withdraw from the project at any time without penalty, including of any information I have provided.

I understand that any information or opinions I provide will be kept confidential to the researcher and his supervisors and that any published or reported results will neither identify me nor my restaurant. I understand that a thesis is a public document and will be available through the University of Canterbury Library.

I understand that all data collected for the study will be kept in locked and secure facilities and/or in password protected electronic form and will be destroyed after ten years. I understand the risks associated with taking part and how they will be managed.

I understand that I am able to receive a report on the findings of the study by contacting the researcher at the conclusion of the project.

By signing below, I agree to participate in this research project.

I note that the project has been reviewed and approved by the University of Canterbury Human Ethics Committee.

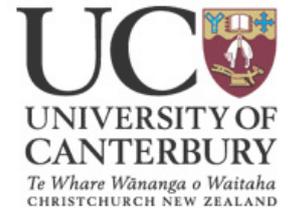
Name:

Signature:

Date:

A3. Consent Form: Restaurant owners

Hiran Roy (PhD. Student)
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E-Mail: hiran.roy@pg.canterbury.ac.nz
Date: 10th March 2014



“The Role of Local Food in Restaurants”

CONSENT FORM FOR RESTAURANT OWNERS

I agree to allow my establishment’s chef to be interviewed as a subject in the project, and I give consent to the publication of results of the project with the understanding that anonymity will be preserved.

I also understand that my establishment’s chef may withdraw from the project at any time without penalty, including of any information he has provided.

I understand that any information or opinions he provide will be kept confidential to the researcher and his supervisors and that any published or reported results will neither identify me nor my restaurant. I understand that a thesis is a public document and will be available through the University of Canterbury Library.

I understand that all data collected for the study will be kept in locked and secure facilities and/or in password protected electronic form and will be destroyed after ten years. I understand the risks associated with taking part and how they will be managed.

I understand that I am able to receive a report on the findings of the study by contacting the researcher at the conclusion of the project.

By signing below, I agree to participate in this research project.

I note that the project has been reviewed and approved by the University of Canterbury Human Ethics Committee.

Name:

Signature:

Date:

A4. Survey questionnaire for Vancouver: Restaurants and Chefs

Instructions and Definitions

Please answer each question to the best of your ability. Each question has been designed for its own importance. If a particular question is not applicable to you, please keep blank. If “other” is applicable, please specify your answer with a written response.

Please use the following definitions as you consider and respond to the questions:

Vendors (not re-sellers or micro-wholesalers): vendors who are primarily engaged in cultivating, harvesting and selling their products (including fruits, vegetables, meat, fish and seafood, dairy, and value-added products) to the restaurants directly at the farmers’ market(s).

Farmers/producers: farmers/producers who are primarily engaged in cultivating, harvesting, and selling their products (including fruits, vegetables, meat, fish and seafood, dairy, and value-added products) to the restaurants directly from their farms but not at stand or farmers’ market(s).

Wholesalers/Wholesale distributors/distributors: establishments which primarily engaged in obtaining and selling local food products locally/nationally/regionally to the restaurants directly.

Suppliers: include establishments (such as farmers’ market(s) vendors, farmers/producers, and wholesalers/Wholesale distributors/distributors) primarily engaged in selling local food products to the restaurants directly.

PART I: Restaurant Demographics

Q1. What foodservice segment would your establishment most identify with (please select one)?

1. <input type="checkbox"/> Upscale Full Service Restaurant	2. <input type="checkbox"/> Casual/Family Full Service Restaurant
3. <input type="checkbox"/> Hotel Restaurant	4. <input type="checkbox"/> Limited Service (Fast Food) Restaurant
5. <input type="checkbox"/> Café	6. <input type="checkbox"/> Buffet Restaurant
7. <input type="checkbox"/> Ethnic Restaurant	8. <input type="checkbox"/> Other (Please specify): _____

Q2. Please select the ownership category of your establishment (Please select one).

1. <input type="checkbox"/> Independently Owned	2. <input type="checkbox"/> Chain/corporate(centralized ownership)	3. <input type="checkbox"/> Franchise(owned separately, but part of a chain concept)
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Q3. What is your job designation (please select one)?

1. <input type="checkbox"/> Executive Chef	2. <input type="checkbox"/> Executive Sous/Sous Chef	3. <input type="checkbox"/> Chef Owner/operator
4. <input type="checkbox"/> General Manager	5. <input type="checkbox"/> Food and Beverage Director	6. <input type="checkbox"/> Food and Beverage Manager
7. <input type="checkbox"/> Purchasing Manager	8. <input type="checkbox"/> Manager	9. <input type="checkbox"/> Other (Please specify): _____

Q4. Gender 1. Male 2. Female

Q5. How long have you held your current occupation at this particular property?

1. <input type="checkbox"/> 0-2 years	2. <input type="checkbox"/> 2-4 years	3. <input type="checkbox"/> 5-10 years	4. <input type="checkbox"/> More than 10 years
---------------------------------------	---------------------------------------	--	--

Q6. What is your nationality? _____

Q7. Where did you receive your training? (Select all that apply)

1. <input type="checkbox"/> International training	2. <input type="checkbox"/> National academic establishment	3. <input type="checkbox"/> National chef school
4. <input type="checkbox"/> In-house training	5. <input type="checkbox"/> No formal training	6. <input type="checkbox"/> Other _____

Q8. How much autonomy or freedom do you have to select suppliers you buy from? Please rate your level of autonomy by circling the number below on a scale of 1 to 4 with 1 as no autonomy and 4 as complete autonomy.

No Autonomy	Little Autonomy	Some Autonomy	Complete Autonomy
1	2	3	4

PART II: Definition of Local Food

Q9. I want to understand your definition of local food. Please check one by ticking (‘√’) that most accurately reflects your definition of local food.

To be defined as “local food” any produce (fruits and vegetables), proteins (meat, poultry, eggs, fish and seafood), dairy (including cheese), and value added (baked and prepared goods) products should be grown and/or produced

1. <input type="checkbox"/> within 50 km (30 miles) of travelling distance from the restaurant	2. <input type="checkbox"/> within 100 km (60 miles) of travelling distance from the restaurant	3. <input type="checkbox"/> within 161 km (100 miles) of travelling distance from the restaurant
4. <input type="checkbox"/> within 200 km (125 miles) of travelling distance from the restaurant	5. <input type="checkbox"/> in the metro or greater Vancouver area (lower mainland)	6. <input type="checkbox"/> in British Columbia
7. <input type="checkbox"/> None of these	8. <input type="checkbox"/> Do not know	

PART III: Local Food Use

Q10. Do you currently purchase any local food products/ingredients? Please check one by ticking (‘√’)

1. Yes (If yes, please continue to Q11.) 2. No

If no, why haven’t you purchased locally, or have discontinued doing do? Please circle the number that most accurately reflects your possible reasons (Where, 1 being “Strongly Disagree” and 7 being “Strongly Agree”).

Factors Preventing Choice of Local Products	Strongly Disagree							Strongly Agree						
1. Cost too high	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Inconsistent quality of products/ingredients	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Narrow/Limited variety of selection	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Inadequate volume/quantity	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Inadequate availability	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Unreliable sources	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Incomplete information/lack of awareness	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Too time consuming to locate sources	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. Inconsistent delivery schedule	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. Inability to meet specific products	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. Seasonal changes	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. Food safety concerns	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. Increased production time when using local products	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

14. In contracts with prime suppliers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
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Thank you for your time and participation in this study. Please insert the survey booklet into the postage-paid return envelope provided, and deposit it in the mail.

Q11. Please select all of the distribution methods through which you normally purchase (source) your local food products/ingredients for your establishments. (Please check all that apply)

Different outlets	Yes	No
1. Local distributors		
2. Regional distributors		
3. National distributors		
4. Farmers Markets		
5. Roadside Farm Stands		
6. Direct purchase from a farmer/producer (not from farm stands or farmers markets)		
7. Local manufacturer/processor		
8. Community Supported Agriculture		
9. Others (please specify): _____		

From Farmers’ Market(s) Vendors:

Q12. Do you currently purchase local food products/ingredients directly from farmers’ market vendors?

Please check one by ticking (‘√’)

1. Yes (If yes, please skip to Q14) 2. No (If no, please answer Q13 and then skip to Q25)

Q13. Why don’t you directly purchase from farmers’ market(s) vendors? (Where, 1 being “Strongly Disagree” and 7 being “Strongly Agree”):

Barrier Category	Strongly Disagree							Strongly Agree						
1. Satisfied with current distributors	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Prefer to have one supplier	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Do not have time for several vendors	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. The volume cannot be satisfied with farmers’ market vendors	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Unsure of quality or consistencies of products/ingredients	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Lack of information of products/ingredients availability	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Do not offer delivery	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Lack of refund policies	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. Lack of time and staff to visit the market	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. Products/ingredients are too expensive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. Parking is a problem	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. Farmers’ market(s) are too far away	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. Other barriers (please specify): _____														

Q14. How long have you been purchasing directly from farmers’ market(s) vendors?

Year’s _____ or Months _____

Q15. How often do you purchase following category of locally grown food products/ingredients from farmers’ market(s) vendors? Please select all that apply by ticking (‘√’) each category that most accurately reflects your belief.

Farmers Market(s) Vendors	Once a week	Multiple times a week	Once a month	Every 2-4 months	Every 5-7 months	Every 8-11 months	Once a year
1. Fresh Produce	<input type="checkbox"/>						
2. Proteins	<input type="checkbox"/>						
3. Dairy	<input type="checkbox"/>						
4. Value added Products	<input type="checkbox"/>						

Q16. Why did you decide to purchase locally grown food products/ingredients from farmers' market(s) vendors? Please circle the number that most accurately reflects your belief (where, 1 being "Strongly Disagree" and 7 being "Strongly Agree")

Category/Attribute	Strongly Disagree Strongly Agree						
1. Farmers' market(s) food products/ingredients helps to meet customer demands	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Food products/ingredients are able to serve a variety of menu applications to customers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Food products/ingredients allows to charge a premium price	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Able to get higher quality of food products/ingredients	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Able to get fresher food products/ingredients	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Food products/ingredients grown/produced locally	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Able to get uniqueness/specialty (including heirloom varieties) of food products/ingredients	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Food products/ingredients have better taste	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. Food products/ingredients are safer	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. Food products/ingredients are nutritious and healthy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. Ability to obtain small volume of products	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. More availability of organic products	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. Know how products/ingredients were raised or grown	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. Attending farmers' market(s) helps to build working relationship with vendors	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. Attending farmers' market(s) allows me to meet vendors and become acquainted with regional foods	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. Value for money	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. Required lower transportation costs	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. Food products/ingredients promote regional food security	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. Utilizing local food products from farmers' market(s) is an effective way to promote local foods and support local vendors	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. Purchasing from farmers' market(s) allows to support local economy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21. Food products/ingredients from farmers' market(s) allows the establishment as a promoter to provide culinary tourism experience for domestic visitors	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22. Food products/ingredients from farmers' market(s) allows the establishment as a promoter to provide culinary tourism experience for international visitors	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23. Food products/ingredients are free from or use less pesticide and/or hormones	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24. Purchasing from farmers' market(s) helps to the environment due to the shorter distance travelled from farm to the market (food miles)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Q17. Approximately what percentage of your food purchases are locally grown products/ingredients, specific to the types of products and time of year listed below from direct purchase with farmers' market(s) vendors? (Please provide your best estimate based on product counts. For example, in summer if 50 pounds (22.67 kg.) out of the 100 pounds (45.35 kg.) of fresh produce were purchased from farmers market(s) vendors; therefore 50% of purchases were local from farmers' market(s) vendors.)

Farmers Market(s) Vendors	Winter months (Jan-Mar)	Spring months (Apr-Jun)	Summer months (Jul-Sept)	Fall months (Oct-Dec)
1. Fresh Produce	_____ %	_____ %	_____ %	_____ %
2. Proteins	_____ %	_____ %	_____ %	_____ %
3. Dairy	_____ %	_____ %	_____ %	_____ %
4. Value added Products	_____ %	_____ %	_____ %	_____ %

Q18. From approximately how many different vendors were used to meet these purchased amounts with regards to each category? (Provide the number in the space provided)

1. Fresh Produce: _____	2. Proteins: _____	3. Dairy: _____	4. Value added Products: _____
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Q19. Please list the farmers' market(s) vendors you direct purchase from and season of the year.

Description	Vendor 1		Vendor 2		Vendor 3		Vendor 4	
Vendor's name								
Farmers market location								
Season (circle)	Winter Summer	Spring Fall	Winter Summer	Spring Fall	Winter Summer	Spring Fall	Winter Summer	Spring Fall

Q20. What percentages of the vendors you purchase from provide the following types of products? Please check all that apply by ticking ('√')

Percentage of the Vendors	1. Conventional	2. Certified Organic	3. Non-certified Organic	4. Mixed practices	5. Free Range	6. Other
Less than 10%	<input type="checkbox"/>					
11% to 25%	<input type="checkbox"/>					
26% to 50%	<input type="checkbox"/>					
51% to 75%	<input type="checkbox"/>					
76% to 99%	<input type="checkbox"/>					
All	<input type="checkbox"/>					
None	<input type="checkbox"/>					
Do not know	<input type="checkbox"/>					

Q21. Is the number of vendors you are purchasing from increasing, decreasing, or staying the same for the following types of products? Please check all that apply by ticking ('√')

Farmers Market(s) Vendors	Increasing	Decreasing	Staying same
1. Conventional	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. Certified Organic	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. Non-certified Organic	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. Mixed practices	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5. Free Range	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6. Other (please specify): _____			

Q22. How are products/ingredients purchased from farmers' market(s) vendors delivered to the establishment? Please check all that apply by ticking ('√')

1. <input type="checkbox"/> Delivered by vendors	2. <input type="checkbox"/> Picked up from market by restaurant/chef	3. <input type="checkbox"/> Other delivery method (please describe): _____
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Q23. What method of payment has your establishment used and what method of payment does your establishment prefer to use with farmer' market(s) vendors? Please check all that apply by ticking ('√')

Payment method	Method of payment used	Method of payment prefer to use
1. Cash-on-delivery	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. Cheque	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. Credit/Debit Card	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. Periodic payment schedule (e.g. weekly, bi-weekly, or monthly)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5. No preference	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6. Other (please specify): _____		

Q24. Listed below are various issues related to local food adoption from farmers' market(s) vendors. Please circle the listed concern as to whether you perceive it as an issues or problem (Where, 1 being "Strongly Disagree" and 7 being "Strongly Agree")

Potential Problems Category	Strongly Disagree							Strongly Agree
1. Insufficient volumes or year round adequate volume of supply	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
2. Inconsistent supply of products/ingredients	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
3. Limited variety of selection	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
4. Limited market days and hours of operation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
5. Price of the products/ingredients are too high	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
6. Lack of information of products/ingredients availability	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
7. Local health and food safety concerns	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
8. Logistics (transportation) difficulty	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
9. Clean and sturdy packaging	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
10. Consistent package size	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
11. Unavailability of parking space at the market	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
12. Labour time required to prepare the purchased products	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
13. Payment procedures/acceptance of only cash at the farmers' market(s)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
14. Other barriers (please specify): _____								

From Farmers/Producers (Farm):

Q25. Do you currently purchase food products/ingredients directly from local farmers/producers? Please check one by ticking ('√').

1. Yes (If yes, please skip to Q27) 2. No (If no, please answer Q26 and then skip to Q36)

Q26. Why don't you directly purchase or do not directly purchase more from local farmers/producers? (Where, 1 being "Strongly Disagree" and 7 being "Strongly Agree")

Barrier Category	Strongly Disagree							Strongly Agree						
1. Satisfied with current distributors	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Do not have time to contact several farmers, inconvenient	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. The volume cannot be satisfied with local farmers/producers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Unsure of quality of products delivered	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Unsure of consistency of products delivered	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Unable to produce needed products	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Lack of information of products/ingredients availability	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Do not offer delivery	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. Products are not delivered on the date or time agreed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. Local health and food safety issues	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. Unable to provide formal receipts	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. Price of the products/ingredients are too high	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. Farms are too far away	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Q27. How long have you been purchasing directly from local farmers/producers?

Year's _____ or Months _____

Q28. How often do you purchase locally grown food products/ingredients from farmers/producers?

Please select all that apply by ticking ('√') each category that most accurately reflects your belief.

Farmers/producers	Once a week	Multiple times a week	Once a month	Every 2-4 months	Every 5-7 months	Every 8-11 months	Once a year
1. Fresh Produce	<input type="checkbox"/>						
2. Proteins	<input type="checkbox"/>						
3. Dairy	<input type="checkbox"/>						
4. Value added Products	<input type="checkbox"/>						

Q29. Approximately what percentage of your food purchases are locally grown products/ingredients, specific to the types of products and time of year listed below from direct purchase with farmers/producers? (Please provide your best estimate based on product counts. For example, in summer if 50 pounds (22.67 kg.) out of the 100 pounds (45.35 kg.) of fresh produce were purchased from farmers market(s) vendors; therefore 50% of purchases were local from farmers' market(s) vendors.)

Farmers/producers	Winter months (Jan-Mar)	Spring months (Apr-Jun)	Summer months (Jul-Sept)	Fall months (Oct-Dec)
1. Fresh Produce	_____%	_____%	_____%	_____%
2. Proteins	_____%	_____%	_____%	_____%
3. Dairy	_____%	_____%	_____%	_____%
4. Value added Products	_____%	_____%	_____%	_____%

Q30. From approximately how many different farmers/producers were used to meet these purchased amounts with regards to each category? (Provide the number in the space provided)

1. Fresh Produce: _____	2. Proteins: _____	3. Dairy: _____	4. Value added Products: _____
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Q31. Please list the farmers/producers you direct purchase from and season of the year.

Description	Farm 1		Farm 2		Farm 3		Farm 4	
Farm name								
Farm location								
Season (circle)	Winter Summer	Spring Fall	Winter Summer	Spring Fall	Winter Summer	Spring Fall	Winter Summer	Spring Fall

Q32. What percentages of the farmers/producers you purchase from provide the following types of products? Please check all that apply by ticking (‘√’)

Percentage of the Farmers/Producers	1. Conventional	2. Certified Organic	3. Non-certified Organic	4. Mixed practices	5. Free Range	6. Other
Less than 10%	<input type="checkbox"/>					
11% to 25%	<input type="checkbox"/>					
26% to 50%	<input type="checkbox"/>					
51% to 75%	<input type="checkbox"/>					
76% to 99%	<input type="checkbox"/>					
All	<input type="checkbox"/>					
None	<input type="checkbox"/>					
Do not know	<input type="checkbox"/>					

Q33. Is the number of farmers/producers you are purchasing from increasing, decreasing, or staying the same for the following types of products? Please check all that apply by ticking (‘√’)

Farmers/producers	Increasing	Decreasing	Staying same
1. Conventional	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. Certified Organic	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. Non-certified Organic	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. Mixed practices	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5. Free Range	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6. Other (please specify): _____			

Q34. How are products/ingredients purchased from farmers/producers delivered to the establishment? Please check all that apply by ticking (‘√’)

1. <input type="checkbox"/> Delivered by farmers	2. <input type="checkbox"/> Picked up from farm by restaurant/chef	3. <input type="checkbox"/> Other delivery method (please describe): _____
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Q35. What method of payment has your establishment used and what method of payment does your establishment prefer to use with farmers/producers? Please check all that apply by ticking (‘√’)

Payment method	Method of payment used	Method of payment prefer to use
1. Cash-on-delivery	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. Cheque	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. Credit/Debit Card	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. Periodic payment schedule (e.g. weekly, bi-weekly, or monthly)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5. No preference	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6. Other (please specify): _____		

Q45. Would you be interested in participation in a follow-up personal interview for this research project? Please check one by ticking (‘√’) and providing your preferred contact details below

1. Yes

2. No

Contact name and your position: _____ (Please print)

Your Organization Name: _____ Telephone Number: _____

The best time to call: _____ E-mail: _____

End of survey

Please insert the survey booklet into the postage-paid return envelope provided, and deposit it in the mail. Thanks you for your time and valuable input in this study

VITAE

Hiran Roy

Candidate for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy (**PhD**)
University of Canterbury, School of Business and Economics, Canterbury
Christchurch, New Zealand.

Thesis: “The Role of Local Food in Restaurants”

Education: **MBA** in Hospitality and Tourism Management from University of Guelph, College of Management and Economics, Ontario, Canada in 2011; **Chef-de-Cuisine Certification** Program (C.C.C) from Canadian Culinary Institute, Canada in 2006; British Columbia **Provincial Instructor Diploma** Program from Vancouver Community College, School of Instructor Education, Vancouver, Canada in 2005; **Diploma in Cooking** (Red Seal) from ITACA, Government of British Columbia, Canada in 2001; **Diploma in Hotel Management** from Institute of Hotel Management, Calcutta, India in 1989; **Bachelor of Arts** from University of Calcutta, India in 1989.

Honors and Academic Awards: Recipient of New Zealand Commonwealth Scholarship and Fellowship Plan (2013-2016); Canadian Food Network TV shows “**I Do, Let’s Eat**”, 2007; Team Member of the Year award at Hilton Vancouver Airport for 2007.

Experience: Since graduated from hotel trade school I have worked in different prestigious establishments as a supervisory and leadership role in hospitality trade in Canada, U.S.A, Cayman Islands, Hong Kong, and India. I have also worked as a Hospitality and Tourism Instructor with post-Secondary Education Institution in Vancouver, Canada.

Professional affiliations: Member of Canadian Culinary Federation (CCF) since 2006; Member of British Columbia Chefs Association (BCCA) since 2004.

A5. Survey questionnaire for Christchurch: Restaurants and Chefs

Instructions and Definitions

Please answer each question to the best of your ability. Each question has been designed for its own importance. If a particular question is not applicable to you, please keep blank. If “other” is applicable, please specify your answer with a written response.

Please use the following definitions as you consider and respond to the questions:

Vendors (not re-sellers or micro-wholesalers): vendors who are primarily engaged in cultivating, harvesting and selling their products (including fruits, vegetables, meat, fish and seafood, dairy, and value-added products) to the restaurants directly at the farmers’ market(s).

Farmers/producers: farmers/producers who are primarily engaged in cultivating, harvesting, and selling their products (including fruits, vegetables, meat, fish and seafood, dairy, and value-added products) to the restaurants directly from their farms but not at stand or farmers’ market(s).

Wholesalers/distributors: establishments which primarily engaged in obtaining and selling local food products locally/nationally/regionally to the restaurants directly.

Suppliers: include establishments (such as farmers’ market(s) vendors, farmers/producers, and wholesalers/distributors) primarily engaged in selling local food products to the restaurants directly.

PART I: Restaurant Demographics

Q1. What foodservice segment would your establishment most identify with (please select one)?

1. <input type="checkbox"/> Upscale Full Service Restaurant	2. <input type="checkbox"/> Casual/Family Full Service Restaurant
3. <input type="checkbox"/> Hotel Restaurant	4. <input type="checkbox"/> Limited Service (Fast Food) Restaurant
5. <input type="checkbox"/> Café	6. <input type="checkbox"/> Buffet Restaurant
7. <input type="checkbox"/> Ethnic Restaurant	8. <input type="checkbox"/> Other (Please specify): _____

Q2. Please select the ownership category of your establishment (please select one).

1. <input type="checkbox"/> Independently Owned	2. <input type="checkbox"/> Chain/corporate(centralized ownership)	3. <input type="checkbox"/> Franchise(owned separately, but part of a chain concept)
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Q3. What is your job designation (please select one)?

1. <input type="checkbox"/> Executive Chef	2. <input type="checkbox"/> Executive Sous/Sous Chef	3. <input type="checkbox"/> Chef Owner/operator
4. <input type="checkbox"/> General Manager	5. <input type="checkbox"/> Food and Beverage Director	6. <input type="checkbox"/> Food and Beverage Manager
7. <input type="checkbox"/> Purchasing Manager	8. <input type="checkbox"/> Manager	9. <input type="checkbox"/> Other (Please specify): ____

Q4. Gender 1. Male 2. Female

Q5. How long have you held your current occupation at this particular property?

1. <input type="checkbox"/> 0-2 years	2. <input type="checkbox"/> 2-4 years	3. <input type="checkbox"/> 5-10 years	4. <input type="checkbox"/> More than 10 years
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Q6. What is your nationality? _____

Q7. Where did you receive your training? (Select all that apply)

1. <input type="checkbox"/> International training	2. <input type="checkbox"/> National academic establishment	3. <input type="checkbox"/> National chef school
4. <input type="checkbox"/> In-house training	5. <input type="checkbox"/> No formal training	6. <input type="checkbox"/> Other _____

Q8. How much autonomy or freedom do you have to select suppliers you buy from? Please rate your level of autonomy by circling the number below on a scale of 1 to 4 with 1 as no autonomy and 4 as complete autonomy.

No Autonomy	Little Autonomy	Some Autonomy	Complete Autonomy
1	2	3	4

PART II: Definition of Local Food

Q9. I want to understand your definition of local food. Please check one by ticking (‘√’) that most accurately reflects your definition of local food.

To be defined as “local food” any produce (fruits and vegetables), proteins (meat, poultry, eggs, fish and seafood), dairy (including cheese), and value added (baked and prepared goods) products should be grown and/or produced

1. <input type="checkbox"/> within 50 km (30 miles) of travelling distance from the restaurant	2. <input type="checkbox"/> within 100 km (60 miles) of travelling distance from the restaurant	3. <input type="checkbox"/> within 161 km (100 miles) of travelling distance from the restaurant
4. <input type="checkbox"/> within 200 km (125 miles) of travelling distance from the restaurant	5. <input type="checkbox"/> in the greater Christchurch area	6. <input type="checkbox"/> in the South Island
7. <input type="checkbox"/> None of these	8. <input type="checkbox"/> Do not know	

PART III: Local Food Use

Q10. Do you currently purchase any local food products/ingredients? Please check one by ticking (‘√’)

1. Yes (If yes, please continue to Q11.) 2. No

If no, why haven’t you purchased locally, or have discontinued doing do? Please circle the number that most accurately reflects your possible reasons (Where, 1 being “Strongly Disagree” and 7 being “Strongly Agree”).

Factors Preventing Choice of Local Products	Strongly Disagree							Strongly Agree						
1. Cost too high	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Inconsistent quality of products/ingredients	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Narrow/Limited variety of selection	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Inadequate volume/quantity	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Inadequate availability	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Unreliable sources	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Incomplete information/lack of awareness	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Too time consuming to locate sources	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. Inconsistent delivery schedule	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. Inability to meet specific products	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. Seasonal changes	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. Food safety concerns	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. Increased production time when using local products	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. In contracts with prime suppliers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Thank you for your time and participation in this study. Please insert the survey booklet into the postage-paid return envelope provided, and deposit it in the mail.

Q11. Please select all of the distribution methods through which you normally purchase (source) your local food products/ingredients for your establishments. (Please check all that apply)

Different outlets	Yes	No
1. Local distributors		
2. Regional distributors		
3. National distributors		
4. Farmers Markets		
5. Roadside Farm Stands		
6. Direct purchase from a farmer/producer (not from farm stands or farmers markets)		
7. Local manufacturer/processor		
8. Community Supported Agriculture		
9. Others (please specify): _____		

From Farmers’ Market(s) Vendors:

Q12. Do you currently purchase local food products/ingredients directly from farmers’ market vendors? Please check one by ticking (‘√’)

1. Yes (If yes, please skip to Q14) 2. No (If no, please answer Q13 and then skip to Q25)

Q13. Why don’t you directly purchase from farmers’ market(s) vendors? (Where, 1 being “Strongly Disagree” and 7 being “Strongly Agree”):

Barrier Category	Strongly Disagree							Strongly Agree						
1. Satisfied with current distributors	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Prefer to have one supplier	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Do not have time for several vendors	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. The volume cannot be satisfied with farmers’ market vendors	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Unsure of quality or consistencies of products/ingredients	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Lack of information of products/ingredients availability	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Do not offer delivery	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Lack of refund policies	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. Lack of time and staff to visit the market	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. Products/ingredients are too expensive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. Parking is a problem	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. Farmers’ market(s) are too far away	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. Other barriers (please specify): _____														

Q14. How long have you been purchasing directly from farmers’ market(s) vendors?

Year’s _____ or Months _____

Q15. How often do you purchase following category of locally grown food products/ingredients from farmers’ market(s) vendors? Please select all that apply by ticking (‘√’) each category that most accurately reflects your belief.

Farmers Market(s) Vendors	Once a week	Multiple times a week	Once a month	Every 2-4 months	Every 5-7 months	Every 8-11 months	Once a year
1. Fresh Produce	<input type="checkbox"/>						
2. Proteins	<input type="checkbox"/>						
3. Dairy	<input type="checkbox"/>						
4. Value added Products	<input type="checkbox"/>						

Q16. Why did you decide to purchase locally grown food products/ingredients from farmers' market(s) vendors? Please circle the number that most accurately reflects your belief (where, 1 being "Strongly Disagree" and 7 being "Strongly Agree")

Category/Attribute	Strongly Disagree							Strongly Agree						
1. Farmers' market(s) food products/ingredients helps to meet customer demands	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Food products/ingredients are able to serve a variety of menu application to customers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Food products/ingredients allows to charge a premium price	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Able to get higher quality of food products/ingredients	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Able to get fresher food products/ingredients	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Food products/ingredients grown/produced locally	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Able to get uniqueness/specialty (including heirloom varieties) of food products/ingredients	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Food products/ingredients have better taste	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. Food products/ingredients are safer	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. Food products/ingredients are nutritious and healthy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. Ability to obtain small volume of products	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. More availability of organic products	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. Know how products/ingredients were raised or grown	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. Attending farmers' market(s) helps to build working relationship with vendors	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. Attending farmers' market(s) allows me to meet vendors and become acquainted with regional foods	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. Value for money	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. Required lower transportation costs	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. Food products/ingredients promote regional food security	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. Utilizing local food products from farmers' market(s) is an effective way to promote local foods and support local vendors	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. Purchasing from farmers' market(s) allows to support local economy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21. Food products/ingredients from farmers' market(s) allows the establishment as a promoter to provide culinary tourism experience for domestic visitors	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22. Food products/ingredients from farmers' market(s) allows the establishment as a promoter to provide culinary tourism experience for international visitors	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23. Food products/ingredients are free from or use less pesticide and/or hormones	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24. Purchasing from farmers' market(s) helps to the environment due to the shorter distance travelled from farm to the market (food miles)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Q17. Approximately what percentage of your food purchases are locally grown products/ingredients, specific to the types of products and time of year listed below from direct purchase with farmers' market(s) vendors? (Please provide your best estimate based on product counts. For example, in summer if 50 pounds (22.67 kg.) out of the 100 pounds (45.35 kg.) of fresh produce were purchased from farmers market(s) vendors; therefore 50% of purchases were local from farmers' market(s) vendors.)

Farmers Market(s) Vendors	Winter months (Jun-Aug)	Spring months (Sept-Nov)	Summer months (Dec-Feb)	Autumn months (Mar-May)
1. Fresh Produce	_____ %	_____ %	_____ %	_____ %
2. Proteins	_____ %	_____ %	_____ %	_____ %
3. Dairy	_____ %	_____ %	_____ %	_____ %
4. Value added Products	_____ %	_____ %	_____ %	_____ %

Q18. From approximately how many different vendors were used to meet these purchased amounts with regards to each category? (Provide the number in the space provided)

1. Fresh Produce: _____	2. Proteins: _____	3. Dairy: _____	4. Value added Products: _____
-------------------------	--------------------	-----------------	--------------------------------

Q19. Please list the farmers' market(s) vendors you direct purchase from and season of the year.

Description	Vendor 1		Vendor 2		Vendor 3		Vendor 4	
Vendor's name								
Farmers' market location								
Season (circle)	Winter Summer	Spring Autumn	Winter Summer	Spring Autumn	Winter Summer	Spring Autumn	Winter Summer	Spring Autumn

Q20. What percentages of the vendors you purchase from provide the following types of products? Please check all that apply by ticking ('√')

Percentage of the Vendors	1. Conventional	2. Certified Organic	3. Non-certified Organic	4. Mixed practices	5. Free Range	6. Other
Less than 10%	<input type="checkbox"/>					
11% to 25%	<input type="checkbox"/>					
26% to 50%	<input type="checkbox"/>					
51% to 75%	<input type="checkbox"/>					
76% to 99%	<input type="checkbox"/>					
All	<input type="checkbox"/>					
None	<input type="checkbox"/>					
Do not know	<input type="checkbox"/>					

Q21. Is the number of vendors you are purchasing from increasing, decreasing, or staying the same for the following types of products? Please check all that apply by ticking ('√')

Farmers Market(s) Vendors	Increasing	Decreasing	Staying same
1. Conventional	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. Certified Organic	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. Non-certified Organic	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. Mixed practices	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5. Free Range	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6. Other (please specify): _____			

Q22. How are products/ingredients purchased from farmers' market(s) vendors delivered to the establishment? Please check all that apply by ticking ('√')

1. <input type="checkbox"/> Delivered by vendors	2. <input type="checkbox"/> Picked up from market by restaurant/chef	3. <input type="checkbox"/> Other delivery method (please describe): _____
--	--	--

Q23. What method of payment has your establishment used and what method of payment does your establishment prefer to use with vendors? Please check all that apply by ticking ('√')

Payment method	Method of payment used	Method of payment prefer to use
1. Cash-on-delivery	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. Cheque	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. Credit/Debit Card	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. Periodic payment schedule (e.g. weekly, bi-weekly, or monthly)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5. No preference	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6. Other (please specify): _____		

Q24. Listed below are various issues related to local food adoption from farmers' market(s) vendors. Please circle the listed concern as to whether you perceive it as an issues or problem (Where, 1 being "Strongly Disagree" and 7 being "Strongly Agree")

Potential Problems Category	Strongly Disagree							Strongly Agree						
1. Insufficient volumes or year round adequate volume of supply	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Inconsistent supply of products/ingredients	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Limited variety of selection	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Limited market days and hours of operation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Price of the products/ingredients are too high	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Lack of information of products/ingredients availability	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Local health and food safety concerns	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Logistics (transportation) difficulty	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. Clean and sturdy packaging	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. Consistent package size	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. Unavailability of parking space at the market	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. Labour time required to prepare the purchased products	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. Payment procedures/acceptance of only cash at the farmers' market(s)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. Other barriers (please specify): _____														

From Farmers/Producers (Farm):

Q25. Do you currently purchase food products/ingredients directly from local farmers/producers? Please check one by ticking ('√').

1. Yes (If yes, please skip to Q27) 2. No (If no, please answer Q26 and then skip to Q36)

Q26. Why don't you directly purchase or do not directly purchase more from local farmers/producers? (Where, 1 being "Strongly Disagree" and 7 being "Strongly Agree")

Barrier Category	Strongly Disagree							Strongly Agree						
1. Satisfied with current distributors	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

2. Do not have time to contact several farmers, inconvenient	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. The volume cannot be satisfied with local farmers/producers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Unsure of quality of products delivered	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Unsure of consistency of products delivered	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Unable to produce needed products	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Lack of information of products/ingredients availability	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Do not offer delivery	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. Products are not delivered on the date or time agreed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. Local health and food safety issues	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. Unable to provide formal receipts	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. Price of the products/ingredients are too high	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. Farms are too far away	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Q27. How long have you been purchasing directly from local farmers/producers?

Year's _____ or Months _____

Q28. How often do you purchase locally grown food products/ingredients from farmers/producers?

Please select all that apply by ticking ('√') each category that most accurately reflects your belief.

Farmers/producers	Once a week	Multiple times a week	Once a month	Every 2-4 months	Every 5-7 months	Every 8-11 months	Once a year
1. Fresh Produce	<input type="checkbox"/>						
2. Proteins	<input type="checkbox"/>						
3. Dairy	<input type="checkbox"/>						
4. Value added Products	<input type="checkbox"/>						

Q29. Approximately what percentage of your food purchases are locally grown products/ingredients, specific to the types of products and time of year listed below from direct purchase with farmers/producers? (Please provide your best estimate based on product counts. For example, in summer if 50 pounds (22.67 kg.) out of the 100 pounds (45.35 kg.) of fresh produce were purchased from farmers market(s) vendors; therefore 50% of purchases were local from farmers' market(s) vendors.)

Farmers/producers	Winter months (Jun-Aug)	Spring months (Sep-Nov)	Summer months (Dec-Feb)	Autumn months (Mar-May)
1. Fresh Produce	_____ %	_____ %	_____ %	_____ %
2. Proteins	_____ %	_____ %	_____ %	_____ %
3. Dairy	_____ %	_____ %	_____ %	_____ %
4. Value added Products	_____ %	_____ %	_____ %	_____ %

Q30. From approximately how many different farmers/producers were used to meet these purchased amounts with regards to each category? (Provide the number in the space provided)

1. Fresh Produce: _____	2. Proteins: _____	3. Dairy: _____	4. Value added Products: _____
-------------------------	--------------------	-----------------	--------------------------------

Q31. Please list the farmers/producers you direct purchase from and season of the year.

Description	Farm 1	Farm 2	Farm 3	Farm 4

Farm name				
Farm location				
Season (circle)	Winter Summer	Spring Autumn	Winter Summer	Spring Autumn

Q32. What percentages of the farmers/producers you purchase from provide the following types of products? Please check all that apply by ticking (‘√’)

Percentage of the Farmers/Producers	1. Conventional	2. Certified Organic	3. Non-certified Organic	4. Mixed practices	5. Free Range	6. Other
Less than 10%	<input type="checkbox"/>					
11% to 25%	<input type="checkbox"/>					
26% to 50%	<input type="checkbox"/>					
51% to 75%	<input type="checkbox"/>					
76% to 99%	<input type="checkbox"/>					
All	<input type="checkbox"/>					
None	<input type="checkbox"/>					
Do not know	<input type="checkbox"/>					

Q33. Is the number of farmers/producers you are purchasing from increasing, decreasing, or staying the same for the following types of products? Please check all that apply by ticking (‘√’)

Farmers/producers	Increasing	Decreasing	Staying same
1. Conventional	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. Certified Organic	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. Non-certified Organic	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. Mixed practices	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5. Free Range	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6. Other (please specify): _____			

Q34. How are products/ingredients purchased from farmers/producers delivered to the establishment? Please check all that apply by ticking (‘√’)

1. <input type="checkbox"/> Delivered by farmers	2. <input type="checkbox"/> Picked up from farm by restaurant/chef	3. <input type="checkbox"/> Other delivery method (please describe): _____
--	--	--

Q35. What method of payment has your establishment used and what method of payment does your establishment prefer to use with farmers/producers? Please check all that apply by ticking (‘√’)

Payment method	Method of payment used	Method of payment prefer to use
1. Cash-on-delivery	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. Cheque	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. Credit/Debit Card	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. Periodic payment schedule (e.g. weekly, bi-weekly, or monthly)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5. No preference	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6. Other (please specify): _____		

From Distributors/Wholesalers

End of survey

Please insert the survey booklet into the postage-paid return envelope provided, and deposit it in the mail. Thanks you for your time and valuable input in this study

VITAE

Hiran Roy

Candidate for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy (**PhD**)
University of Canterbury, School of Business and Economics, Canterbury
Christchurch, New Zealand.

Thesis: “The Role of Local Food in Restaurants”

Education: **MBA** in Hospitality and Tourism Management from University of Guelph, College of Management and Economics, Ontario, Canada in 2011; **Chef-de-Cuisine Certification** Program (C.C.C) from Canadian Culinary Institute, Canada in 2006; British Columbia **Provincial Instructor Diploma** Program from Vancouver Community College, School of Instructor Education, Vancouver, Canada in 2005; **Diploma in Cooking** (Red Seal) from ITACA, Government of British Columbia, Canada in 2001; **Diploma in Hotel Management** from Institute of Hotel Management, Calcutta, India in 1989; **Bachelor of Arts** from University of Calcutta, India in 1989.

Honors and Academic Awards: Recipient of New Zealand Commonwealth Scholarship and Fellowship Plan (2013-2016); Canadian Food Network TV shows “**I Do, Let’s Eat**”, 2007; Team Member of the Year award at Hilton Vancouver Airport for 2007.

Experience: Since graduated from hotel trade school I have worked in different prestigious establishments as a supervisory and leadership role in hospitality trade in Canada, U.S.A, Cayman Islands, Hong Kong, and India. I have also worked as a Hospitality and Tourism Instructor with post-Secondary Education Institution in Vancouver, Canada.

Professional affiliations: Member of Canadian Culinary Federation (CCF) since 2006; Member of British Columbia Chefs Association (BCCA) since 2004.

**Self-Administered Survey:
Vancouver, Canada and Christchurch, New Zealand (Chinese)**

A6. Information sheet: Restaurants and chefs



本地食物在餐廳的角色

給餐館和廚師的資訊表

您被邀請參與這項關於"本地食物在餐廳的角色"，那是我的博士研究專題調查。作為受過訓練廚師（認證的大廚）與 24 年的工作經驗在加拿大、美國、香港、開曼島、印度我試圖想更好的瞭解餐廳對於本地食物的意義與現實中的本地食物使用和購買與在媒體中常常看到的分別。在這項調查中，我想知道您的看法、動機和障礙與購買本地糧食產品/食材在您的餐廳菜單上的限制。過去十年，在一般公眾以及在餐廳方面增加對於本地食物的興趣。因此，您的餐廳是列為幾家餐館要參與我的研究其中之一。我相信因為您是積極參與管理和運作您的組織因此你是最適合談談關於您的看法、動機和障礙以及向餐廳客人推廣從本地 farmers' market(s)、農民、和供應商，採購本地食品產品/食材的購買。我不需要任何機密資料是有關於您的餐廳；我只需要您的觀點，是為本地採購糧食和推廣本地的糧食產品/食材經由你的餐廳達成。資訊表概述了進行這種研究的標準模式。

您參與這項研究是完全自願的。對於你作為這項研究的參與者沒有已知或預期的風險。並將需要大約 25-35 分鐘時間完成調查問卷。如果您有興趣在往後跟進面談，只須大約一個小時的時間，採取的地方和接受採訪地點經過相互同意後或可在您的業務地點通過電話或通過 Skype 進行。這個訪談僅對那些願意參加此階段研究的參與者進行面試。在調查期間餐館和廚師會被問到誰是（例如 farmers' market(s) 供應商、農民和生產廠家或批發商）他們本地食物的來源。你也可以拒絕面試部分和拒絕回答任何一個問題如果您是這麼想。你也將有機會贏取電影票（家庭套票）通過抽獎在 850-900 參與者之間。我將發送後續提醒明信片或電子郵件或對你進行撥打電話，如果您未做答覆在發送調查問卷的兩個星期之後。您可以決定退出這項研究在任何時間並沒有任何負面後果並請告知研究員將您提供的任何資訊撤離。當完整的資料分析完成，您還可以要求獲得在專案結束時統計調查結果的副本。

您提供的任何資訊將會保密。您的姓名或名稱或您的餐廳不會出現在任何論文報告，但是經由您的許可會使用不俱名的引述中。這項研究的資料將僅用於報告和學術目的。從調查問卷獲得的資訊將存儲在安全的設施十年和密碼保護的電子文件在坎特伯雷大學然後銷毀。您的聯繫資訊將既不會出版也不透露給任何協力廠商亦不會用於與您聯繫有關這項研究以外的目的。

這個研究是出自於紐西蘭坎特伯雷大學的博士生 Hiran Roy，並在教授 C. Michael Hall 的監督下（電子郵件：michael.hall@canterbury.ac.nz；電話：+ 64 3 364 2987 分機 8612）和教授 Paul Ballantine（電子郵件：paul.ballantine@canterbury.ac.nz；電話：+ 64 3 364 2987 分機 3622）。他們會很高興與你討論該專案。該專案已經審查並經大學坎特伯雷人類倫理委員會的批准。如果您有任何關於這一專案的投訴請位址到人類道德委員會主席，坎特伯雷大學、私人包 4800，紐西蘭基督城（電子郵件：humanethics@canterbury.ac.nz）。

如果你同意參加這項研究，將被要求您附上的同意書和完整的調查問卷，使用通過郵件所附的回郵信封並寄回。

謝謝您的時間和在此專案中的提供的援助。

Hiran Roy (博士學位學生)

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A7. Consent form: Restaurants and chefs



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本地食物在餐廳的角色

同意表格餐館和廚師

我已閱讀並理解上述專案的描述。在此基礎上我同意作為一個主題在此專案中，並理解其將保留匿名結果在其出版物。

我也明白我可能會從該專案在任何時間撤回而不受處罰，包括任何資訊的提供。

我明白任何我提供的資訊或意見將會保密對研究者和他的上司和任何已發佈或報告的結果將不會顯示出我和我的餐廳。我明白這一篇論文是一份公開檔，將通過坎特伯雷大學圖書館提供。

我理解為研究收集的所有資料會被保存鎖和或在密碼保護下的電子檔案並將在十年後銷毀。我明白他們將如何管理這一部分相關的風險。

我明白我能夠通過聯繫專案的結論研究員收到一份關於研究的結果報告。

在下面簽字，我同意參與這項研究專案。

我注意到專案已審查，並由坎特伯雷大學人類倫理委員會批准。

Name:

簽名 :

Date:

A8. Survey questionnaire for Vancouver: Restaurants and chefs

餐館/廚師調查

調查數目： ____

說明和定義

請回答每個問題，盡你的能力。每個問題已設計為它自己的重要性。如果一個特定的問題不是適用於你的請保留空白。如果其他是適用的請指定您的答案與一份書面答覆。

請當你考慮和回應問題時，使用下面的定義：

供貨商 (不是中間商或小型批發商)： 供貨商主要從事種植、收穫和銷售他們的產品 (包括水果、蔬菜、肉類、魚類和海鮮、乳製品、和加工產品) 給餐館直接在 farmers' market(s)銷售。

農民/生產者： 農民/生產者，主要從事種植、收穫、和銷售他們的產品 (包括水果、蔬菜、肉類、魚類和海鮮、乳製品、和增值產品) 給餐館是直接從他們的農場，但不是經由零售或 farmers' market(s)。

批發商/分銷商： 主要從事獲取和直接賣給餐廳本地糧食產品(分別在本地/全國/區域的)。

供應商： 包括 (如 farmers' market(s) 供貨商、農民和生產者和批發商/分銷商) 主要從事直接賣本地糧食產品給餐廳。

第一部分：餐廳統計資料

Q1. 您所屬的餐飲服務類別是 (請選擇一種) ?

1. <input type="checkbox"/> 高檔全服務的餐廳	2. <input type="checkbox"/> 休閒/家庭全服務的餐廳
3. <input type="checkbox"/> 旅館餐廳	4. <input type="checkbox"/> 有限度的服務 (速食) 餐廳
5. <input type="checkbox"/> 咖啡廳	6. <input type="checkbox"/> 自助餐廳
7. <input type="checkbox"/> 專業服務 (例如, 外燴 宴席)	8. <input type="checkbox"/> 其他 (請注明) : _____

Q2. 請選擇您建立的擁有權類別 (請選擇一種)。

1. <input type="checkbox"/> 獨立經營的	2. <input type="checkbox"/> 連鎖的 (同一公司擁有)	3. <input type="checkbox"/> 加盟店 (各別持有人經營)
-----------------------------------	--	---

Q3. 您的職稱是 (請選擇一種) ?

1. <input type="checkbox"/> 行政主廚	2. <input type="checkbox"/> 行政 副主廚	3. <input type="checkbox"/> 廚師兼擁有者/經營者
4. <input type="checkbox"/> 總經理	5. <input type="checkbox"/> 餐飲總監	6. <input type="checkbox"/> 食物和飲料經理
7. <input type="checkbox"/> 採購部經理	8. <input type="checkbox"/> 經理	9. <input type="checkbox"/> 其他 (請注明) : _____

Q4. 性別 1. 男 2. 女

Q5.您從事這一職位有多久在這一間店？

1. <input type="checkbox"/> 0-2 年	2. <input type="checkbox"/> 2-4 年	3. <input type="checkbox"/> 5-10 年	4. <input type="checkbox"/> 10 年以上
-----------------------------------	-----------------------------------	------------------------------------	------------------------------------

Q6.您的國籍是什麼？_____

Q7.您在那裏接受您的培訓？（請選擇所有適用）

1. <input type="checkbox"/> 國際培訓	2. <input type="checkbox"/> 國家學術機構	3. <input type="checkbox"/> 全國廚師學校
4. <input type="checkbox"/> 內部培訓	5. <input type="checkbox"/> 沒有正式的培訓	6. <input type="checkbox"/> 其它 ____

Q8. 您有多少自主權去選擇供應商？請評價您的自主權程度在下面程度的數位 4作為完全自主和沒有自主權1

沒有自主權	小小的自主權	一些自主權	完全自主
1	2	3	4

第二部分：本地食物的定義

Q9. 我想要瞭解您對本地食物的定義。請打一個 (√)，是最準確地反映了你對本地食物的定義。

被界定為"本地食品"新鮮蔬果 (水果和蔬菜)，蛋白質 (肉、家禽、蛋、魚、海鮮)，乳品 (包括乳酪)，和加工產品 (烘焙和預先準備物) 產品應經由種植或生產

1. <input type="checkbox"/> 50 公里 (30 英里) 的行程距離 從餐廳	2. <input type="checkbox"/> 100 公里 (60 英里) 的行程距 離從餐廳	3. <input type="checkbox"/> 161 公里 (100 英里) 的行程 距離從餐廳
4. <input type="checkbox"/> 從餐廳的行程距離 200 公里 (125 英里) 範圍內	5. <input type="checkbox"/> 在大溫哥華地區 (低陸平原)	6. <input type="checkbox"/> 在不列顛哥倫比亞省
7. <input type="checkbox"/> 這些都不是	8. <input type="checkbox"/> 不知道	

第三部分：本地食物的使用

Q10.您目前購買任何本地方食物嗎？請打一個 (√)

1. 是的 (如果是的話，請繼續到 Q11)。 2. 無

如果不是，為什麼您不在本地購買，或停止這樣做嗎？請圈最準確地反映您的可能原因編號 (1 強烈不同意,強烈同意7)。

防止本地產品可選擇的因素	強烈不同意	強烈同意
1.成本太高	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	
2.不穩定的品質產品/原料	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	

3.有限制的選擇	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.供應量不足	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.供應短缺不穩定	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6.不可靠的來源	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7.不完整的資訊	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8.太費時去查找來源	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9.不固定的送貨時間	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10.無法滿足特定的要求	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11.季節性	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12.食品安全的考量	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13.增加處理時間當使用本地產品	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14.與主要供應商有簽訂合同	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Q11.請選擇所有您通常購買本地食物的方法。(請選擇所有適用)

不同零售商	是	無
1.當地分銷商		
2.區域分銷商		
3.全國分銷商		
4.農民市場		
5.路邊農場販		
6.直接從農民生產者採購(不是從農場販或農民市場)		
7.本地工廠		
8.社區支援農業		
9.其他(請注明): _____		

從 Farmers' Market(s) 的供貨商 :

Q12.您目前直接從農民'市場供貨商購買本地的產品/食材嗎?請打一個(✓/√)

1. 是的(如果是的話,請跳到 Q14) 2. 沒有(如果沒有,請回答 Q13,然後跳到 Q25)

Q13.為什麼不直接購買來自於供貨商 farmers' market(s)? 正如1 強烈不同意 和 強烈同意7

障礙類別	強烈反對	強烈同意					
1.滿意目前分銷商	7	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.喜歡只有一家供應商	7	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.沒有時間選擇多家供貨商	7	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.農夫市場供貨商供應量不足	7	1	2	3	4	5	6
5.不能確定的品質和穩定性		1	2	3	4	5	6

	7						
6.缺乏產品/食材資訊	7	1	2	3	4	5	6
7.不提供送貨	7	1	2	3	4	5	6
8.缺乏的退款機制	7	1	2	3	4	5	6
9.缺乏時間和工作人員去採購	7	1	2	3	4	5	6
10.產品/食材都太貴了	7	1	2	3	4	5	6
11.停車是個問題	7	1	2	3	4	5	6
12.farmers' market(s) 太遠了	7	1	2	3	4	5	6
13. 其他障礙(請注明): _____							

Q14.您有多長時間是直接從 farmers' market(s) 的供貨商採購？

年 _____ 月 _____

Q15.您會有多經常購買以下類別本地種植的糧食產品/食材是來自供貨商 farmers' market(s)? 請選擇所有適用的打 (✓) 是最準確地反映了你的需求的各個類別。

農民市場供貨商	一次一周	一周多個次	每月一次	每隔 2-4 個月	每隔 5-7 個月	每 8-11 個月	一年一次
1.新鮮的農產品	<input type="checkbox"/>						
2.蛋白質,肉類	<input type="checkbox"/>						
3.乳品,奶蛋類	<input type="checkbox"/>						
4.加工類產品	<input type="checkbox"/>						

Q16.您為什麼選擇購買本地種植的糧食產品/食材並是來自供貨商 farmers' market(s)? 請圈最準確地反映了你的想法的數字 (1 強烈不同意"和 強烈同意7)

類別/屬性	強烈不同意				強烈同意		
1.farmers' market(s) 食品產品有助於滿足客戶的需求	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.食品產品/食材都能夠配合菜單的須求	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.食品產品/食材能提高菜單的價格	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.能夠得到較高的品質	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.能夠得到更新鮮食品產品/食材	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6.食品產品/食材種植/本地生產	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7.能夠得到唯一性(原生種)的食品產品/食材	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8.食品產品/食材有更好的口味	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9.食品產品食材/更安全	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10.食品產品/食材更營養和健康	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11.能夠獲得少量的產品	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

12. 能夠獲得有機食品	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. 知道食材種植的方式	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. 有助於建立與供貨商的工作關係	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. 接觸供貨商和熟悉區域食品	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. 物超所值	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. 所需的運輸成本較低	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. 食品產品/食材促進區域糧食安全	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. 結合本地的糧食產品在 farmers' market(s) 是推廣本地食品和支持本地供貨商的有效途徑	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. 從 farmers' market(s) 購買可以支援地方經濟	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21. 食品產品/食材從 farmers' market(s) 允許建立作為推廣者可為國內遊客提供烹飪旅遊經驗	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22. 食品產品/食材從 farmers' market(s) 允許建立作為推廣者可為國際遊客提供烹飪旅遊經驗	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23. 食品產品/食材是完全或使用較少的農藥或激素	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24. 從 farmers' market(s) 有助於環境因為更短的距離 車程	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Q17. 大約多少百分比是直接從供貨商 farmers' market(s) 購買本地種植的產品/食材，其特定產品的類型和每年的季節在以下列出了？(請提供您基於產品計數的最佳估計數。例如，在夏季如果 50 磅 (22.67 公斤) 從 100 磅 (45.35 公斤) 新鮮的蔬果是從農民市場的供貨商購買；因此 50% 是採購於本地供貨商 farmers' market(s))

農民市場供貨商	冬季 (Jan-Mar)	春季 (4 月-6 月)	夏季 (7 月-9 月)	秋季 (10 月-12 月)
1. 新鮮的農產品	_____ %	_____ %	_____ %	_____ %
2. 蛋白質, 肉類	_____ %	_____ %	_____ %	_____ %
3. 乳品, 奶蛋類	_____ %	_____ %	_____ %	_____ %
4. 加工類產品	_____ %	_____ %	_____ %	_____ %

Q18. 從大約多少不同的供貨商被用來滿足這些採購量在每個類別？(提供數量再以下空間)

1. 新鮮農產品： ____	2. 蛋白質, 肉類： ____	3. 乳品, 奶蛋類： ____	4. 加工類產品： ____
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Q19. 請列出您購買的季節，還有您選擇的 farmers' market(s) 供貨商。

說明	供貨商 1	供貨商 2	供貨商 3	供貨商 4
供應商的名稱				
農民市場位置				
季節 (圈選)	冬天 春天 夏天 秋天	冬天 春天 夏天 秋天	冬天 春天 夏天 秋天	冬天 春天 夏天 秋天

Q20. 什麼百分比是您的供貨商會提供以下類型的產品? 請選擇所有合適的打 (✓)

供應商的百分比	1.傳統種植	2.認證的有機	3.非認證的有機	4.混合種植法	5.放山飼養	6.其他
小於 10%	<input type="checkbox"/>					
11%至 25%	<input type="checkbox"/>					
26%至 50%	<input type="checkbox"/>					
51%至 75%	<input type="checkbox"/>					
76%至 99%	<input type="checkbox"/>					
全部	<input type="checkbox"/>					
無	<input type="checkbox"/>					
不知道	<input type="checkbox"/>					

Q21. 您所購買是增加、減少或保持相同在下列類型的產品?請選擇所有適用的打(✓)

農民市場供貨商	增加	減少	相同
1.傳統種植	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2.認證的有機	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3.非認證的有機	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4.混合種植法	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5.放山飼養	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6.其他 (請注明): _____			

Q22. 產品/食材從 farmers' market(s) 供貨商採購的是如何送到? 請選擇所有合適的打(✓)

1. <input type="checkbox"/> 供應商送貨	2. <input type="checkbox"/> 由餐廳/廚師去提貨	3. <input type="checkbox"/> 其他方法 (請描述): _____
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Q23. 您是用什麼方法付款或較喜好使用的付款方式?請選擇所有適用打(✓)

付款方法	使用的付款方式	較喜好的付款方式
1.貨到付款	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2.支票	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3.信用卡/轉帳卡	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4.定期付款計畫 (例如每週、每兩周或每月)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5.沒有特別方式	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6.其他 (請注明): _____		

Q24. 下面所列各種有關的問題是來自本地食品供貨商 farmers' market(s). 請圈選是否你認為會遭遇到 (1 是非常不同意 和 7 是非常同意)

潛在的問題類別	非常不同意	非常同意
1. 全年數量供應不足	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	
2. 品質不穩定	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	
3. 有限的品種選擇	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	
4. 有限的市場和只有特定開放時間	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	
5. 產品價格都太高	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	
6. 缺乏產品/食材可用性資訊	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	
7. 當地的健康和糧食安全問題	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	
8. 物流 (運輸) 困難	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	
9. 清潔和堅固的包裝	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	
10. 包裝大小的一致性	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	
11. 市場的停車空間不足	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	
12. 須要多人工處理食材	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	
13. 僅現金付款在 farmers' market(s) 被接受	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	
14. 其他問題(請注明): ____		

從農民/生產者 (農場) :

Q25. 你目前有直接從本地的農民生產者購買產品/食材嗎? 請選擇一個打 '√') 。

1. 是的 (如果是的話, 請跳到 Q27) 2. 沒有 (如果沒有, 請回答 Q26, 然後跳到 Q36)

Q26. 為什麼不直接購買或經常直接購買來自本地農民生產者的產品?, 1強烈不同意 7強烈同意"

障礙類別	強烈不同意	強烈同意
1. 滿意現有的分銷商	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	
2. 沒有多餘時間聯繫數個農民, 不方便	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	
3. 本地的農民生產者不能提供足夠的數量	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	
4. 不能確定交付產品的品質	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	
5. 不能確定交付產品的一致性	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	
6. 無法生產出所需要的產品	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	
7. 缺乏產品/食材可用性資訊	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	
8. 不提供送貨服務	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	
9. 產品不能在指定的日期或時間送達	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	
10. 地方衛生和食品安全問題	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	
11. 無法提供正規收據	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	
12. 產品食材的價格都太高	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	
13. 農場太遠了	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	

Q27. 您有多長時間是直接從本地的農民生產者採購？

年 _____ 或幾個月 _____

Q28. 您有多頻繁的從農民/生產者購買本地種植糧食產品/食材？請選擇所有適用的打 (✓) 且最準確地反映了你認為的各個類別。

農民和生產者	一周一 次	一周多次	每個月 一次	每隔 2-4 個月一次	每隔 5-7 個月一次	每 8-11 個 月一次	一年 一次
1. 新鮮的農產品	<input type="checkbox"/>						
2. 蛋白質, 肉類	<input type="checkbox"/>						
3. 乳品, 奶蛋類	<input type="checkbox"/>						
4. 加工類產品	<input type="checkbox"/>						

Q29. 大約多少百分比是直接從農民和生產者購買本地種植的產品/食材，其特定產品的類型和每年的季節在以下列出了？(請提供您基於產品計數的最佳估計數。例如，在夏季如果 50 磅 (22.67 公斤) 從 100 磅 (45.35 公斤) 新鮮的蔬果是從農民和生產者購買；因此 50% 是採購於農民和生產者

農民和生產者	冬季 (Jan-Mar)	春季 (4 月-6 月)	夏季 (7 月-9 月)	秋季 (10 月-12 月)
1. 新鮮的農產品	_____ %	_____ %	_____ %	_____ %
2. 蛋白質, 肉類	_____ %	_____ %	_____ %	_____ %
3. 乳品, 奶蛋類	_____ %	_____ %	_____ %	_____ %
4. 加工類產品	_____ %	_____ %	_____ %	_____ %

Q30. 從大約多少不同的農民和生產者被用來滿足這些採購量在每個類別？(提供數量再以下空間)

1. 新鮮農產品： _____	2. 蛋白質, 肉類： _____	3. 乳品, 奶蛋類： _____	4. 加工類產品： _____
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Q31. 請列出您購買的季節，還有您選擇的農民和生產者。

說明	農場 1	農場 2	農場 3	農場 4
農場的名稱				
農場的位置				
季節 (圈選)	冬天 春天 夏天 秋天	冬天 春天 夏天 秋天	冬天 春天 夏天 秋天	冬天 春天 夏天 秋天

Q32. 什麼百分比是您的農民和生產者會提供以下類型的產品？請選擇所有合適的打 (✓)

農民和生產者的百分比	1. 傳統種植	2. 認證的有	3. 非認證的	4. 混合	5. 放山飼	6. 其他
------------	---------	---------	---------	-------	--------	-------

		機	有機	植種法	養	
小於 10%	<input type="checkbox"/>					
11%至 25%	<input type="checkbox"/>					
26%至 50%	<input type="checkbox"/>					
51%至 75%	<input type="checkbox"/>					
76%至 99%	<input type="checkbox"/>					
全部	<input type="checkbox"/>					
無	<input type="checkbox"/>					
不知道	<input type="checkbox"/>					

Q33. 您所購買是增加、減少或保持相同在下列類型的產品?請選擇所有適用的打(✓)

農民和生產者	增加	減少	住同一
1.傳統種植	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2.認證的有機	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3.非認證的有機	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4.混合植種法	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5.放山飼養	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6.其他 (請注明): _____			

Q34. 產品/食材從農民和生產者採購的是如何送到? 請選擇所有合適的打(✓)

1. <input type="checkbox"/> 供應商送貨	2. <input type="checkbox"/> 由餐廳/廚師去提貨	3. <input type="checkbox"/> 其他方法 (請描述) : _____
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Q35. 您是用什麼方法付款或較喜好使用的付款方式?請選擇所有適用打(✓)

付款方法	使用的付款方式	較喜好的付款方式
1.貨到付款	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2.支票	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3.信用卡/轉帳卡	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4.定期付款計畫 (例如每週、每兩周或每月)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5.沒有特別方式	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6.其他 (請注明) : _____		

從分銷商/批發商

Q36. 請列出所有你現有的食物分銷商和你所採購的類別。

分銷商的名稱	採購的類別
示例——A.B.C 的餐廳分銷商	肉類和乳製品

Q37. 什麼因素是你覺得是很重要的當選擇食物的供應商（farmers' market(s) 供應商、農民和生產廠家和批發/分銷商）？請圈最準確地反映了你認知的數字（1非常不重要 和 7 非常重要）

類別/屬性	非常不重要		非常重要				
1.在訂購過程中方便性	6	7	1	2	3	4	5
2.保證產品品質的一致性	6	7	1	2	3	4	5
3.全年供應	6	7	1	2	3	4	5
4.對產品有充分瞭解	6	7	1	2	3	4	5
5.按時交貨的能力	6	7	1	2	3	4	5
6.產品/食材合理的價格	6	7	1	2	3	4	5
7.提供靈活的付款方式	6	7	1	2	3	4	5
8.提供任何所需數量	6	7	1	2	3	4	5
9.提供範圍廣泛的食品產品/食材的選擇	6	7	1	2	3	4	5
10.願意分享資訊	6	7	1	2	3	4	5
11.對客戶服務的承諾	6	7	1	2	3	4	5
12.對問題或解決問題的能力	6	7	1	2	3	4	5
13.食品有安全保證	6	7	1	2	3	4	5
14.有替代品提供選擇	6	7	1	2	3	4	5
15.提供加工/包裝品產品的能力	6	7	1	2	3	4	5

Q38.你會願意支付更高的價格購買本地種植的糧食產品/食材嗎？請選擇一個打(√)

1. 會 2. 不會（如果不會，請跳到Q39）

如果會的話，請選擇所有適用的打(√) 在以下清單中最準確地反映了你對你願意付更多去購買本地種植糧食產品/食材的原因：

1. <input type="checkbox"/> 產品品質,味道口感好 外觀佳和新鮮度	2. <input type="checkbox"/> 安全性	3. <input type="checkbox"/> 有營養價值
4. <input type="checkbox"/> 有機種植	5. <input type="checkbox"/> 有機認證	6. <input type="checkbox"/> 公平交易認證

7. <input type="checkbox"/> 傳統種植	8. <input type="checkbox"/> 天然	9. <input type="checkbox"/> 無轉基因
10. <input type="checkbox"/> 沒有殺蟲劑	11. <input type="checkbox"/> 產品貼上標籤 "本地種植"	12. <input type="checkbox"/> 支持本地的經濟
13. <input type="checkbox"/> 本地種植有附加價值	14. <input type="checkbox"/> 環境可持續性	15. <input type="checkbox"/> 對本地小型的供應商和農民的支持

Q39. 購買本地食品產品/食材上會對我的利潤產生積極的影響。請圈最準確地反映了你的認知數字（1 強烈不同意 7 強烈同意）

強烈不同意	有點不同意	稍有不同意	既不同意也不反對	略為同意	有點同意	強烈同意
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

第四部分：本地食物推廣

Q40. 您的餐廳目前正在推廣本地種植的糧食產品/食材資訊給您的顧客嗎？請選擇一個打（√）

1. 是的（如果是的話，請繼續到 Q41，然後跳到 Q43） 2. 無（如果沒有，請跳到 Q42 及繼續）

Q41 您認為以下方式對於讓您的顧客瞭解本地種植的種要性（1 非常不重要 7 非常重要）。

溝通工具	非常不重要	非常重要
1. 菜單上加註說明	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	
2. 產地來源的標示	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	
3. 工作人員（服務人員、廚房工作人員、管理人員）對本地食物的知識 /	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	
4. 教育員工有關本地食品產品/食材	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	
5. 教育客戶介紹本地的糧食產品/食材	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	
6. 餐廳的聲譽	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	
7. 廚師的聲譽	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	
8. 主題的餐廳	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	
9. 個人建議（口碑）	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	
10. 宣傳單（即摺頁冊、海報、特別可擦板上）	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	
11. 社交媒體（如網站和 Facebook）	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	
12. 廣告（即食品指南，報紙評論或得獎）	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	

Q42. 您對本地種植的食品推廣有多少興趣？請注明 1 到 7, 1 非常不感興趣 和 7 很感興趣

非常不感興趣	有些略不感興趣	稍有不感興趣	無所謂	略為感興趣	有些感興趣	很感興趣
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Q43.你希望收到一份調查的結果嗎？

1. 是 2. 否

如果是，請說明您的電子郵件地址： _____

Q44.你想要包含在電影票（家庭套票）的抽籤中嗎？

1. 是 (請說明您的電子郵件地址： _____) 2 否

Q45. 你有興趣參與此研究專案後續的個人探訪嗎？ 請選擇一個打 (✓)，並提供您方便的連絡
詳細資訊在下面

1. 的是 2. 無

聯絡人姓名及您的職稱： _____ (請列印)

您的公司名稱： _____ Telephone 人數： _____

打電話的最佳時間： _____ 電子郵件： _____

調查結束

請將調查摺頁冊放款入所提供的郵資已付回郵信封，並將它寄回。謝謝您的時間和寶貴的意見在這項研究

個人簡歷

Hiran Roy

候選人哲學 博士學位候選人

坎特伯雷大學、商學院和經濟學、坎特伯雷

紐西蘭基督城。

論文： "本地食物在餐廳的角色"

教育背景： MBA 在酒店與旅遊管理從圭爾夫大學管理和經濟學，安大略省，加拿大 2011 年；**大廚認證**來自加拿大的烹飪學院，2006 年 在加拿大的廚藝學院獲得(C.C.C) 認證，從溫哥華社區學院學完成教師教育培訓在2005 年，**烹飪專業文憑** (紅色公章) ITACA 不列顛哥倫比亞省政府、加拿大在 2001 年，**酒店管理文憑** 從酒店管理學院1989 年在印度加爾各答及1989 年印度加爾各答大學獲得**學士學位**。

榮譽和學術獎： 獲頒紐西蘭英聯邦獎學金和獎學金計畫 (2013年-2016 年) ,加拿大美食電視節目"I Do, Let's Eat 2007 年 ,2007 年團隊成員年度獎在希爾頓溫哥華機場。

經驗： 從酒店商業 貿易學校畢業的我曾在不同的著名場所任職領導管理職位例如加拿大、美國、開曼群島、香港和印度等地。此外曾做為一位旅遊和服務業課程的教師在加拿大溫哥華的一間教育機構。

專業關係成員： 加拿大烹飪聯合會 (CCF)會員 自 2006 年；自 2004不列顛哥倫比亞省廚師協會 (BCCA) 的成員。

A9. Survey questionnaire for Christchurch: Restaurants and chefs

餐館/廚師調查

調查數目： ____

說明和定義

請回答每個問題，盡你的能力。每個問題已設計為它自己的重要性。如果一個特定的問題不是適用於你的請保留空白。如果其他是適用的請指定您的答案與一份書面答覆。

請當你考慮和回應問題時，使用下面的定義：

供貨商 (不是中間商或小型批發商)： 供貨商主要從事種植、收穫和銷售他們的產品 (包括水果、蔬菜、肉類、魚類和海鮮、乳製品、和加工產品) 給餐館直接在 farmers' market(s)銷售。

農民/生產者： 農民/生產者，主要從事種植、收穫、和銷售他們的產品 (包括水果、蔬菜、肉類、魚類和海鮮、乳製品、和增值產品) 給餐館是直接從他們的農場，但不是經由零售或 farmers' market(s)。

批發商/分銷商： 主要從事獲取和直接賣給餐廳本地糧食產品(分別在本地/全國/區域的)。

供應商： 包括 (如 farmers' market(s) 供貨商、農民和生產者和批發商/分銷商) 主要從事直接賣本地糧食產品給餐廳。

第一部分：餐廳統計資料

Q1. 您所屬的餐飲服務類別是 (請選擇一種) ?

1. <input type="checkbox"/> 高檔全服務的餐廳	2. <input type="checkbox"/> 休閒/家庭全服務的餐廳
3. <input type="checkbox"/> 旅館餐廳	4. <input type="checkbox"/> 有限度的服務 (速食) 餐廳
5. <input type="checkbox"/> 咖啡廳	6. <input type="checkbox"/> 自助餐廳
7. <input type="checkbox"/> 專業服務 (例如, 外燴 宴席)	8. <input type="checkbox"/> 其他 (請注明) : _____

Q2. 請選擇您建立的擁有權類別 (請選擇一種)。

1. <input type="checkbox"/> 獨立經營的	2. <input type="checkbox"/> 連鎖的 (同一公司擁有)	3. <input type="checkbox"/> 加盟店 (各別持有人經營)
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Q3. 您的職稱是 (請選擇一種) ?

1. <input type="checkbox"/> 行政主廚	2. <input type="checkbox"/> 行政 副主廚	3. <input type="checkbox"/> 廚師兼擁有者/經營者
4. <input type="checkbox"/> 總經理	5. <input type="checkbox"/> 餐飲總監	6. <input type="checkbox"/> 食物和飲料經理
7. <input type="checkbox"/> 採購部經理	8. <input type="checkbox"/> 經理	9. <input type="checkbox"/> 其他 (請注明) : _____

Q4. 性別 1. 男 2. 女

Q5. 您從事這一職位有多久在這一間店？

1. <input type="checkbox"/> 0-2 年	2. <input type="checkbox"/> 2-4 年	3. <input type="checkbox"/> 5-10 年	4. <input type="checkbox"/> 10 年以上
-----------------------------------	-----------------------------------	------------------------------------	------------------------------------

Q6. 您的國籍是什麼？_____

Q7. 您在那裏接受您的培訓？（請選擇所有適用）

1. <input type="checkbox"/> 國際培訓	2. <input type="checkbox"/> 國家學術機構	3. <input type="checkbox"/> 全國廚師學校
4. <input type="checkbox"/> 內部培訓	5. <input type="checkbox"/> 沒有正式的培訓	6. <input type="checkbox"/> 其它 _____

Q8. 您有多少自主權去選擇供應商？請評價您的自主權程度在下面程度的數位 4 作為完全自主和沒有自主權 1

沒有自主權	小小的自主權	一些自主權	完全自主
1	2	3	4

第二部分：本地食物的定義

Q9. 我想要瞭解您對本地食物的定義。請打一個 (✓)，是最準確地反映了你對本地食物的定義。

被界定為"本地食品"新鮮蔬果(水果和蔬菜)，蛋白質(肉、家禽、蛋、魚、海鮮)，乳品(包括乳酪)，和加工產品(烘焙和預先準備物)產品應經由種植或生產

1. <input type="checkbox"/> 50 公里 (30 英哩) 的行車距離從餐廳	2. <input type="checkbox"/> 100 公里 (60 英里) 的行車距離從餐廳	3. <input type="checkbox"/> 161 公里 (100 英里) 的行車距離從餐廳
4. <input type="checkbox"/> 從餐廳的行車距離 200 公里 (125 英里) 範圍內	5. <input type="checkbox"/> 在大基督城地區	6. <input type="checkbox"/> 在南島地區
7. <input type="checkbox"/> 這些都不是	8. <input type="checkbox"/> 不知道	

第三部分：本地食物的使用

Q10. 您目前購買任何本地方食物嗎？請打一個 (✓)

1. 是的(如果是的話，請繼續到 Q11)。 2. 無

如果不是，為什麼您不在本地購買，或停止這樣做嗎？請圈最準確地反映您的可能原因編號 (1 強烈不同意, 強烈同意 7)。

未能選擇本地產品的因素	強烈不同意	強烈同意
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1.成本太高	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.不穩定的品質產品/原料	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.有限制的選擇	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.供應量不足	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.供應短缺不穩定	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6.不可靠的來源	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7.不完整的資訊	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8.太費時去查找來源	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9.不固定的送貨時間	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10.無法滿足特定的要求	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11.季節性	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12.食品安全的考量	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13.增加處理時間當使用本地產品時	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14.與主要供應商有簽訂合同	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Q11.請選擇所有您通常購買本地食物的方法。(請選擇所有適用)

不同零售商	是	無
1.當地分銷商		
2.區域分銷商		
3.全國分銷商		
4.農民市場		
5.路邊農場販		
6.直接從農民生產者採購(不是從農場販或農民市場)		
7.本地工廠		
8.社區支援農業		
9.其他(請注明): _____		

從 Farmers' Market(s) 的供貨商 :

Q12.您目前直接從農民'市場供貨商購買本地的產品/食材嗎?請打一個(✓/√)

1. 是的(如果是的話,請跳到 Q14) 2. 沒有(如果沒有,請回答 Q13,然後跳到 Q25)

Q13.為什麼不直接購買來自於供貨商 farmers' market(s)? 正如1 強烈不同意 和 強烈同意7

障礙類別	強烈反對	強烈同意					
1.滿意目前分銷商	7	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.喜歡只有一家供應商	7	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.沒有時間選擇多家供貨商	7	1	2	3	4	5	6

4.農夫市場供貨商供應量不足	7	1	2	3	4	5	6
5.不能確定的品質和穩定性	7	1	2	3	4	5	6
6.缺乏產品/食材資訊	7	1	2	3	4	5	6
7.不提供送貨	7	1	2	3	4	5	6
8.缺乏退款機制	7	1	2	3	4	5	6
9.缺乏時間和工作人員去採購	7	1	2	3	4	5	6
10.產品/食材都太貴了	7	1	2	3	4	5	6
11.停車是個問題	7	1	2	3	4	5	6
12.farmers' market(s) 太遠了	7	1	2	3	4	5	6
13. 其他障礙(請注明): _____							

Q14.您有多長時間是直接從 farmers' market(s) 的供貨商採購？

年 _____ 月 _____

Q15.您會有多經常購買以下類別本地種植的糧食產品/食材是來自供貨商在farmers' market(s)? 請選擇所有適用的打 (✓) 在最準確地反映了你需求的各個類別。

農民市場供貨商	一次一周	一周多個次	每月一次	每隔 2-4 個月	每隔 5-7 個月	每 8-11 個月	一年一次
1.新鮮的農產品	<input type="checkbox"/>						
2.蛋白質,肉類	<input type="checkbox"/>						
3.乳品,奶蛋類	<input type="checkbox"/>						
4.加工類產品	<input type="checkbox"/>						

Q16.您為什麼選擇購買本地種植的糧食產品/食材並是來自供貨商 在farmers' market(s)? 請圈最準確地反映了你的想法的數字 (1 強烈不同意"和 強烈同意7)

類別/屬性	強烈不同意				強烈同意		
1.farmers' market(s) 食品產品有助於滿足客戶的需求	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.食品產品/食材都能夠配合菜單的須求	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.食品產品/食材能提高菜單的價格	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.能夠得到較高的品質	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.能夠得到更新鮮食品產品/食材	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6.食品產品/食材種植/本地生產	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7.能夠得到唯一性(原生種)的食品產品/食材	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8.食品產品/食材有更好的口味	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9.食品產品食材/更安全	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10.食品產品/食材更營養和健康	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

11.能夠獲得少量的產品	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. 能夠獲得有機食品	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13.知道食材種植的方式	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. 有助於建立與供貨商的工作關係	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15.接觸供貨商和熟悉區域食品	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16.物超所值	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17.所需的運輸成本較低	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18.食品產品/食材促進區域糧食安全	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19.結合本地的糧食產品在 farmers' market(s) 是推廣本地食品和支援本地供貨商的有效途徑	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20.從 farmers' market(s) 購買可以支援地方經濟	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21.食品產品/食材從farmers' market(s) 允許建立作為推廣者可為國內遊客提供烹飪旅遊經驗	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22.食品產品/食材從 farmers' market(s) 允許建立作為推廣者可為國際遊客提供烹飪旅遊經驗	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23.食品產品/食材是完全或使用較少的農藥或激素	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24.從 farmers' market(s) 有助於環境因為更短的距離 車程	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Q17. 大約多少百分比是直接從供貨商在farmers' market(s)購買本地種植的產品/食材，其特定產品的類型和每年的季節在以下列出了?(請提供您基於產品計數的最佳估計數。例如，在夏季如果50磅(22.67公斤)從100磅(45.35公斤)新鮮的蔬果是從農民市場的供貨商購買；因此50%是採購於本地供貨商在 farmers' market(s))

農民市場供貨商	冬季(6月-8月)	春季(9月-11月)	夏季(12月-2月)	秋季(3月-5月)
1.新鮮的農產品	_____%	_____%	_____%	_____%
2.蛋白質,肉類	_____%	_____%	_____%	_____%
3.乳品, 奶蛋類	_____%	_____%	_____%	_____%
4. 加工類產品	_____%	_____%	_____%	_____%

Q18.從大約多少不同的供貨商被用來滿足這些採購量在每個類別?(提供數量再以下空間)

1.新鮮農產品：___	2. 蛋白質,肉類：___	3. 乳品, 奶蛋類：___	4. 加工類產品：___
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Q19.請列出您購買的季節，還有您選擇的farmers' market(s) 供貨商。

說明	供貨商 1	供貨商 2	供貨商 3	供貨商 4
供貨商的名稱				
農民市場位置				
季節(圈選)	冬天 春天 夏天 秋天	冬天 春天 夏天 秋天	冬天 春天 夏天 秋天	冬天 春天 夏天 秋天

Q20. 什麼百分比是您的供貨商會提供以下類型的產品? 請選擇所有合適的打 (✓)

供貨商的百分比	1.傳統種植	2.認證的有機	3.非認證的有機	4.混合植種法	5.放山飼養	6.其他
小於 10%	<input type="checkbox"/>					
11%至 25%	<input type="checkbox"/>					
26%至 50%	<input type="checkbox"/>					
51%至 75%	<input type="checkbox"/>					
76%至 99%	<input type="checkbox"/>					
全部	<input type="checkbox"/>					
無	<input type="checkbox"/>					
不知道	<input type="checkbox"/>					

Q21. 您所購買是增加、減少或保持相同在下列類型的產品?請選擇所有適用的打(✓)

農民市場供貨商	增加	減少	相同
1.傳統種植	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2.認證的有機	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3.非認證的有機	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4.混合植種法	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5.放山飼養	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6.其他 (請注明): _____			

Q22. 產品/食材從 farmers' market(s) 供貨商採購的是如何送到? 請選擇所有合適的打(✓)

1. <input type="checkbox"/> 供應商送貨	2. <input type="checkbox"/> 由餐廳/廚師去提貨	3. <input type="checkbox"/> 其他方法 (請描述) : _____
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Q23. 您是用什麼方法付款或較喜好使用的付款方式?請選擇所有適用打(✓)

付款方法	使用的付款方式	較喜好的付款方式
1.貨到付款	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2.支票	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3.信用卡/轉帳卡	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4.定期付款計畫 (例如每週、每兩周或每月)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5.沒有特別方式	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6.其他 (請注明) : _____		

Q24. 下面所列各種有關的問題是來自本地食品供貨商 farmers' market(s). 請圈選是否你認為會遭遇到 (1 是非常不同意 和 7 是非常同意)

潛在的問題類別	非常不同意	非常同意
1. 全年數量供應不足	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	
2. 品質不穩定	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	
3. 有限的品種選擇	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	
4. 有限的市場和只有特定開放時間	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	
5. 產品價格都太高	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	
6. 缺乏產品/食材可用性資訊	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	
7. 當地的健康和糧食安全問題	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	
8. 物流 (運輸) 困難	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	
9. 清潔和堅固的包裝	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	
10. 包裝大小的一致性	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	
11. 市場的停車空間不足	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	
12. 須要多人工處理食材	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	
13. 僅現金付款在 farmers' market(s) 被接受	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	
14. 其他問題(請注明): ____		

從農民/生產者 (農場) :

Q25. 你目前有直接從本地的農民生產者購買產品/食材嗎? 請選擇一個打 '√') 。

1. 是的 (如果是的話, 請跳到 Q27) 2. 沒有 (如果沒有, 請回答 Q26, 然後跳到 Q36)

Q26. 為什麼不直接購買或經常直接購買來自本地農民生產者的產品?, 1強烈不同意 7強烈同意"

障礙類別	強烈不同意	強烈同意
1. 滿意現有的分銷商	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	
2. 沒有多餘時間聯繫數個農民, 不方便	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	
3. 本地的農民生產者不能提供足夠的數量	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	
4. 不能確定交付產品的品質	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	
5. 不能確定交付產品的一致性	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	
6. 無法生產出所需要的產品	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	
7. 缺乏產品/食材可用性資訊	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	
8. 不提供送貨服務	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	
9. 產品不能在指定的日期或時間送達	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	
10. 地方衛生和食品安全問題	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	
11. 無法提供正規收據	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	
12. 產品食材的價格都太高	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	
13. 農場太遠了	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	

Q27. 您有多長時間是直接從本地的農民生產者採購?

年_____或幾個月_____

Q28. 您有多頻繁的從農民/生產者購買本地種植糧食產品/食材? 請選擇所有適用的打 (✓) 且最準確地反映了你認為的各個類別。

農民和生產者	一周一 次	一周多次	每個月 一次	每隔 2-4 個月一次	每隔 5-7 個月一次	每 8-11 個 月一次	一年 一次
1.新鮮的農產品	<input type="checkbox"/>						
2.蛋白質,肉類	<input type="checkbox"/>						
3.乳品,奶蛋類	<input type="checkbox"/>						
4.加工類產品	<input type="checkbox"/>						

Q29. 大約多少百分比是直接從農民和生產者購買本地種植的產品/食材, 其特定產品的類型和每年的季節在以下列出了?(請提供您基於產品計數的最佳估計數。例如, 在夏季如果 50 磅 (22.67 公斤) 從 100 磅 (45.35 公斤) 新鮮的蔬果是從農民和生產者購買 ; 因此 50%是採購於農民和生產者

農民和生產者	冬季 (6月-8月)	春季 (9月-11月)	夏季 (12月-2月)	秋季 (3月-5月)
1.新鮮的農產品	_____%	_____%	_____%	_____%
2.蛋白質,肉類	_____%	_____%	_____%	_____%
3.乳品,奶蛋類	_____%	_____%	_____%	_____%
4.加工類產品	_____%	_____%	_____%	_____%

Q30. 從大約多少不同的農民和生產者被用來滿足這些採購量在每個類別? (提供數量再以下空間)

1.新鮮農產品: ____	2. 蛋白質,肉類: ____	3. 乳品, 奶蛋類: ____	4. 加工類產品: ____
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Q31. 請列出您購買的季節, 還有您選擇的農民和生產者。

說明	農場 1	農場 2	農場 3	農場 4
農場的名稱				
農場的位置				
季節 (圈選)	冬天 春天 夏天 秋天	冬天 春天 夏天 秋天	冬天 春天 夏天 秋天	冬天 春天 夏天 秋天

Q32. 什麼百分比是您的農民和生產者會提供以下類型的產品? 請選擇所有合適的打 (✓)

農民和生產者的百分比	1.傳統種植	2.認證的有機	3.非認證的有機	4.混合種植種法	5.放山飼養	6.其他

小於 10%	<input type="checkbox"/>					
11%至 25%	<input type="checkbox"/>					
26%至 50%	<input type="checkbox"/>					
51%至 75%	<input type="checkbox"/>					
76%至 99%	<input type="checkbox"/>					
全部	<input type="checkbox"/>					
無	<input type="checkbox"/>					
不知道	<input type="checkbox"/>					

Q33. 您所購買是增加、減少或保持相同在下列類型的產品?請選擇所有適用的打(✓)

農民和生產者	增加	減少	住同一
1.傳統種植	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2.認證的有機	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3.非認證的有機	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4.混合植種法	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5.放山飼養	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6.其他 (請注明): _____			

Q34. 產品/食材從農民和生產者採購的是如何送到? 請選擇所有合適的打(✓)

1. <input type="checkbox"/> 供應商送貨	2. <input type="checkbox"/> 由餐廳/廚師去提貨	3. <input type="checkbox"/> 其他方法 (請描述) : _____
-----------------------------------	---------------------------------------	--

Q35. 您是用什麼方法付款或較喜好使用的付款方式?請選擇所有適用打(✓)

付款方法	使用的付款方式	較喜好的付款方式
1.貨到付款	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2.支票	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3.信用卡/轉帳卡	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4.定期付款計畫 (例如每週、每兩周或每月)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5.沒有特別方式	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6.其他 (請注明) : _____		

從分銷商/批發商

Q36. 請列出所有你現有的食物分銷商和你所採購的類別。

分銷商的名稱	採購的類別
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示例——A.B.C 的餐廳分銷商	肉類和乳製品

Q37. 什麼因素是你覺得是很重要的當選擇食物的供應商（farmers' market(s) 供貨商、農民和生產廠家和批發/分銷商）？請圈最準確地反映了你認知的數字（1非常不重要 和 7 非常重要）

類別/屬性	非常不重要		非常重要				
1.在訂購過程中方便性	6	7	1	2	3	4	5
2.保證產品品質的一致性	6	7	1	2	3	4	5
3.全年供應	6	7	1	2	3	4	5
4.對產品有充分瞭解	6	7	1	2	3	4	5
5.按時交貨的能力	6	7	1	2	3	4	5
6.產品/食材合理的價格	6	7	1	2	3	4	5
7.提供靈活的付款方式	6	7	1	2	3	4	5
8.提供任何所需數量	6	7	1	2	3	4	5
9.提供範圍廣泛的食品產品/食材的選擇	6	7	1	2	3	4	5
10.願意分享資訊	6	7	1	2	3	4	5
11.對客戶服務的承諾	6	7	1	2	3	4	5
12.對問題或解決問題的能力	6	7	1	2	3	4	5
13.食品有安全保證	6	7	1	2	3	4	5
14.有替代品提供選擇	6	7	1	2	3	4	5
15.提供加工/包裝品產品的能力	6	7	1	2	3	4	5

Q38. 你會願意支付更高的價格購買本地種植的糧食產品/食材嗎？請選擇一個打(√)

1. 會 2. 不會（如果不會，請跳到Q39）

如果會的話，請選擇所有適用的打(√) 在以下清單中最準確地反映了你對你願意付更多去購買本地種植糧食產品/食材的原因：

1. <input type="checkbox"/> 產品屬性(品質,味道口感好 外觀佳和新鮮度)	2. <input type="checkbox"/> 安全性	3. <input type="checkbox"/> 有營養價值
4. <input type="checkbox"/> 有機種植	5. <input type="checkbox"/> 有機認證	6. <input type="checkbox"/> 傳統種植
7. <input type="checkbox"/> 天然	8. <input type="checkbox"/> 無轉基因	9. <input type="checkbox"/> 無殺蟲劑

10. <input type="checkbox"/> 產品貼上標籤 "本地種植"	11. <input type="checkbox"/> 支持本地的經濟	12. <input type="checkbox"/> 本地種植有附加價值
13. <input type="checkbox"/> 環境可持續性	14. <input type="checkbox"/> 對本地小型的供應商和農民的支持	

Q39. 購買本地食品產品/食材上會對我的利潤產生積極的影響。請圈最準確地反映了你的認知數字（1 強烈不同意 7 強烈同意）

強烈不同意	有點不同意	稍有不同意	既不同意也不反對	略為同意	有點同意	強烈同意
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

第四部分：本地食物推廣

Q40. 您的餐廳目前正在推廣本地種植的糧食產品/食材資訊給您的顧客嗎？請選擇一個打（√）

1. 是的（如果是的話，請繼續到 Q41，然後跳到 Q43） 2. 無（如果沒有，請跳到 Q42 及繼續）

Q41 您認為以下方式對於讓您的顧客瞭解本地種植的種要性（1 非常不重要 7 非常重要）。

溝通工具	非常不重要	非常重要
1. 菜單上加註說明	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	
2. 產地來源的標示	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	
3. 工作人員（服務人員、廚房工作人員、管理人員）對本地食物的知識 /	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	
4. 教育員工有關本地食品產品/食材	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	
5. 教育客戶介紹本地的糧食產品/食材	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	
6. 餐廳的聲譽	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	
7. 廚師的聲譽	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	
8. 餐廳的主題	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	
9. 個人建議（口碑）	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	
10. 宣傳單（即摺頁冊、海報、特別可擦板上）	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	
11. 社交媒體（如網站和 Facebook）	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	
12. 廣告（即食品指南，報紙評論或得獎）	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	

Q42. 您對本地種植的食品推廣有多少興趣？請注明 1 到 7, 1 非常不感興趣 和 7 很感興趣

非常不感興趣	有些略不感興趣	稍有不感興趣	無所謂	略有感興趣	有些感興趣	很感興趣
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Q43. 你希望收到一份調查的結果嗎？

1. 是 2. 否

如果是，請說明您的電子郵件地址： _____

Q44. 你想要包含在電影票（家庭套票）的抽籤中嗎？

1. 是 (請說明您的電子郵件地址： _____) 2. 否

Q45. 你有興趣參與此研究專案後續的個人採訪嗎？ 請選擇一個打 (✓)，並提供您方便的連絡詳細資訊在下面

1. 的是 2. 無

聯絡人姓名及您的職稱： _____ (請列印)

您的公司名稱： _____ Telephone 人數： _____

打電話的最佳時間： _____ 電子郵件： _____

調查結束

請將調查摺頁冊放入所提供的郵資已付回郵信封，並將它寄回。謝謝您的時間和寶貴的意見在這項研究

個人簡歷

Hiran Roy

博士學位候選人

坎特伯雷大學、商學院和經濟學、坎特伯雷
紐西蘭基督城。

論文： "本地食物在餐廳的角色"

教育背景： MBA 在酒店與旅遊管理從圭爾夫大學管理和經濟學，安大略省，加拿大 2011 年；**大廚認證**來自加拿大的烹飪學院，2006 年在加拿大的廚藝學院獲得(C.C.C) 認證，從溫哥華社區學院學完成教師教育培訓在2005 年，**烹飪專業文憑** (紅色公章) ITACA 不列顛哥倫比亞省政府、加拿大在 2001 年，**酒店管理文憑**從酒店管理學院1989 年在印度加爾各答及1989 年印度加爾各答大學獲得**學士學位**。

榮譽和學術獎： 獲頒紐西蘭英聯邦獎學金和獎學金計畫 (2013年-2016 年) ,加拿大美食電視節目"I Do, Let's Eat 2007 年 ,2007 年團隊成員年度獎在希爾頓溫哥華機場。

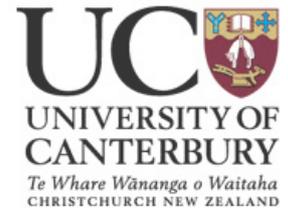
經驗： 從酒店商業 貿易學校畢業的我曾在不同的著名場所任職領導管理職位例如加拿大、美國、開曼群島、香港和印度等地。此外曾做為一位旅遊和服務業課程的教師在加拿大溫哥華的一間教育機構。

專業關係成員： 加拿大烹飪聯合會 (CCF)會員 自 2006 年；自 2004 為不列顛哥倫比亞省廚師協會 (BCCA) 的成員。

**Semi-structured interview: Vancouver, Canada and
Christchurch, New Zealand**

A10. Information Sheet: Restaurants and chefs

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“The Role of Local Food in Restaurants”

INFORMATION SHEET FOR RESTAURANTS AND CHEFS

You are invited to participate in this project on the topic of “The Role of Local Food in Restaurants” which I am doing for my doctoral research. As a trained chef (Certified Chef de Cuisine) with 24 years of work experience in the hospitality trade in Canada, U.S.A, Hong Kong, Cayman Island, and India I am trying to gain a better understanding of the significance of local food in restaurants and the reality of local food use and purchase as compared to what is often shown in the media. In this project, I would like to know your perceptions, motivations, and barriers and constraints of buying and promoting local food products/ingredients on the menu at your restaurant. Over the past decade, interest in local food has increased in popularity among the general public as well as in the restaurant context. Therefore, your restaurant is included as one of several restaurants to be involved in my study. I believe that because you are actively involved in the management and operation of your organization, you are best suited to speak about your perceptions, motivations, and barriers and constraints of buying from the local farmers’ market(s), farmers, and suppliers as well as the promotion of local food products/ingredients to restaurant guests. I do not need any confidential information concerning your restaurant I only need your viewpoint for different aspects of local food procurement and promoting local food products/ingredients by your restaurant. The information sheet outlines the standard procedures undertaken for such research.

Your participation in this study is completely voluntary. There are no known or anticipated risks to you as a participant in this study. An interview of approximately one hour in length will take place in a mutually agreed upon time at your business location or over the telephone or via skype. You may decline to answer any of the interview questions if you so wish. Further you may decide to withdraw from this study at any time without any negative consequences by advising the researcher, including withdrawal of any information you have provided, until your questionnaire has been added to the others collected. Shortly after the interview has been completed, I will send you a copy of the transcript to give you an opportunity to confirm the accuracy of our conversation and to add or clarify any points that you wish. You may also request a copy of the final report at the conclusion of the project when data analysis is completed.

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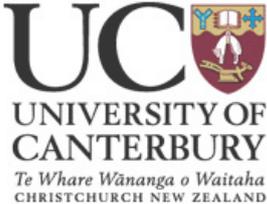
Thank you in advance for your time and assistance in this project.

Yours sincerely,

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New Zealand

A11.Consent Form: Restaurants and chefs

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Date: 10th March 2014



“The Role of Local Food in Restaurants”

CONSENT FORM FOR RESTAURANTS AND CHEFS

I have read and understood the description of the above-named project. On this basis I agree to participate as a subject in the project, and I give consent to the publication of results of the project with the understanding that anonymity will be preserved.

I also understand that I may withdraw from the project at any time without penalty, including of any information I have provided.

I am aware that I have the option of allowing my interview to be tape recorded to ensure an accurate recording of my responses.

I understand that any information or opinions I provide will be kept confidential to the researcher and his supervisors and that any published or reported results will neither identify me nor my restaurant. I understand that a thesis is a public document and will be available through the University of Canterbury Library.

I understand that all data collected for the study will be kept in locked and secure facilities and/or in password protected electronic form and will be destroyed after ten years. I understand the risks associated with taking part and how they will be managed.

I understand that I am able to receive a report on the findings of the study by contacting the researcher at the conclusion of the project.

By signing below, I agree to participate in this research project.

I note that the project has been reviewed and approved by the University of Canterbury Human Ethics Committee.

Name:

Signature:

Date:

A12. Interview Questions: Restaurants and Chefs

Interview Number: _____

Name of the restaurant: _____

Name of interviewee: _____

Position/role of interviewee: _____ Gender of interviewee: _____

Years living in the region: _____ Years of industry experience: _____

Name of interviewer: _____ Date/Time: _____

Introduction of interviewer, reading and signing of a consent form

Restaurant/Chef

1. What type of local food products do you normally buy from vendors and/or farmers/producers? Please be as specific as possible.
2. What characteristics are important to you when selecting a local food item to purchase? (e.g., price, quality, taste, convenience, freshness, availability, appearance, and variety of menu application)
3. What motivates you to purchase local food?
4. What do you perceive to be the benefits to your establishment of purchasing local food products?
5. How do you define quality in the food products you purchase?
6. Does your menu changes daily, weekly, or seasonally? Do you change your vendors and/or farmers/producers seasonally?
7. How do you describe your style of cooking (cuisine)? (For example, simple, modern, contemporary, and advanced technique)
8. Overall, how satisfied are you with the working relationships you have established with vendors and/or farmers/producers you directly buy from? Who initiated the relationship with them: restaurant or farm? Has your relationship changed over time?
9. Do you know the vendors and/or farmers/producers that prepare or grow the food products/ingredients sell to you? If so, how?
 - a. How does personally knowing your vendors and/or farmers/producers influence your purchasing decisions?
 - b. How does personally knowing your vendors and/or farmers/producers influence your relationship with your customers?
10. Do you visit vendors and/or farmers/producers farms and/or know about their agricultural practices?
11. Besides the vendors and/or farmers/producers, if you are currently purchasing your local food products/ingredients from wholesaler/distribution firms, approximately what percent of your total food purchases is coming from this source? Why do you prefer to buy from wholesalers/distributors? Do you receive any kind of reimbursements, incentives or subsidies (for example, bulk discount and early payment) that influence you sourcing and purchasing decisions from wholesalers/distributors? What are the major challenges that you have encountered (if any) with wholesalers/distributors?
12. Do you have purchase contract with wholesalers/distributors? If so, can you describe the contract terms?

Food Chain

13. How the food products/ingredients purchased from vendors and/or from farmers/producers transport to your establishment? How often does the products transport to the establishment? How soon after ordering do you receive shipment from the local

farmers/producers? What distance between vendors stall and/or farmers/producers farm and your establishment (Km/miles, one way)?

Challenges for purchasing of local food products/ingredients

14. What do you perceive as challenges to your establishment of purchasing locally grown food products/ingredients?
15. Are there enough locally grown food products/ingredients to support your establishment from farmers' markets and /or from farmers/producers?
16. Do you focus on buying your local food products during the main growing season or do purchase year round? What issues does this create? Do you practice season extension? What challenges do you face in practicing season extension?
17. Do you face challenges in terms of the number of your vendors and/or farmers/producers, their reliability, cost of food products, and/or logistics of transportation and delivery? What ideas do you have for addressing some of your mentioned challenges/barriers?

Knowledge of issues related to culinary tourism

18. What does the phrase, "culinary tourism", mean to you?
 - a. How important are local ingredients to a culinary tourism experience?
 - b. Do you think it is relevant to your establishment? Would you consider your establishment an important aspect of the culinary tourism experience?
 - c. Do you view culinary tourism as a concept or product?

Promotion of local food products/ingredients

19. Do your consumers appear to have a specific interest in menu items that feature locally grown food products/ingredients?
20. How do you communicate about local food products/ingredients with the customers? Do you rely on front staff, on the menu, or other communication tools?
 - a. Do you think menu description highlights origin of the ingredients helps you to promote the particular destination or vendors and/or farmers/producers? Do you think vendors and/or farmers/producers benefits from this? Does this add perceived value of the food?
 - b. Do you think the customer want to know the origin of ingredients? Why? Do you rely on front staff (waiters/waitress) to communicate the origin of ingredients used in food preparation? Is it the front staff (waiters/waitress) job to expand on the menu description? In your experience, are the front staffs (waiters) knowledgeable on how you access local/regional/national ingredients?
 - c. How do you communicate the use of local ingredients to front staff (waiters/waitress)? Do you hold regular team meetings? What is discussed during those meetings? Do you have a menu tasting or information session for your staff?

Future Plans

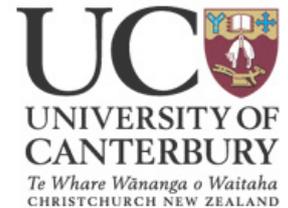
19. Do you have future plans of increasing, decreasing, or staying about the same amount of food you source from farmers' market(s) vendors and/or from farmers/producers?
 - a. If increasing, then under what conditions could the amount of food products/ingredients you purchase from farmers' market(s) vendors and/or farmers/producers increase?
 - b. If decreasing, then under what conditions would purchasing directly with vendors and/or farmers/producers become an option for your establishment?

20. Do you have future plans of increasing, decreasing or staying about the same number of vendors and/or farmers/producers you work with? Why?
21. Do you have any additional comments to share?

Thank you

A13. Information Sheet: Farmers' market vendors

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E-Mail: hiran.roy@pg.canterbury.ac.nz
Date: 10th March 2014



“The Role of Local Food in Restaurants”

INFORMATION SHEET FOR FARMERS' MARKET(S) VENDORS

You are invited to participate in this project on the topic of “The Role of Local Food in Restaurants” which I am doing for my doctoral research. As a trained chef (Certified Chef de Cuisine) with 24 years of work experience in the hospitality trade in Canada, U.S.A, Hong Kong, Cayman Island, and India I am trying to gain a better understanding of the significance of local food in restaurants and the reality of local food use and purchase as compared to what is often shown in the media. In this project, I would like to know your perceptions, motivations, and barriers and constraints of selling your local food products/ingredients to the restaurants and chefs. Over the past decade, interest in local food has increased in popularity among the general public as well as in the restaurant context. Therefore, your organization name (mentioned by surveyed restaurants and chefs) is included as one of several vendors' organization at the farmers' market(s) to be involved in my study. I believe that because you are actively involved in the management and operation of your organization, you are best suited to speak about your perceptions, motivations, and barriers and constraints of selling your food products/ingredients to the restaurants and chefs. I do not need any confidential information concerning your organization I only need your viewpoint for different aspects of local food/ingredients selling by your organization. The information sheet outlines the standard procedures undertaken for such research.

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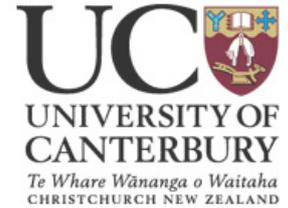
Thank you in advance for your time and assistance in this project.

Yours sincerely,

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University of Canterbury
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A14. Consent Form: Farmers' market vendors

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Date: 10th March 2014



“The Role of Local Food in Restaurants”

CONSENT FORM FOR FARMERS' MARKET(S) VENDORS

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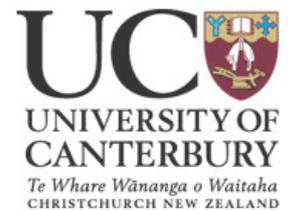
Name:

Signature:

Date:

A15. Information Sheet: Farmers

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www.mang.canterbury.ac.nz
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E-Mail: hiran.roy@pg.canterbury.ac.nz
Date: 10th March 2014



“The Role of Local Food in Restaurants”

INFORMATION SHEET FOR FARMERS/PRODUCERS

You are invited to participate in this project on the topic of “The Role of Local Food in Restaurants” which I am doing for my doctoral research. As a trained chef (Certified Chef de Cuisine) with 24 years of work experience in the hospitality trade in Canada, U.S.A, Hong Kong, Cayman Island, and India I am trying to gain a better understanding of the significance of local food in restaurants and the reality of local food use and purchase as compared to what is often shown in the media. In this project, I would like to know your perceptions, motivations, and barriers and constraints of selling your local food products/ingredients to the restaurants and chefs. Over the past decade, interest in local food has increased in popularity among the general public as well as in the restaurant context. Therefore, your organization name (mentioned by surveyed restaurants and chefs) is included as one of several farmers’ organization to be involved in my study. I believe that because you are actively involved in the management and operation of your organization, you are best suited to speak about your perceptions, motivations, and barriers and constraints of selling your food products/ingredients to the restaurants and chefs. I do not need any confidential information concerning your organization I only need your viewpoint for different aspects of local food/ingredients selling by your organization. The information sheet outlines the standard procedures undertaken for such research.

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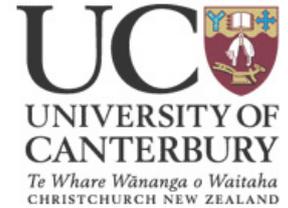
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Yours sincerely,

Hiran Roy (PhD. Student)
Department of Management, Marketing, and Entrepreneurship
College of Business and Economics
University of Canterbury
Private Bag 4800
Christchurch 8140
New Zealand

A16. Consent Form: Farmers

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Date: 10th March 2014



“The Role of Local Food in Restaurants”

CONSENT FORM FOR FARMERS/PRODUCERS

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I note that the project has been reviewed and approved by the University of Canterbury Human Ethics Committee.

Name:

Signature:

Date:

A17. Interview Questions: Farmers/farmers' market vendors

Interview Number: _____

Name of the farm/operation: _____

Name of Interviewee: _____ Position/role of interview: _____

Years living in the region: _____ Years of industry experience: _____

Farming status: Fulltime/part-time/hobby/retired farmer/producer No. of employees: _____

Name of interviewer: _____ Date/Time: _____

Introduction of interviewer, reading and signing of a consent form

Vendors/Farmers

1. What do you understand by the term “local food”? Sometimes distances are considered ‘local food’, what distance do you consider as your ‘local food’?
2. What is the size of your operation? (Acres) What do you grow, raise or produce on your farm/operation?
3. Do you have specialized production techniques (For example, certified organic, modern agricultural techniques/sustainable practices, conventional methods /integrated pest management (IPM), other)? If yes, does this help you to sell your product?
4. How do you define quality in your food products?
5. What do you sell to restaurants or chefs? Please be as specific as possible. How many restaurants or chefs do you regularly sell to? Approximately what percent of the products you sell to restaurants or chefs is grown or prepared by you and your operation (i.e., not resold)? Who initiated this relationship: farm or restaurant? Has your relationship changed over time?
6. Do you sell value added products such as baked goods, preserves, or processed foods directly to restaurants or chefs? If yes, Please provide some example of value added products.
7. How long and how often have you been selling your products to restaurants or chefs? (For example, times per week, times per month or times per year)
8. Overall, how satisfied are you with your level of profitability of selling to restaurants or chefs?
9. Overall, how satisfied are you with the working relationships you have established with restaurants or chefs you directly sell to?
10. Besides farmers market(s) or farm to restaurants or chefs direct sell, do you currently use other distribution channels through which you normally sell your farm products? (For example, wholesalers (distributors), community supported agriculture, roadside farm stand, or other) Approximately what percentages of total sales are coming from that channel?
11. For farmers/producers currently selling the products directly to the restaurants or chefs:
 - a. Do you have purchase contract with your customers (restaurants or chefs)? If so, can you describe the contract terms?

Restaurants and chefs

12. What motivates you to sell your product to the restaurants or chefs?
13. Why have restaurants or chefs chosen to purchase from you? (For example, main attributes and values they place on the products) Do you do special requests for them? (For example, unique products grown/raised for the restaurants or chefs)
14. What kind of buyers (restaurants or chefs) work best for your operation currently (For example, quantity of produce order, consistency, size of buyer, exclusive buyer, distance from your operation, number of restaurants close by, time of year, and/or other)?

15. Do you focus on selling your products during the main growing season or do you sell year round? What issues does this create? Do you practice season extension to cultivate the products out of their normal outdoor growing season? What challenges do you face in practicing season extension?
16. Do you educate your buyers (restaurants and chefs) on where the food is sourced from and your agricultural practices? How?
17. Has any of restaurant or chef ever visited your production site? Wanted to help out your operation in some way? (For example, promote the product, work a market stall)
18. Do you feel you are paid a fair price for your product(s)? Why or why not?
 - a. How do you normally determine fair prices for your product(s) (cost of production plus a desired profit margin, matching other vendors/farmers prices, grocery store comparison, wholesale market comparison, pricing above or below other vendors/farmers)?
 - b. What criteria do you consider in determining fair local market prices for your product(s)?
 - c. What criteria should restaurant or chef should consider in deciding what a fair is market price?

Food Chain

19. If you need to deliver your products to the restaurant or chef's establishment from your stall and/or from farm, how do you transport your food products to the establishment? (For example, hire, drive truck, use fuel efficiency vehicle)
 - a. Does the vehicle transport the products in accordance with HCCAP (Hazard Analysis and Critical Control Point)?
 - b. How often do you transport your product to the establishment? What is the distance between the restaurants or chefs and your stall and/or farm (Km/miles, one way)?
 - c. How soon after ordering do you ship your products to the establishment?

Challenges

20. What would you consider are the main significant challenges in selling your products to the restaurants or chefs through farmers market(s) and/or from farm?
21. Do you face any regulatory and policy considerations (Such as local health and safety regulations, liability insurance, and other requirements such as any licensing and certifications) that can have positive or negative impact to sell your products to restaurants or chefs?
22. Do you face challenges in terms of the number of your buyers (chefs or restaurants) and logistics of transportation and delivery?
23. What ideas do you have for addressing some of your mentioned challenges/barriers?

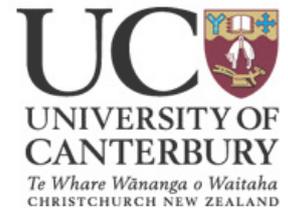
Future Plans

24. Do you have future plans of increasing, decreasing or staying about the same amount of food products you sell to restaurants or chefs directly from farmers' market(s) stall and/or from farm?
25. Do you have future plans of increasing or decreasing or staying about the same number of restaurants or chefs you work with? Why?
26. What opportunities do you foresee to sell more local food to restaurants or chefs?
27. Do you have any additional comments to share?

Thank you

A18. Information sheet: Wholesale distributors

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Date: 10th March 2014



“The Role of Local Food in Restaurants”

INFORMATION SHEET FOR WHOLESALE DISTRIBUTORS

You are invited to participate in this project on the topic of “The Role of Local Food in Restaurants” which I am doing for my doctoral research. As a trained chef (Certified Chef de Cuisine) with 24 years of work experience in the hospitality trade in Canada, U.S.A, Hong Kong, Cayman Island, and India I am trying to gain a better understanding of the significance of local food in restaurants and the reality of local food use and purchase as compared to what is often shown in the media. In this project, I would like to know your perceptions, motivations, and barriers and constraints of selling your local food products/ingredients to the restaurants and chefs as well as purchasing from the local farmers. Over the past decade, interest in local food has increased in popularity among the general public as well as in the restaurant context. Therefore, your organization name (mentioned by surveyed restaurants and chefs) is included as one of several wholesalers to be involved in my study. I believe that because you are actively involved in the management and operation of your organization, you are best suited to speak about your perceptions, motivations, and barriers and constraints of purchasing local food products/ingredients from farmers and selling to the restaurants and chefs. I do not need any confidential information concerning your organization I only need your viewpoint for different aspects of local food/ingredients procurement and selling by your organization. The information sheet outlines the standard procedures undertaken for such research.

Your participation in this study is completely voluntary. There are no known or anticipated risks to you as a participant in this study. An interview of approximately one hour in length will take place in a mutually agreed upon time at your business location or over the telephone or via skype. You may decline to answer any of the interview questions if you so wish. Further you may decide to withdraw from this study at any time without any negative consequences by advising the researcher, including withdrawal of any information you have provided, until your questionnaire has been added to the others collected. Shortly after the interview has been completed, I will send you a copy of the transcript to give you an opportunity to confirm the accuracy of our conversation and to add or clarify any points that you wish. You may also request a copy of the final report at the conclusion of the project when data analysis is completed.

Any information you provide will be kept confidential. Your name or name of your organization will not appear in any thesis or report resulting from this study, however, with your permission anonymous quotations may be used. Data from this research will be reported only in the aggregate and used for academic purposes. Information gained from the survey and interview questionnaires will be stored for ten years at secure facilities and /or in password protected electronic form within the University of Canterbury before being destroyed. Your contact information will neither be published nor divulged to any third party and will not be used for purposes other than contacting you about this research.

The research is being carried out as a requirement for PhD degree at the University of Canterbury, New Zealand by Hiran Roy under the supervision of Professor C. Michael Hall (E-mail: michael.hall@canterbury.ac.nz; Phone: +64 3 364 2987 ext. 8612) and Professor Paul Ballantine (E-mail: paul.ballantine@canterbury.ac.nz; Phone: +64 3 364 2987 ext. 3622). They will be pleased to discuss any concerns you may have about participation in the project.

This project has been reviewed and approved by the University of Canterbury Human Ethics Committee. If you have any complaints regarding this project please address to The Chair, Human Ethics Committee, University of Canterbury, Private Bag 4800, Christchurch, New Zealand (E-mail: human-ethics@canterbury.ac.nz).

If you are agreed to participate in this study, you are asked to complete the consent form and return it to the researcher.

Thank you in advance for your time and assistance in this project.

Yours sincerely,

Hiran Roy (PhD. Student)
Department of Management, Marketing, and Entrepreneurship
College of Business and Economics
University of Canterbury
Private Bag 4800
Christchurch 8140
New Zealand

A19. Consent Form: Wholesale distributors

Hiran Roy (PhD. Student)
Department of Management, Marketing, and Entrepreneurship
College of Business and Economics
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Private Bag 4800
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Date: 10th March 2014



“The Role of Local Food in Restaurants”

CONSENT FORM FOR WHOLESALERS DISTRIBUTORS

I have read and understood the description of the above-named project. On this basis I agree to participate as a subject in the project, and I give consent to the publication of results of the project with the understanding that anonymity will be preserved.

I also understand that I may withdraw from the project at any time without penalty, including of any information I have provided.

I am aware that I have the option of allowing my interview to be tape recorded to ensure an accurate recording of my responses.

I understand that any information or opinions I provide will be kept confidential to the researcher and his supervisors and that any published or reported results will neither identify me nor my organization. I understand that a thesis is a public document and will be available through the University of Canterbury Library.

I understand that all data collected for the study will be kept in locked and secure facilities and/or in password protected electronic form and will be destroyed after ten years. I understand the risks associated with taking part and how they will be managed.

I understand that I am able to receive a report on the findings of the study by contacting the researcher at the conclusion of the project.

By signing below, I agree to participate in this research project.

I note that the project has been reviewed and approved by the University of Canterbury Human Ethics Committee.

Name:

Signature:

Date:

A20. Interview Questions: Wholesale distributors

Interview Number: _____

Name of the organization: _____ Name of interviewee: _____

Position/role of interviewee: _____

Years living in the region: _____ Years of industry experience: _____

Name of interviewer: _____ Date/Time: _____

Introduction of interviewer, reading and signing of a consent form

Wholesalers (distributors)

1. What do you understand by the term “local food”? Sometimes distances are considered ‘local food’, what distance do you consider as your ‘local food’?
2. Approximately what percentage of your food products is from local farmers/producers?
3. Approximately how many different farmers/producers do you buy from? How often do you buy from them?
4. Who makes the food purchasing decisions for your company to get the products from local farmers/producers: corporate/central head office or individual?
5. What are the major reasons for buying local?

Restaurants and Chefs

6. What do you think is driving them to buy your brand/product (main attributes and values they place on the products)? Do they require to be maintained a purchasing policies? (For example, minimum order sizes, and contracts)
7. Do you educate your buyers (restaurants and chefs) on where the food is sourced from and agricultural practices? How?
8. What would you like to sell more local food products to restaurants or chefs? Do you foresee any opportunities to sell more local food to restaurants or chefs?

Farmers/producers

9. What type of local food products do you normally buy from local farmers/producers? Please be as specific as possible. What types of relationships do you have with local food producers/farmers? Has your relationship changed over time?
10. What criteria/guidelines do you use in selecting your potential supplier (farmers/producers) to source your local food products? Do you have a way of verifying your standards? (For example, meet the grade, quality, and other specific aspects of your brand)
11. Do you visit farmers/producers farms and/or know about their agricultural practices?
12. Do you have purchase contract with your suppliers (farmers/producers)? If so, can you describe the contract terms?
13. How do you set prices with your farmers/producers? Does this vary? Based on what?
14. Do you focus on selling the local products during the main growing season or do you sell year round? What issues does this create? How do you deal with the limitation of product seasonality?
15. Do you know the person that prepares or grows the food products/ingredients sells to you? If so, how? How does personally knowing your supplier (local food farmers/producers) influence your purchasing decisions? How does personally knowing your supplier (local farmers/producers) influence your relationship with your customers?

Challenges

16. What do you perceive the barriers are to selling local food products (if any) to restaurants and chefs?
17. What would you consider are the main significant challenges in procuring your required products from the local farmers/producers?
18. How does your businesses' internal policies and protocol impact local food procurement from local farmers/producers? (For example, health and safety regulations, liability insurance, and other requirements such as any licensing and certifications)
19. What ideas do you have for addressing some of your mentioned challenges/barriers?

Food Chain

20. How often do you receive your products from the local farmers/producers? How soon after ordering do you receive shipment from the local farmers/producers?
21. How the products arrive to your place of business? (For example, hire, drive truck, use fuel efficiency vehicle) What is the distance between your local farms and your place of business? (Km/miles, one way)?
22. How soon after ordering do you deliver the products to restaurants or chefs?
23. How are the products delivered to restaurants or chefs? (hire, drive truck, use fuel efficiency vehicle) How often do you transport your products to the restaurants or chefs? What is the distance between your place of business and your customers (restaurants or chefs) (Km/miles, one way)?

Future Plans

24. Do you have future plans of increasing, decreasing, or staying about the same amount of food you source from farmers/producers?
25. Do you have future plans of increasing, decreasing or staying about the same number of vendors and/or farmers/producers you work with? Why?
26. Do you have any additional comments to share?

Thank you

A21. Human Ethics Approval



HUMAN ETHICS COMMITTEE

Secretary, Lynda Griffioen
Email: human-ethics@canterbury.ac.nz

Ref: HEC 2014/13

16 April 2014

Hiran Roy
Department of Management, Marketing & Entrepreneurship
UNIVERSITY OF CANTERBURY

Dear Hiran

The Human Ethics Committee advises that your research proposal "The use of local food in restaurants: a comparison between restaurants and chefs in Christchurch, New Zealand and Vancouver, Canada" has been considered and approved.

Please note that this approval is subject to the incorporation of the amendments you have provided in your email of 14 April 2014.

Best wishes for your project.

Yours sincerely

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'L. MacDonald'.

Lindsey MacDonald
Chair
University of Canterbury Human Ethics Committee

Appendix B: Tables

Table B1 Survey questions and links to source of literature

Question	Statement	Source of literature
Q1. What foodservice segment would your establishment most identify with?		FPC (2003); Curtis & Cowee (2009); Schmit et al. (2010)
Q2. Please select the ownership category of your establishment.		FPC (2003); Curtis & Cowee (2009)
Q3. What is your job designation?		Curtis et al. (2008); Curtis & Cowee (2009)
Q4. Gender		Murphy & Smith (2008)
Q5. How long have you held your current occupation at this particular property?		Telfer & Wall (2000); Goss (2007)
Q6. What is your nationality?		Torres (2003)
Q7. Where did you receive your training?		Torres (2003); Pillay & Rogerson (2012)
Q8. How much autonomy or freedom do you have to select suppliers you buy from?		FPC (2003); Curtis & Cowee (2009)
Q9. I want to understand your definition of local food.		Hinrichs (2003); Selfa & Qazi (2005); Futamura (2007) ; Darby et al. (2008) ; Conner et al. (2009); Inwood et al. (2009); Murphy & Smith (2009); Khan & Prior (2010); Sims (2010); Peterson et al. (2010); Pearson et al. (2011); Dunne et al. (2011); Duram & Cawley (2012); Liang & Dunn (2013); Ballute & Berger (2014); Trivette (2014)
Q10. Do you currently purchase any local food products/ingredients?		Casselman (2010); Reynolds-Allie & Fields (2011)
If no, why haven't you purchased locally, or have discontinued doing so?	Cost too high	Strohbehn & Gregoire (2002); FPC (2003); Starr et al. (2003); Zdorovtsov et al. (2007); Curtis Cowee (2009); Sharma et al. (2009); Casselman (2010); Schmit & Hadcock (2012); Sharma et al. (2014)
	Inconsistent quality of products/ingredients	Curtis & Cowee (2009); Woods et al. (2006); Schmit & Hadcock (2012).
	Narrow/Limited variety of selection	Curtis & Cowee (2009)
	Inadequate volume/quantity	Strohbehn & Gregoire (2002); Curtis & Cowee (2009); Zdorovtsov et al. (2007)
	Inadequate availability	Strohbehn & Gregoire (2002, 2003); FPC (2003); Woods et al. (2006); Hardesty (2008); Curtis & Cowee (2009); Casselman (2010); Reynolds-Allie & Fields (2012)
	Unreliable sources	Casselman (2010)
	Incomplete information/lack of awareness	Curtis & Cowee (2009)
	Too time consuming to locate sources	Curtis & Cowee (2009); Casselman (2010); Reynolds-Allie & Fields (2012)
	Inconsistent delivery schedule	Woods et al. (2006); Curtis & Cowee (2009); Casselman (2010)

	Inability to meet specific products	Casselman (2010)
	Seasonal changes	FPC (2003); Starr et al. (2003); Casselman (2010); Kang & Rajagopal (2014)
	Food safety concerns	Zdorovtsov et al. (2007); Casselman (2010)
	Increased production time when using local products	Strohbehn & Gregoire (2002); Casselman (2010)
	In contracts with prime suppliers	Casselman (2010)
Q11. Please select all of the distribution methods through which you normally purchase (source) your local food products/ingredients for your establishments.		FPC (2003); Schmit et al. (2010); Reynolds-Allie & Fields (2012)
Q12. Do you currently purchase local food products/ingredients directly from farmers' market vendors?		Schmit et al. (2010)
Q13. Why don't you directly purchase from farmers' market(s) vendors?	Satisfied with current distributors	Schmit et al. (2010); Duram & Cawley (2012) Schmit & Hadcock (2012)
	Prefer to have one supplier	Starr et al. (2003)
	Do not have time for several vendors	Strohbehn & Gregoire (2002); Inwood et al. (2009); Schmit et al. (2010); Kang & Rajagopal (2014)
	The volume cannot be satisfied with farmers' market vendors	Zdorovtsov et al. (2007); Curtis & Cowee (2009); Inwood et al. (2009); Schmit et al. (2010); Schmit & Hadcock (2012)
	Unsure of quality or consistencies of products/ingredients	Schmit et al. (2010)
	Lack of information of products/ingredients availability	Curtis et al. (2008); Curtis & Cowee. (2009)
	Do not offer delivery	Strohbehn & Gregoire (2002); FPC (2003); Woods et al. (2006); Zdorovtsov et al. (2007); Curtis & Cowee (2009); Schmit & Hadcock (2012)
	Lack of refund policies	Starr et al. (2003); Kang & Rajagopal (2014)
	Lack of time and staff to visit the market	Inwood et al. (2009)
	Products/ingredients are too expensive	Starr et al. (2003); Murphy (2011); Schmit & Hadcock (2012)
	Parking is a problem	Wolf et al. (2005)
	Farmers' market(s) are too far away	Wolf (1997); Eastwood et al. (1999); Andreatta & Wickliffe (2002); Murphy (2011); Schmit & Hadcock (2012); Dodds et al. (2014)
Q14. How long have you been purchasing directly from farmers' market(s) vendors?		Schmit et al. (2010)
Q15. How often do you purchase following category of locally grown food products/ingredients from farmers' market(s) vendors?		Casselman (2010)
Q16. Why did you decide to purchase locally grown food products/ingredients from farmers'	Farmers' market(s) food products/ingredients helps to meet customer demands	Benepe (2002); FPC (2003); Green & Dougherty (2008); Painter (2008); Hardesty (2008); Duram & Cawley

market(s) vendors?

	(2012)
Food products/ingredients are able to serve a variety of menu applications to customers	Curtis & Cowee (2009)
Food products/ingredients allows to charge a premium price	Sharma (2007); Sharma & Strohbahn (2006); Ortiz (2010); Reynolds-Allie & Fields (2012)
Able to get higher quality of food products/ingredients	Strohbahn & Gregoire (2002, 2003); FPC (2003); Starr et al. (2003); Wolf et al. (2005); Guthrie et al. (2006); Curtis & Cowee (2009); Casselman (2010); Schmit et al. (2010); Dodds et al. (2014)
Able to get fresher food products/ingredients	Trobe (2001); Strohbahn & Gregoire (2002, 2003); FPS (2003); Starr et al. (2003); Feagan et al. (2004); Gregoire et al. (2005); Selfa & Qazi (2005); Wolf et al. (2005); Guthrie et al. (2006); Zdorovtsov et al. (2007); Green & Dougherty (2008); Connell et al. (2008); Conner et al. (2009); FMO (2009); Zepeda & Deal (2009); Casselman (2010); Feagan et al. (2011); Duram & Cawley (2012); Sadler et al. (2013); Spilková et al. (2013); Hall (2013)
Food products/ingredients grown/produced locally	Trobe (2001); Starr et al. (2003); Feagan et al. (2004); Connell et al. (2008); Curtis & Cowee (2009)
Able to get uniqueness/specialty (including heirloom varieties) of food products/ingredients	FPC (2003); Strohbahn & Gregoire (2002); Wolf et al. (2005)
Food products/ingredients have better taste	FPC (2003); Selfa & Qazi (2005); Wolf et al. (2005); Curtis & Cowee (2009); Inwood et al. (2009)
Food products/ingredients are safer	Strohbahn & Gregoire (2002); Starr et al. (2003); Zdorovtsov et al. (2007)
Food products/ingredients are nutritious and healthy	Curtis & Cowee (2009)
Ability to obtain small volume of products	Strohbahn & Gregoire (2002); Starr et al. (2003); Thilmany (2004); Zdorovtsov et al. (2007); Curtis et al. (2008); Casselman (2010)
More availability of organic products	Casselman (2010)
Know how products/ingredients were raised or grown	FPC (2003); Curtis & Cowee (2009); Casselman (2010)
Attending farmers' market(s) helps to build working relationship with vendors	FPC (2003); Starr et al. (2003); Kirwan (2004); Feagan et al. (2004); Conner et al. (2009); Duram & Cawley (2012); Dodds et al. (2014)
Attending farmers' market(s) allows me to meet vendors and become acquainted with regional foods	Inwood et al. (2009)
Value for money	Wolf et al. (2005); Hall (2012); Dodds et al. (2014)
Required lower transportation costs	Strohbahn & Gregoire (2002, 2003); Starr et al. (2003)

	<p>Food products/ingredients promote regional food security Utilizing local food products from farmers' market(s) is an effective way to promote local foods and support local vendors</p>	<p>Zdorovtsov et al. (2007); Selfa & Qazi (2005) Benepe et al. (2002); Strohbehn & Gregoire (2002); FPC (2003); Smith & Hall (2003); Starr et al. (2003); Feagan et al. (2004); Wolf et al. (2005); Connell et al (2008); Green & Dougherty (2008); Conner et al. (2009); Schmit et al. (2010); Ortiz (2010); Dodds et al. (2014); Murphy (2011); Duram & Cawley (2012)</p>
	<p>Purchasing from farmers' market(s) allows to support local economy</p>	<p>Strohbehn & Gregoire (2002, 2003); Guthrie et al. (2006); Zdorovtsov et al. (2007); Painter (2008); Seyfang (2008); Zepeda & Deal (2009); Casselman (2010); Dougherty & Green (2013)</p>
	<p>Food products/ingredients from farmers' market(s) allows the establishment as a promoter to provide culinary tourism experience for domestic visitors</p>	<p>Nummedal & Hall (2006); Pearson et al. (2011)</p>
	<p>Food products/ingredients from farmers' market(s) allows the establishment as a promoter to provide culinary tourism experience for international visitors</p>	<p>Nummedal & Hall (2006)</p>
	<p>Food products/ingredients are free from or use less pesticides and/or hormones Purchasing from farmers' market(s) helps to the environment due to the shorter distance travelled from farm to the market (food miles)</p>	<p>Trobe (2001); Strohbehn & Gregoire (2002); Starr et al. (2003); Alonso & O'Neill (2011) Pirog (2001); Trobe (2001); Zepeda & Li (2006); Zdorovtsov et al. (2007); Duram & Cawley (2012); Dougherty et al. (2013); Dodds et al (2014)</p>
<p>Q17. Approximately what percentage of your food purchases are locally grown products/ingredients, specific to the types of products and time of year listed below from direct purchase with farmers' market(s) vendors?</p>		<p>Casselman (2010); Schmit et al. (2010)</p>
<p>Q18. From approximately how many different vendors were used to meet these purchased amounts with regards to each category?</p>		<p>Casselman (2010); Schmit et al. (2010)</p>
<p>Q19. Please list the farmers' market(s) vendors you direct purchase from and season of the year.</p>		<p>Schmit et al. (2010)</p>
<p>Q20. What percentages of the vendors you purchase from provide the following types of products?</p>		<p>FPC (2003); Strohbehn & Gregoire (2002); Casselman (2010); Schmit et al. (2010)</p>
<p>Q21. Is the number of vendors you are purchasing from increasing, decreasing, or staying the same for the following types of products?</p>		<p>Schmit et al. (2010)</p>

Q22. How are products/ingredients purchased from farmers' market(s) vendors delivered to the establishment?		Schmit et al. (2010)
Q23. What method of payment has your establishment used and what method of payment does your establishment prefer to use with farmer' market(s) vendors?		Strohbehn & Gregoire (2002); Casselman (2010); Peterson et al. (2010); Reynolds-Allie & Fields (2012)
Q24. Listed below are various issues related to local food adoption from farmers' market(s) vendors.	Insufficient volumes or year round adequate volume of supply	Strohbehn & Gregoire (2002); Starr et al. (2003); FPC (2003); Zdorovtsov et al. (2007); Curtis et al. (2008); Inwood et al. (2009); Peterson et al. (2010); Reynolds-Allie & Fields (2012) ; Dougherty et al. (2013)
	Inconsistent supply of products/ingredients	Jones & Jenkins (2002); Curtis et al. (2008); Smith & Xiao (2008); Pillay & Rogerson (2012); Dougherty et al. (2013)
	Limited variety of selection	Benepe (2002); Strohbehn & Gregoire (2002); Curtis & Cowee (2009); Inwood et al. (2009); Zepeda & Deal (2009); Conner et al. (2010); Murphy (2011); Hodges & Stevens (2013)
	Limited market days and hours of operation	Wolf et al. (2005); Inwood et al. (2009); Zepeda and Deal (2009); Conner et al. (2010); Murphy (2011); Hodges & Steven (2013); Dodds et al. (2014)
	Price of the products/ingredients are too high	Benepe (2002); FPC (2003); Starr et al. (2003); Strohbehn & Gregoire (2003); Zdorovtsov et al. (2007); Inwood et al. (2009); Feagan & Morris (2009); Zepeda & Deal (2009); Conner et al. (2010); Peterson et al. (2010); Murphy (2011); Hodges & Stevens (2013); Dodds et al. (2014)
	Lack of information of products/ingredients availability	Curtis et al. (2008); Curtis & Cowee (2009)
	Local health and food safety concerns	Strohbehn & Gregoire (2002); Starr et al. (2003); Gregoire et al. (2005); Smith & Xiao (2008); Pillay & Rogerson (2012); Gregoire et al. (2012); Dougherty et al. (2013)
	Logistics (transportation) difficulty	Starr et al. (2003); Zepeda and Deal (2009); Dougherty et al. (2013)
	Clean and sturdy packaging	Zdorovtsov et al. (2007); Green & Dougherty (2008)
	Consistent package size	Strohbehn & Gregoire (2002, 2003); Zdorovtsov et al. (2007)
	Unavailability of parking space at the market	Hodges & Stevens (2013)
	Labour time required to prepare the purchased products	Hodges & Stevens (2013)
	Payment procedures/acceptance of only cash at the farmers' market(s)	Casselman (2010)

Q25. Do you currently purchase food products/ingredients directly from local farmers/producers?		Schmit et al. (2010)
Q26. Why don't you directly purchase from local farmers/producers?	Satisfied with current distributors	Starr et al. (2003); Inwood et al. (2009); Duram & Cawley (2012); Schmit & Hadcock (2012)
	Do not have time to contact several farmers, inconvenient	Strohbehn & Gregoire (2002); Inwood et al. (2009); Schmit et al. (2010); Schmit & Hadcock (2012); Kang & Rajagopal (2014)
	The volume cannot be satisfied with local farmers/producers	Curtis & Cowee (2009); Schmit & Hadcock (2012); Dougherty et al. (2013); Kang & Rajagopal (2014)
	Unsure of quality of products delivered	Schmit & Hadcock (2012); Kang & Rajagopal (2014)
	Unsure of consistency of products delivered	FPC (2003); Schmit & Hadcock (2012); Dougherty et al. (2013)
	Unable to produce needed products	Casselman (2010)
	Lack of information of products/ingredients availability	Curtis et al. (2008); Curtis & Cowee (2009)
	Do not offer delivery	Curtis & Cowee (2009); Schmit & Hadcock (2012)
	Products are not delivered on the date or time agreed	Strohbehn & Gregoire (2003); Peterson et al. (2010)
	Local health and food safety issues	Strohbehn & Gregoire (2002); Gregoire et al. (2005); Smith & Xiao (2008); Pillay & Rogerson (2012); Dougherty et al. (2013)
	Unable to provide formal receipts	Torres (2000)
	Price of the products/ingredients are too high	Starr et al. (2003); Peterson et al. (2010); Schmit & Hadcock (2012); Kang & Rajagopal (2014)
	Farms are too far away	Schmit & Hadcock (2012) Schmit et al. (2010)
Q27. How long have you been purchasing directly from local farmers/producers?		
Q28. How often do you purchase locally grown food products/ingredients from farmers/producers?		Casselman (2010)
Q29. Approximately what percentage of your food purchases are locally grown products/ingredients, specific to the types of products and time of year listed below from direct purchase with farmers/producers?		FPC (2003); Smith & Hall (2003); Casselman (2010); Schmit et al. (2010)
Q30. From approximately how many different farmers/producers were used to meet these purchased amounts with regards to each category?		Casselman (2010); Schmit et al. (2010)
Q31. Please list the farmers/producers you direct purchase from and season of the year.		Schmit et al. (2010)
Q32. What percentages of the farmers/producers you purchase from provide the following types		Schmit et al. (2010)

of products?

Q33. Is the number of farmers/producers you are purchasing from increasing, decreasing, or staying the same for the following types of products?

Schmit et al. (2010)

Q34. How are products/ingredients purchased from farmers/producers delivered to the establishment?

Schmit et al. (2010); Reynolds-Allie & Fields (2012)

Q35. What method of payment has your establishment used and what method of payment does your establishment prefer to use with farmers/producers?

Casselma (2010); Reynolds-Allie & Fields (2012).

Q36. Please list all of the food distribution firms that currently supply your establishment with its food products and indicate the type of food products you purchase from each of them.

Schmit et al. (2010); Smith (2011).

Q37. What factors are important when selecting a food supplier (farmers' market(s) vendors, farmers/producers, and wholesale/distributor) for your establishment?

Convenience in order process

Strohbehn & Gregoire (2002); Casselman (2010)

Guaranteed consistent of product quality

FPC (2003); Woods et al. (2006); Casselman (2010)

Year-round availability

FPC (2003); Woods et al. (2006); Casselman (2010)

Products/ingredients knowledge

Casselma (2010)

Ability to meet delivery deadlines

FPC (2003); Strohbehn & Gregoire (2003); Gregoire et al. (2005) Woods et al. (2006); Casselman (2010)

Products/ingredients fair prices

FPC's (2003); Gregoire et al. (2005); Woods et al. (2006); Murphy & Smith (2009); Casselman (2010)

Ability to provide flexible payment procedures

Casselma (2010)

Ability to deliver quantity needed or ordered

Casselma (2010)

Ability to provide wide range of food products/ingredients

Woods et al. (2006)

Willingness to share trustworthy information

Murphy & Smith (2009)

Commitment to customer service

Murphy & Smith (2009)

Responsiveness to questions or solving problems

Murphy & Smith (2009)

Food safety assurances

Strohbehn & Gregoire (2002); FPC (2003); Woods et al. (2006); Casselman (2010); Reynolds-Allie & Fields (2012)

Substitutions availability

Casselma (2010)

Ability to provide process/package food products/ingredients as requested

Strohbehn & Gregoire (2002); Woods et al. (2006); Casselman (2010)

Q38. Would you be willing to pay more for locally grown food products/ingredients?

Product attributes (taste, quality, appearance, and freshness), Product labelled as "locally

Loureiro & McCluskey (2000); Loureiro & Hine (2002); Brown (2003); Selfa & Qazi (2005); Wolf et

	<p>grown”, Support to the local economy, Support to small local vendors and farmers, and Environmental sustainability</p> <p>GMO-free, Absence of pesticide Natural, Locally grown value added products, and Organic</p> <p>Safety, Certified organic, Nutritional value, and Certified fair trade</p> <p>Conventional</p>	<p>al. (2005); Roininen et al. (2006); Sobal et al. (2006); Pirog & Larson (2007); Van Ittersum et al. (2007); Hardesty (2008); Darby et al. (2008) Thilmany et al. (2008); Bond et al. (2008); James et al. (2009); Pirog & McCann (2009); Toler et al. (2009); Carpio & Isengildina-Massa (2009); Khan and Prior (2010); Adams & Adams (2011); Pearson et al. (2011); Hu et al. (2012); Gracia et al. (2012); Denver & Jensen (2014) Loureiro & Hine (2002); Brown (2003); Loureiro & McCluskey (2003); Lusk et al. (2005); Thilmany et al. (2008); Bond et al. (2008); Bernard & Bernard (2010); Gracia et al. (2012); Meas et al (2013); Denver & Jensen (2014) Loureiro & Hine (2002); Loureiro & McCluskey (2003); Röhr et al. (2005); Bond et al. (2008); James et al. 2009; Gracia et al. (2012) Yiridoe et al. (2005) FPC (2003); Reynolds-Allie & Fields (2012)</p>
<p>Q39. Purchasing local food products/ingredients has had a positive impact on my establishment’s bottom line profits.</p>		<p>FPC (2003)</p>
<p>Q40. Does your establishment currently promoting the use of locally grown food products/ingredients information with your customers?</p>		<p>FPC (2003)</p>
<p>Q41. Please indicate how important the following methods are to the customer experience, when communicating the information of locally grown food products/ingredients to your establishment customers</p>	<p>Menu descriptions</p>	<p>FPC (2003); Inwood et al. (2009); Murphy & Smith (2009); Schmit et al. (2010); Duram & Cawley (2012); Dougherty et al. (2013)</p>
	<p>Identification of origins of ingredients on the menu/blackboard Staff (wait staff, kitchen staff, managers) knowledge about the history and background of local food products/ ingredients Educate employees about local food products/ingredients</p>	<p>Murphy & Smith (2009); Duram & Cawley (2012); Schmit & Hadcock (2012); Herzog & Murray (2013); FPC (2003); Pratten (2003); Inwood et al. (2009); Murphy & Smith (2009) FPC (2003); Murphy & Smith (2009); Inwood et al. (2009); Sharma et al. (2014)</p>
	<p>Educate customers about local food products/ingredients Reputation of the restaurant Reputation of the chef Theme of the restaurant Personal recommendation (Word of mouth) Signage (i.e. Brochures, Posters, on special erasable boards)</p>	<p>Inwood et al. (2003); Pratten (2003); Murphy & Smith (2009) Murphy & Smith (2009) Murphy & Smith (2009) Murphy & Smith (2009) FPC (2003); Duram & Cawley (2012) Pratten (2003); Inwood et al. (2009); Schmit et al. (2010); Dougherty et al.</p>

Q42. What would be your establishment's level of interest in having the ability to promote locally grown food/ingredients on your menu?

Social media (e.g. Website and Facebook)
Advertisements (i.e. Food guides, Newspaper reviews, Prize winning)

(2013)
Schmit et al. (2010); Duram & Cawley (2012)
FPC (2003); Inwood et al. (2009); Schmit et al. (2010); Duram & Cawley (2012); Herzog & Murray (2013); Dougherty et al. (2013)
Reynolds-Allie & Field (2012); Sharma et al. (2014)

Table B2 Factors preventing choice of local food products.

Factor	Vancouver (N = 5)				Christchurch (N = 2)				t-test	Sig.
	Frequency	Mean	Std. Dev.	Rank	Frequency	Mean	Std. Dev.	Rank		
Cost too high	5	3.80	2.77	7	2	3.00	2.83	5		
Inconsistent quality of products/ingredients	5	3.60	2.38	8	2	4.00	2.83	3		
Narrow/Limited variety of selection	5	5.20	1.92	2	2	3.50	2.12	4		
Inadequate volume/quantity	4	4.75	2.22	4	2	3.50	2.12	4		
Inadequate availability	4	5.25	2.22	1	2	4.00	2.83	3		
Unreliable sources	4	4.00	2.45	6	2	4.00	2.83	3		
Incomplete information/lack of awareness	5	4.00	2.45	6	2	4.00	2.83	3		
Too time consuming to locate sources	5	4.60	2.07	5	2	5.00	0.00	1	-0.431	0.688
Inconsistent delivery schedule	5	3.60	2.38	8	2	4.50	2.12	2		
Inability to meet specific products	5	3.60	2.65	8	2	3.50	2.12	4		
Seasonal changes	5	5.00	1.83	3	2	3.00	2.83	5		
Food safety concerns	4	2.50	2.38	9	2	3.50	2.12	4		
Increased production time when using local products	4	2.50	2.38	9	2	3.50	3.54	4		
In contracts with prime suppliers	3	4.00	3.00	6	2	4.00	4.24	3		

Note: Mean based on scale of 1= “Strongly Disagree”, 4= “Neither Agree nor Disagree”, 7= “Strongly Agree”. **T-test (2-tailed)* significant at the 0.05 level.

Table B3 Factors preventing choice of local food products by cuisine style of restaurants by using a one-way ANOVA test

Factor	Entire Sample (N=5)				Canadian (N=2)			Asian (N=1)			Other (N=2)			F- test	p-value
	N	M	SD	Rank	N	M	SD	N	M	SD	N	M	SD		
Cost too high	5	3.80	2.77	7	2	4.00	4.24	1	6.00	NA	2	2.50	2.12	0.36	0.73
Inconsistent quality of products/ingredients	5	3.60	2.07	8	2	4.00	2.82	1	4.00	NA	2	3.00	2.82	0.07	0.93
Narrow/Limited variety of selection	5	5.20	1.92	2	2	4.50	3.53	1	6.00	NA	2	5.50	0.70	0.13	0.87
Inadequate volume/quantity	5	4.75	2.21	4	2	3.00	1.41	0	NA	NA	2	6.50	0.70	9.80	0.08
Inadequate availability	5	5.25	2.21	1	2	4.00	2.82	0	NA	NA	2	6.50	0.70	1.47	0.34
Unreliable sources	5	4.00	2.44	6	2	3.50	2.12	0	NA	NA	2	4.50	3.53	0.11	0.76
Incomplete information/lack of awareness	5	4.00	2.12	6	2	3.50	2.12	1	4.00	NA	2	4.50	3.53	0.05	0.94
Too time consuming to locate sources	5	4.60	2.04	5	2	2.50	0.70	1	5.00	NA	2	6.50	0.70	16.00	0.05*
Inconsistent delivery schedule	5	3.60	2.04	8	2	2.50	0.70	1	4.00	NA	2	4.50	3.53	0.32	0.75
Inability to meet specific products	5	3.60	2.30	8	2	2.50	2.12	1	4.00	NA	2	4.50	3.53	0.24	0.80
Seasonal changes	5	5.00	1.58	3	2	3.50	0.70	1	5.00	NA	2	6.50	0.70	9.00	0.10
Food safety concerns	5	2.50	2.38	9	2	1.50	0.70	0	NA	NA	2	3.50	3.53	0.61	0.51
Increased production time when using local products	5	2.50	2.38	9	2	1.50	0.70	0	NA	NA	2	3.50	3.53	0.61	0.51
In contracts with prime suppliers	5	4.00	3.00	6	2	5.50	2.12	0	NA	NA	2	1.00	NA	3.00	0.33

Note: Mean based on scale of 1= “Strongly Disagree”, 4= “Neither Agree nor Disagree”, 7= “Strongly Agree”. *F-test significant at the 0.05 level. NA: Sample too small for all analysis.

Table B4 Utilization of alternative procurement sources by cuisine style of restaurants

Procurement sources	Vancouver (N = 63)						Christchurch (N = 94)					
	Canadian cuisine	Asian cuisine	European cuisine	Other style cuisine	Frequency	Percent	New Zealand cuisine	Asian cuisine	European cuisine	Other style cuisine	Frequency	Percent
Local distributors	25	14	13	7	59	93.65	33	40	10	7	90	95.74
Regional distributors	21	7	7	4	39	61.90	15	8	4	5	32	34.04
National distributors	16	5	5	2	28	44.44	15	6	5	2	28	29.78
Farmers' Markets	9	8	9	6	32	50.79	6	6	2	0	14	14.89
Roadside Farm Stands	3	3	1	1	8	12.69	3	0	0	0	3	3.19
Direct purchase from a farmer/producer (not from farm stands or farmers' markets)	15	6	11	4	36	57.14	14	5	2	3	24	25.53
Local manufacturer/processor	16	7	6	6	35	55.55	10	7	2	3	22	23.40
Community Supported Agriculture	6	4	6	1	17	26.98	0	0	0	0	0	0.00
Others (please specify)	1		1	1	3	4.76	0	0	0	0	0	0.00

Note: Multiple responses accepted.

Table B5 Barriers of local food adoption from farmers' market vendors according to the cuisine style of restaurants by using a one-way ANOVA test

Vancouver respondents

Barrier category	Entire Sample (N=32)				Canadian (N=18)			Asian (N=7)			European (N=5)			Other (N=2)			F-test	p-value
	N	M	SD	Rank	N	M	SD	N	M	SD	N	M	SD	N	M	SD		
Satisfied with current distributors	31	5.29	1.57	3	17	5.41	1.58	7	5.86	1.09	5	4.40	2.19	2	4.50	0.70	1.04	0.39
Prefer to have one supplier	29	4.52	2.03	9	16	4.44	2.22	7	5.14	1.34	4	4.75	2.21	2	2.50	2.12	0.89	0.45
Do not have time for several vendors	31	4.77	2.08	5	17	4.65	2.14	7	5.71	2.13	5	4.40	2.07	2	3.50	0.70	0.78	0.51
The volume cannot be satisfied with farmers' market vendors	30	5.00	2.13	4	16	5.63	1.62	7	5.00	2.23	5	3.20	2.58	2	4.50	3.53	1.82	0.16
Unsure of quality or consistencies of products/ingredients	30	4.70	2.12	6	17	4.65	2.26	7	5.43	1.98	4	4.50	2.08	2	3.00	1.41	0.69	0.56
Lack of information of products/ingredients availability	30	4.53	1.93	8	17	4.59	1.87	7	5.43	1.13	4	3.75	2.75	2	2.50	2.12	1.55	0.22
Do not offer delivery	30	6.00	1.20	1	16	5.81	1.47	7	6.14	0.90	5	6.40	0.54	2	6.00	1.41	0.32	0.80
Lack of refund policies	29	4.45	2.28	10	16	4.31	2.12	7	5.71	1.89	4	3.75	3.20	2	2.50	2.12	1.41	0.26
Lack of time and staff to visit the market	31	5.84	1.57	2	17	5.82	1.51	7	5.86	1.21	5	5.40	2.51	2	7.00	0.00	0.46	0.70
Products/ingredients are too expensive	31	4.65	1.70	7	17	4.47	1.77	7	5.29	1.79	5	4.40	1.81	2	4.50	0.70	0.40	0.75
Parking is a problem	29	3.48	1.98	12	16	3.31	1.92	7	4.71	1.97	4	2.25	1.89	2	3.00	1.41	1.60	0.21
Farmers' market(s) are too far away	28	4.39	2.22	11	16	4.31	2.38	7	4.71	1.97	3	4.67	3.21	2	3.50	0.70	0.16	0.92

Note: Mean based on scale of 1= "Strongly Disagree", 4= "Neither Agree nor Disagree", 7= "Strongly Agree". C refers to "Canadian", A refers to "Asian", E refers to "European", and O refers to "other". *F-test significant at the 0.05 level.

Christchurch respondents

Barrier category	Entire Sample (N=80)				New Zealand (NZ) (N=30)			Asian (A) (N=34)			European (E) (N=8)			Other (O) (N=8)			F-test	p-value
	N	M	SD	Rank	N	M	SD	N	M	SD	N	M	SD	N	M	SD		
Satisfied with current distributors	80	6.19	0.99	3	30	5.80	1.18	34	6.32	0.84	8	6.63	0.51	8	6.63	0.74	2.96	0.03*
Prefer to have one supplier	80	5.40	1.70	6	30	4.90	2.02	34	5.74	1.26	8	4.88	2.23	8	6.38	0.51	2.57	0.06
Do not have time for several vendors	80	5.93	1.52	4	30	5.53	1.96	34	6.32	0.94	8	5.75	1.83	8	5.88	1.12	1.50	0.22
The volume cannot be satisfied with farmers' market vendors	80	5.89	1.02	5	30	5.57	1.30	34	5.97	0.79	8	6.25	0.70	8	6.38	0.51	2.10	0.10
Unsure of quality or consistencies of products/ingredients	80	5.39	1.35	7	30	4.73	1.53	34	5.53	1.05	8	6.38	1.06	8	6.25	0.70	5.97	0.00*
Lack of information of products/ingredients availability	80	5.30	1.38	8	30	4.67	1.68	34	5.71	0.83	8	5.75	1.28	8	5.50	1.41	3.77	0.01*
Do not offer delivery	80	6.33	1.03	2	30	6.23	1.19	34	6.32	0.97	8	6.38	1.06	8	6.63	0.51	0.30	0.82
Lack of refund policies	80	5.28	1.32	9	30	4.93	1.61	34	5.44	1.16	8	5.75	0.88	8	5.38	0.91	1.21	0.30
Lack of time and staff to visit the market	80	6.60	0.85	1	30	6.30	1.11	34	6.71	0.67	8	6.88	0.35	8	7.00	0.00	2.40	0.07
Products/ingredients are too expensive	80	4.85	1.48	10	30	4.67	1.62	34	4.79	1.34	8	5.13	1.64	8	5.50	1.30	0.77	0.51
Parking is a problem	80	2.89	1.60	12	30	3.20	1.84	34	2.50	1.13	8	3.13	1.80	8	3.13	2.03	1.17	0.32
Farmers' market(s) are too far away	80	4.58	1.65	11	30	3.97	1.49	34	5.18	1.58	8	4.63	1.84	8	4.25	1.66	3.21	0.02*

Note: Mean based on scale of 1= "Strongly Disagree", 4= "Neither Agree nor Disagree", 7= "Strongly Agree". NZ refers to "New Zealand", A refers to "Asian", E refers to "European", and O refers to "other". *F-test significant at the 0.05 level.

Summary of Post Hoc Tests

Unsure of quality or consistencies of products/ingredients	NZ < O < E
Lack of information of products/ingredients availability	NZ < A
Farmers' market(s) are too far away	NZ < A

The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Table B6 Establishment’s attitude toward purchasing local food products/ingredients from farmers’ market vendors according to the cuisine style of restaurants by using a one-way ANOVA test

Vancouver respondents

Category/Attribute	Entire Sample (N=32)				Canadian (C) (N=10)			Asian (A) (N=8)			European (E) (N=8)			Other (O) (N=6)			F-test	p-value
	N	M	SD	Rank	N	M	SD	N	M	SD	N	M	SD	N	M	SD		
Farmers’ market(s) food products/ingredients helps me to meet customer demands	32	5.09	1.53	17	10	5.00	1.63	8	5.25	2.05	8	5.00	1.41	6	5.17	0.98	0.05	0.98
Food products/ingredients are able to serve a variety of menu application to customers	32	5.50	1.19	12	10	5.30	1.16	8	5.50	1.19	8	6.13	0.83	6	5.00	1.54	1.20	0.32
Food products/ingredients allow me to charge a premium price	30	3.90	1.73	19	9	4.44	2.06	8	4.38	0.91	7	3.00	1.41	6	3.50	2.16	1.27	0.30
Able to get higher quality of food products/ingredients	31	6.26	1.06	2	9	6.56	0.52	8	5.75	1.48	8	6.50	0.75	6	6.17	1.32	0.99	0.41
Able to get fresher food products/ingredients	32	6.31	1.03	1	10	6.50	0.70	8	5.75	1.58	8	6.75	0.46	6	6.17	0.98	1.49	0.23
Food products/ingredients grown/produced locally	31	6.26	0.96	2	10	6.40	0.84	8	5.38	1.06	7	6.71	0.75	6	6.67	0.51	4.20	0.01*
Able to get uniqueness/specialty (including heirloom varieties) of food products/ingredients	30	5.57	1.43	11	9	5.78	1.20	8	4.88	1.72	8	6.13	1.35	5	5.40	1.34	1.13	0.35
Food products/ingredients have better taste	32	5.94	1.24	5	10	6.10	1.28	8	5.13	1.45	8	6.63	0.74	6	5.83	0.98	2.27	0.10
Food products/ingredients are safer	32	5.09	1.35	17	10	4.40	1.26	8	5.50	1.19	8	6.00	0.92	6	4.50	1.51	3.30	0.03*
Food products/ingredients are nutritious and healthy	32	5.69	1.23	9	10	5.40	1.26	8	5.88	1.24	8	6.25	1.16	6	5.17	1.16	1.18	0.33
Ability to obtain small volume of products	31	5.84	1.66	7	10	6.30	1.05	8	4.88	2.23	7	5.71	1.89	6	6.50	0.83	1.58	0.21
More availability of organic	31	5.45	1.50	13	9	5.00	1.65	8	5.50	1.41	8	6.13	1.24	6	5.17	1.72	0.87	0.46
Know how products/ingredients was raised or grown	31	5.87	1.26	6	9	6.33	1.00	8	5.38	1.40	8	6.25	1.03	6	5.33	1.50	1.49	0.23
Attending farmers’ market(s) helps to build working relationship with vendors	30	5.87	1.41	6	9	5.78	1.30	8	5.38	1.59	8	6.25	1.16	5	6.20	1.78	0.60	0.61
Attending farmers’ market(s) allows me to meet vendors and become acquainted with regional foods	30	6.00	1.20	4	9	5.67	1.11	8	5.88	1.35	7	6.71	0.48	6	5.83	1.60	1.13	0.35
Value for money	30	5.27	1.34	14	10	4.60	1.26	8	5.38	1.18	7	5.57	1.39	5	6.00	1.41	1.55	0.22
Required lower transportation costs	30	4.73	1.57	18	9	4.67	1.11	8	4.75	1.16	7	4.14	2.47	6	5.50	1.37	0.79	0.51

Note: Mean based on scale of 1= “Strongly Disagree”, 4= “Neither Agree nor Disagree”, 7= “Strongly Agree”. C refers to “Canadian”, A refers to “Asian”, E refers to “European”, and O refers to “other”. *F-test significant at the 0.05 level.

Vancouver respondents

Category/Attribute	Entire Sample (N=32)				Canadian (C) (N=10)			Asian (A) (N=8)			European (E) (N=8)			Other (O) (N=6)			F-test	p-value
	N	M	SD	Rank	N	M	SD	N	M	SD	N	M	SD	N	M	SD		
Food products/ingredients promote regional food security	32	5.81	1.20	8	10	5.80	1.22	8	5.00	1.30	8	6.25	1.03	6	6.33	0.81	2.16	0.11
Utilizing local food products from farmers' market(s) is an effective way to promote local foods and support local vendors	31	6.23	1.02	3	9	6.44	0.72	8	5.88	1.24	8	6.25	1.16	6	6.33	1.03	0.44	0.72
Purchasing from farmers' market(s) allows to support local economy	31	6.23	1.31	3	10	6.50	0.85	7	5.57	2.29	8	6.50	0.53	6	6.17	1.16	0.83	0.48
Food products/ingredients from farmers' market(s) allows the establishment as a promoter to provide culinary tourism experience for domestic visitors	30	5.20	1.71	16	10	5.10	2.13	7	5.43	1.71	7	5.43	1.51	6	4.83	1.47	0.17	0.91
Food products/ingredients from farmers' market(s) allows the establishment as a promoter to provide culinary tourism experience for international visitors	30	5.23	1.43	15	9	5.11	1.76	7	5.14	1.21	8	5.75	1.58	6	4.83	0.98	0.50	0.68
Food products/ingredients are free from or use less pesticide and/or hormones	30	5.20	1.32	16	9	4.33	1.11	7	5.43	1.61	8	6.00	0.92	6	5.17	1.16	2.75	0.06
Purchasing from farmers' market(s) helps to the environment due to the shorter distance travelled from farm to the market (food miles)	30	5.67	1.32	10	10	5.20	1.39	7	5.86	1.77	7	6.14	0.69	6	5.67	1.21	0.74	0.53

Note: Mean based on scale of 1= "Strongly Disagree", 4= "Neither Agree nor Disagree", 7= "Strongly Agree". C refers to "Canadian", A refers to "Asian", E refers to "European", and O refers to "other". *F-test significant at the 0.05 level.

Summary of Post Hoc Tests

Food products/ingredients grown/produced locally	A < O < E
Food products/ingredients are safer	C < E

The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Christchurch respondents

Category/Attribute	Entire Sample (N=14)				New Zealand (NZ) (N=6)			Asian (A) (N=6)			European (E) (N=2)			F-test	p-value
	N	M	SD	Rank	N	M	SD	N	M	SD	N	M	SD		
Farmers' market(s) food products/ingredients helps me to meet customer demands	14	5.43	0.93	11	6	5.33	1.36	6	5.50	0.58	2	5.50	0.70	0.04	0.95
Food products/ingredients are able to serve a variety of menu application to customers	14	5.71	1.06	9	6	6.17	1.16	6	5.33	1.03	2	5.50	0.70	0.95	0.41
Food products/ingredients allow me to charge a premium price	14	4.57	1.91	14	6	3.33	2.06	6	5.67	1.21	2	5.00	1.41	3.00	0.09
Able to get higher quality of food products/ingredients	14	6.36	1.00	3	6	6.17	1.32	6	6.50	0.83	2	6.50	0.70	0.16	0.85
Able to get fresher food products/ingredients	14	6.43	0.85	2	6	6.33	1.03	6	6.67	0.81	2	6.00	0.00	0.48	0.62
Food products/ingredients grown/produced locally	14	6.57	0.75	1	6	6.33	1.03	6	6.83	0.40	2	6.50	0.70	0.62	0.55
Able to get uniqueness/specialty (including heirloom varieties) of food products/ingredients	14	5.21	1.67	13	6	5.50	1.22	6	4.83	2.31	2	5.50	0.70	0.24	0.79
Food products/ingredients have better taste	14	6.36	0.84	3	6	6.17	0.98	6	6.50	0.83	2	6.50	0.70	0.23	0.79
Food products/ingredients are safer	14	5.79	1.31	8	6	5.83	1.83	6	5.67	1.03	2	6.00	0.00	0.04	0.95
Food products/ingredients are nutritious and healthy	14	5.93	1.26	7	6	6.00	1.26	6	6.00	1.54	2	5.50	0.70	0.11	0.89
Ability to obtain small volume of products	14	6.36	1.15	3	6	6.00	1.54	6	6.83	0.40	2	6.00	1.41	0.88	0.44
More availability of organic	14	5.43	1.55	11	6	5.83	1.32	6	5.00	2.00	2	5.50	0.70	0.39	0.68
Know how products/ingredients was raised or grown	14	5.43	1.78	11	6	5.83	1.47	6	5.17	2.31	2	5.00	1.41	0.24	0.78
Attending farmers' market(s) helps to build working relationship with vendors	14	6.14	1.16	5	6	6.17	0.98	6	6.00	1.54	2	6.50	0.70	0.12	0.88
Attending farmers' market(s) allows me to meet vendors and become acquainted with regional foods	14	6.00	1.03	6	6	5.83	1.16	6	6.33	1.03	2	5.50	0.70	0.57	0.57
Value for money	14	5.79	1.62	8	6	5.00	1.67	6	6.33	1.63	2	6.50	0.70	1.28	0.31
Required lower transportation costs	14	5.36	1.82	12	6	5.33	1.86	6	5.33	2.06	2	5.50	2.12	0.00	0.99

Note: Mean based on scale of 1= "Strongly Disagree", 4= "Neither Agree nor Disagree", 7= "Strongly Agree". NZ refers to "New Zealand", A refers to "Asian", E refers to "European", and O refers to "other". *F-test significant at the 0.05 level.

Christchurch respondents (continued)

Category/Attribute	Entire Sample (N=14)				New Zealand (NZ) (N=6)			Asian (A) (N=6)			European (E) (N=2)			F-test	p-value
	N	M	SD	Rank	N	M	SD	N	M	SD	N	M	SD		
Food products/ingredients promote regional food security	14	5.71	1.13	9	6	6.17	1.16	6	5.33	1.21	2	5.50	0.70	0.82	0.46
Utilizing local food products from farmers' market(s) is an effective way to promote local foods and support local vendors	14	6.00	1.30	6	6	6.17	1.16	6	5.83	1.60	2	6.00	1.41	0.88	0.91
Purchasing from farmers' market(s) allows to support local economy	14	6.29	0.99	4	6	6.50	0.83	6	6.17	1.16	2	6.00	1.41	0.23	0.79
Food products/ingredients from farmers' market(s) allows the establishment as a promoter to provide culinary tourism experience for domestic visitors	14	5.57	1.28	10	6	5.33	1.50	6	6.00	1.26	2	5.00	0.00	0.59	0.56
Food products/ingredients from farmers' market(s) allows the establishment as a promoter to provide culinary tourism experience for international visitors	14	5.21	1.36	13	6	5.33	1.50	6	5.33	1.50	2	4.50	1.58	0.28	0.75
Food products/ingredients are free from or use less pesticide and/or hormones	14	6.00	1.17	6	6	5.83	1.32	6	6.50	0.83	2	5.00	1.41	1.40	0.28
Purchasing from farmers' market(s) helps to the environment due to the shorter distance travelled from farm to the market (food miles)	14	5.79	1.80	8	6	6.17	1.32	7	5.50	2.34	2	5.50	2.12	0.20	0.81

Note: Mean based on scale of 1= "Strongly Disagree", 4= "Neither Agree nor Disagree", 7= "Strongly Agree". NZ refers to "New Zealand", A refers to "Asian", E refers to "European", and O refers to "other". *F-test significant at the 0.05 level.

Table B7 Locally grown food products/ingredients purchases as a percentage of all products by season from farmers' market(s) vendors

Vancouver respondents (N = 30)

Product Category	Purchase percent			
	Winter months (Jan-Mar)	Spring months (Apr-Jun)	Summer months (Jul-Sept)	Fall months (Oct-Dec)
Fresh produce (N = 29)				
Mean percent purchased	29.00	43.97	58.28	34.48
Range of reported estimated percent	0-100	10-100	10-100	0-100
Proteins (N = 20)				
Mean percent purchased	49.25	52.50	54.50	49.00
Range of reported estimated percent	0-100	0-100	0-100	0-100
Dairy (N = 17)				
Mean percent purchased	52.65	53.24	52.35	53.24
Range of reported estimated percent	0-100	0-100	0-100	0-100
Value added products (N = 21)				
Mean percent purchased	29.38	32.24	33.19	31.05
Range of reported estimated percent	0-80	0-80	0-100	0-80

Christchurch respondents (N = 14)

Product Category	Purchase percent			
	Winter months (Jan-Mar)	Spring months (Apr-Jun)	Summer months (Jul-Sept)	Fall months (Oct-Dec)
Fresh produce (N = 13)				
Mean percent purchased	28.46	40.92	64.23	55.15
Range of reported estimated percent	0-100	2-100	5-100	2-100
Proteins (N = 8)				
Mean percent purchased	43.50	48.37	50.25	46.37
Range of reported estimated percent	0-100	10-100	10-100	10-100
Dairy (N = 8)				
Mean percent purchased	41.38	41.50	41.25	41.75
Range of reported estimated percent	1-100	1-100	1-100	1-100
Value added products (N = 3)				
Mean percent purchased	11.33	14.33	17.66	25.33
Range of reported estimated percent	4-20	10-20	10-23	10-40

Table B8 Cuisine styles of restaurants by percentage of local food products category purchased from farmers' market(s) vendors in seasons.

Vancouver respondents (N = 30)

Product Category	Cuisine style	N	Range of reported estimated %		Mean percent purchased			
			Minimum	Maximum	Winter months	Spring months	Summer months	Fall months
Fresh produce (N = 29)	Canadian	9	0	80	20.56	30.00	44.44	22.78
	Asian	7	5	100	24.43	40.71	56.43	25.00
	European	8	0	30	23.13	48.13	65.63	40.00
	Other	5	20	100	60.00	67.00	74.00	60.00
Proteins (N = 20)	Canadian	6	10	95	47.50	50.00	57.00	50.83
	Asian	5	15	100	57.00	61.00	55.00	45.00
	European	5	0	100	55.00	61.00	66.00	62.00
	Other	4	0	100	35.00	35.00	35.00	35.00
Dairy (N = 17)	Canadian	4	20	70	43.75	46.25	46.25	46.25
	Asian	5	0	100	77.00	77.00	74.00	77.00
	European	4	5	100	66.25	66.25	66.25	66.25
	Other	4	0	40	17.50	17.50	17.50	17.50
Value added products (N = 21)	Canadian	7	5	80	36.43	37.86	40.00	37.86
	Asian	5	10	100	32.00	37.00	42.00	36.00
	European	5	0	60	27.40	32.40	28.40	28.40
	Other	4	0	45	16.25	16.25	16.25	16.25

Christchurch respondents (N = 32)

Product Category	Cuisine style	N	Range of reported estimated %		Mean percent purchased			
			Minimum	Maximum	Winter months	Spring months	Summer months	Fall months
Fresh produce (N = 13)	New Zealand	6	0	100	30.83	48.33	69.17	60.83
	Asian	6	0	90	19.17	28.67	40.00	30.33
	European	1	70	80	70.00	70.00	70.00	70.00
Proteins (N = 8)	New Zealand	5	0	100	53.00	58.00	58.00	56.00
	Asian	2	3	32	6.50	13.50	21.00	10.50
	European	1	70	70	55.00	70.00	70.00	70.00
Dairy (N = 8)	New Zealand	5	1	100	51.20	51.20	51.20	51.20
	Asian	2	4	10	7.50	8.00	7.00	9.00
	European	1	60	60	60.00	60.00	60.00	60.00
Value added products (N = 3)	New Zealand	1	20	40	20.00	20.00	20.00	40.00
	Asian	2	4	26	7.00	11.50	16.50	18.00

Table B9 Establishment’s mean of potential problem factor ratings for adoption of local food products from farmers’ markets according to the cuisine style of restaurants by using a one-way ANOVA test

Vancouver respondents

Potential problems category (Factor)	Entire Sample (N=32)				Canadian (C) (N=10)			Asian (A) (N=8)			European (E) (N=8)			Other (O) (N=6)			F-test	p-value
	N	M	SD	Rank	N	M	SD	N	M	SD	N	M	SD	N	M	SD		
Insufficient volumes or year round adequate volume of supply	32	4.88	1.83	1	10	4.30	1.94	8	5.00	2.39	8	4.88	1.45	6	5.67	1.21	0.69	0.56
Inconsistent supply of products/ingredients	30	4.27	1.74	4	9	4.22	1.78	7	3.71	1.49	8	4.75	1.90	6	4.33	1.96	0.41	0.74
Limited variety of selection	32	4.16	1.74	5	10	4.30	1.88	8	4.25	1.66	8	3.88	1.72	6	4.17	2.04	0.09	0.96
Limited market days and hours of operation	32	4.47	2.00	2	10	4.50	2.27	8	4.38	1.92	8	4.50	1.92	6	4.50	2.25	0.00	0.99
Price of the products/ingredients are too high	31	4.35	1.82	3	10	4.60	1.64	8	4.63	2.26	7	4.00	1.91	6	4.00	1.67	0.26	0.85
Lack of information of products/ingredients availability	30	3.60	1.48	11	9	3.44	1.01	8	4.00	1.51	7	4.00	1.91	6	2.83	1.47	0.93	0.43
Local health and food safety concerns	29	3.14	1.85	13	9	2.67	1.41	7	4.71	1.60	7	2.43	1.90	6	2.83	1.94	2.71	0.06
Logistics (transportation) difficulty	31	4.06	2.25	6	10	4.30	2.40	8	4.25	2.25	7	3.86	2.61	6	3.67	2.06	0.12	0.94
Clean and sturdy packaging	30	3.70	2.17	9	9	2.56	1.94	8	4.75	1.66	7	3.57	2.29	6	4.17	2.56	1.67	0.19
Consistent package size	30	3.37	2.08	12	9	2.44	1.66	8	4.88	1.72	7	2.71	2.21	6	3.50	2.16	2.61	0.07
Unavailability of parking space at the market	30	3.97	2.27	7	9	3.89	2.71	8	4.13	1.95	7	5.00	2.30	6	2.67	1.63	1.18	0.33
Labour time required to prepare the purchased products	30	3.77	2.08	8	9	3.44	1.87	8	4.88	1.95	7	2.57	1.61	6	4.17	2.56	1.81	0.16
Payment procedures/acceptance of only cash at the farmers’ market(s)	29	3.69	2.07	10	9	3.11	1.83	8	4.63	1.99	6	2.83	1.94	6	4.17	2.48	1.25	0.31

Note: Mean based on scale of 1= “Strongly Disagree”, 4= “Neither Agree nor Disagree”, 7= “Strongly Agree”. C refers to “Canadian”, A refers to “Asian”, E refers to “European”, and O refers to “Other”. *F-test significant at the 0.05 level.

Christchurch respondents

Potential problems category (Factor)	Entire Sample (N=14)				New Zealand (NZ) (N=6)			Asian (A) (N=6)			European (E) (N=2)			F-test	p-value
	N	M	SD	Rank	N	M	SD	N	M	SD	N	M	SD		
Insufficient volumes or year round adequate volume of supply	14	4.57	1.83	4	6	4.67	2.06	6	4.67	1.96	2	4.00	1.41	0.09	0.90
Inconsistent supply of products/ingredients	14	4.00	1.84	7	6	2.67	1.96	6	5.17	0.98	2	4.50	0.70	4.31	0.04*
Limited variety of selection	14	4.43	1.79	5	6	3.67	2.16	6	5.17	1.47	2	4.50	1.70	1.07	0.37
Limited market days and hours of operation	14	5.43	2.10	1	6	4.33	2.80	6	6.50	0.83	2	5.50	0.70	1.78	0.21
Price of the products/ingredients are too high	14	4.64	1.55	3	6	4.50	1.76	6	4.33	1.36	2	6.00	1.41	0.89	0.43
Lack of information of products/ingredients availability	14	3.79	1.89	9	6	3.33	2.33	6	4.17	1.72	2	4.00	1.41	0.27	0.76
Local health and food safety concerns	14	4.21	2.19	6	6	3.17	2.40	6	5.00	2.00	2	5.00	1.41	1.24	0.32
Logistics (transportation) difficulty	14	3.29	2.20	10	6	2.00	1.67	6	4.50	2.42	2	3.50	0.70	2.35	0.14
Clean and sturdy packaging	14	5.07	1.77	2	6	5.00	2.19	6	5.83	0.98	2	3.00	0.00	2.30	0.14
Consistent package size	14	4.64	1.86	3	6	5.00	2.19	6	4.50	1.97	2	4.00	0.00	0.21	0.80
Unavailability of parking space at the market	14	2.64	1.82	11	6	2.17	1.83	6	2.33	1.03	2	5.00	2.82	2.37	0.13
Labour time required to prepare the purchased products	14	3.79	1.72	9	6	3.67	2.25	6	4.00	1.26	2	3.50	2.12	0.07	0.92
Payment procedures/acceptance of only cash at the farmers' market(s)	14	3.93	1.90	8	6	3.67	2.33	6	4.17	1.94	2	4.00	0.00	0.09	0.91

Note: Mean based on scale of 1= "Strongly Disagree", 4= "Neither Agree nor Disagree", 7= "Strongly Agree". NZ refers to "New Zealand", A refers to "Asian", E refers to "European", and O refers to "Other". *F-test significant at the 0.05 level.

Summary of Post Hoc Tests

Inconsistent supply of products/ingredients	NZ < A
The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.	

Table B10 Establishment’s mean of barrier factor ratings according to the cuisine style of restaurants by using a one-way ANOVA test

Vancouver respondents

Barrier category (Factor)	Entire Sample (N=23)				Canadian (C) (N=9)			Asian (A) (N=9)			European (E) (N=2)			Other (O) (N=3)			F-test	p-value
	N	M	SD	Rank	N	M	SD	N	M	SD	N	M	SD	N	M	SD		
Satisfied with current distributors	22	5.86	1.17	1	9	6.11	1.05	9	6.22	0.97	2	4.00	0.00	2	5.00	1.41	3.30	0.04*
Do not have time to contact several farmers, inconvenient	23	5.65	1.50	2	9	5.33	2.00	9	5.78	1.20	2	5.00	0.00	3	6.67	0.57	0.71	0.55
The volume cannot be satisfied with local farmers/producers	22	4.77	2.11	12	8	6.00	1.06	9	4.67	2.12	2	3.00	2.82	3	3.00	2.64	2.53	0.08
Unsure of quality of products delivered	22	5.23	1.90	7	9	5.67	1.73	9	5.22	1.78	1	7.00	NA	3	3.33	2.30	1.55	0.23
Unsure of consistency of products delivered	22	5.36	1.89	4	9	5.67	1.73	9	5.44	1.94	1	7.00	NA	3	3.67		1.16	0.35
Unable to produce needed products	23	5.35	1.23	5	9	5.56	1.66	9	5.22	0.97	2	4.50	0.70	3	5.67	0.57	0.46	0.71
Lack of information of products/ingredients availability	22	5.09	1.57	10	9	5.00	1.73	9	5.44	0.72	1	4.00	NA	3	4.67	3.21	0.36	0.78
Do not offer delivery	22	4.91	2.07	11	9	4.56	1.87	9	5.22	2.48	1	4.00	NA	3	5.33	2.08	0.23	0.87
Products are not delivered on the date or time agreed	21	5.14	1.42	9	8	5.75	1.28	9	4.56	1.59	2	5.50	0.70	2	5.00	1.41	1.05	0.39
Local health and food safety issues	22	5.32	1.99	6	9	5.89	1.69	9	5.44	1.81	1	6.00	NA	3	3.00	2.64	1.86	0.17
Unable to provide formal receipts	22	5.18	1.74	8	9	5.67	1.50	8	4.5	2.20	2	6.00	1.41	3	5.00	1.00	0.77	0.52
Price of the products/ingredients are too high	22	5.32	1.39	6	9	5.67	1.22	9	5.00	1.50	2	6.00	1.41	2	4.50	2.12	0.70	0.56
Farms are too far away	21	5.57	1.89	3	8	5.38	1.76	8	5.75	1.75	2	3.50	3.53	3	7.00	0.00	1.54	0.23

Note: Mean based on scale of 1= “Strongly Disagree”, 4= “Neither Agree nor Disagree”, 7= “Strongly Agree”. C refers to “Canadian”, A refers to “Asian”, E refers to “European”, and O refers to “Other”. *F-test significant at the 0.05 level.

Summary of Post Hoc Tests

Satisfied with current distributors (1)	E < C < A
The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.	

Christchurch respondents

Barrier category (Factor)	Entire Sample (N=72)				New Zealand (NZ) (N=23)			Asian (A) (N=36)			European (E) (N=8)			Other (O) (N=5)			F-test	p-value
	N	M	SD	Rank	N	M	SD	N	M	SD	N	M	SD	N	M	SD		
Satisfied with current distributors	72	6.42	1.04	1	23	5.96	1.43	36	6.61	0.76	8	6.50	0.75	5	7.00	0.00	2.60	0.05
Do not have time to contact several farmers, inconvenient	72	6.03	1.01	3	23	5.74	1.63	36	6.14	0.48	8	6.13	0.35	5	6.40	0.54	1.03	0.38
The volume cannot be satisfied with local farmers/producers	72	5.31	1.10	9	23	5.22	1.34	36	5.31	0.92	8	5.25	1.16	5	5.80	1.09	0.38	0.76
Unsure of quality of products delivered	72	5.26	1.06	10	23	4.87	1.21	36	5.33	0.89	8	5.50	0.75	5	6.20	1.30	2.72	0.05
Unsure of consistency of products delivered	72	5.51	0.96	4	23	5.04	1.10	36	5.75	0.73	8	5.38	0.74	5	6.20	1.30	3.86	0.01*
Unable to produce needed products	72	5.47	1.10	6	23	5.35	1.22	36	5.56	1.05	8	5.63	1.18	5	5.20	0.83	0.31	0.81
Lack of information of products/ingredients availability	72	5.44	1.15	7	23	5.35	1.19	36	5.42	1.20	8	5.63	0.91	5	5.80	1.09	0.27	0.84
Do not offer delivery	72	5.36	1.45	8	23	5.26	1.51	36	5.47	1.54	8	5.00	1.06	5	5.60	1.14	0.31	0.81
Products are not delivered on the date or time agreed	72	5.49	1.21	5	23	5.39	1.40	36	5.61	1.20	8	5.00	0.92	5	5.80	0.44	0.70	0.55
Local health and food safety issues	72	4.88	1.69	12	23	5.39	1.67	36	4.64	1.62	8	4.50	1.41	5	4.80	2.58	1.08	0.36
Unable to provide formal receipts	72	5.18	1.58	11	23	4.61	1.85	36	5.42	1.44	8	5.13	1.24	5	6.20	0.83	2.06	0.11
Price of the products/ingredients are too high	72	4.85	1.41	13	23	5.22	1.08	36	4.42	1.51	8	5.00	1.30	5	6.00	1.22	3.02	0.03*
Farms are too far away	72	6.15	1.45	2	23	5.61	1.87	36	6.53	1.13	8	6.00	1.30	5	6.20	0.83	1.99	0.12

Note: Mean based on scale of 1= “Strongly Disagree”, 4= “Neither Agree nor Disagree”, 7= “Strongly Agree”. NZ refers to “New Zealand”, A refers to “Asian”, E refers to “European”, and O refers to “Other”. *F-test significant at the 0.05 level.

Summary of Post Hoc Tests

Unsure of consistency of products delivered	NZ < A
The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.	

Table B11 Local food products/ingredients purchases as a percentage of all products by season from farmers

Vancouver respondents (N = 40)

	Purchase percent			
	Winter months	Spring months	Summer months	Fall months
	(Jan-Mar)	(Apr-Jun)	(Jul-Sept)	(Oct-Dec)
Fresh produce (N = 37)				
Mean percent purchased	27.30	44.46	57.11	36.43
Range of reported estimated percent	0-100	0-100	5-100	0-100
Proteins (N = 33)				
Mean percent purchased	54.70	56.97	58.33	54.85
Range of reported estimated percent	5-100	5-100	5-100	5-100
Dairy (N = 28)				
Mean percent purchased	57.79	58.14	58.14	58.14
Range of reported estimated percent	0-100	0-100	0-100	0-100
Value added products (N= 19)				
Mean percent purchased	40.63	43.79	45.89	42.47
Range of reported estimated percent	2-100	2-100	2-100	2-100

Christchurch respondents (N = 22)

		Purchase percent			
		Winter months	Spring months	Summer months	Fall months
		(Jan-Mar)	(Apr-Jun)	(Jul-Sept)	(Oct-Dec)
Fresh produce (N = 18)					
	Mean percent purchased	35.06	39.83	44.44	45.56
	Range of reported estimated percent	5-100	5-100	5-100	5-100
Proteins (N = 13)					
	Mean percent purchased	59.46	62.08	63.92	64.08
	Range of reported estimated percent	5-100	5-100	5-100	5-100
Dairy (N = 6)					
	Mean percent purchased	57.78	58.14	58.14	58.14
	Range of reported estimated percent	5-90	5-90	5-90	5-90
Value added products (N = 5)					
	Mean percent purchased	4.20	12.00	4.20	4.60
	Range of reported estimated percent	1-12	1-51	1-12	1-14

Table B12 Cuisine styles of restaurants by percentage of local food products category purchased from farmers in seasons.

Vancouver respondents (N = 40)

Product Category	Cuisine style	N	Range of reported estimated %		Mean percent purchased			
			Minimum	Maximum	Winter months	Spring months	Summer months	Fall months
Fresh produce (N = 37)	Canadian	18	0	70	23.89	42.78	57.11	37.94
	Asian	6	5	100	35.00	40.00	52.50	30.83
	European	9	0	100	24.44	49.44	58.89	35.00
	Other	4	5	100	37.50	47.50	60.00	41.25
Proteins (N = 33)	Canadian	17	5	100	55.12	57.47	61.29	56.88
	Asian	4	45	100	76.25	76.25	73.75	68.75
	European	9	10	100	47.56	49.22	49.78	48.67
	Other	3	10	100	45.00	51.67	46.67	43.33
Dairy (N = 28)	Canadian	16	0	100	59.50	60.13	60.13	60.13
	Asian	3	0	100	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00
	European	6	5	100	56.67	56.67	56.67	56.67
	Other	3	1	15	8.67	8.67	8.67	8.67
Value added products (N = 19)	Canadian	11	5	100	40.91	46.36	50.45	46.36
	Asian	3	15	100	61.67	60.00	56.67	50.00
	European	4	2	60	33.00	34.25	35.50	35.50
	Other	1	5	5	5.00	5.00	5.00	5.00

Christchurch respondents (N = 22)

Product Category	Cuisine style	N	Range of reported estimated %		Mean percent purchased			
			Minimum	Maximum	Winter months	Spring months	Summer months	Fall months
Fresh produce (N = 18)	New Zealand	10	5	100	34.30	39.80	44.70	46.80
	Asian	4	13	90	34.50	42.25	50.75	50.50
	European	2	10	25	17.50	17.50	17.50	17.50
	Other	2	15	100	57.50	57.50	57.50	57.50
Proteins (N = 13)	New Zealand	10	5	100	63.50	63.50	67.30	66.30
	Asian	1	23	55	23.00	39.00	43.00	55.00
	Other	2	20	95	57.50	57.50	57.50	57.50
Dairy (N = 6)	New Zealand	4	5	90	28.75	28.75	28.75	28.75
	Asian	1	12	60	41.00	44.00	12.00	60.00
	European	1	25	25	25.00	25.00	25.00	25.00
Value added products (N = 5)	New Zealand	3	1	5	2.67	2.67	2.67	2.67
	Asian	1	12	51	12.00	51.00	12.00	14.00
	Other	1	1	1	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00

Table B13 Wholesale distributors by cuisine style of restaurants in Vancouver (Unweighted N = 49)

Distributor's name	Canadian	Asian	European	Other	Total^a
Albion Fisheries (GFS)	9	2	0	0	11
Barnston Island Herbs	1	0	0	0	1
Beefway	1	0	0	0	1
Blundell Seafood	1	0	0	0	1
Bosa Foods	0	0	3	0	3
Centennial Food Service	2	0	1	0	3
Costco Wholesale	1	1	1	0	3
Delux Seafood	1	0	2	2	5
Discovery Organics	0	0	0	1	1
Fieldstone Granary	1	0	0	0	1
Freshpoint	6	1	2	0	9
Fruiticana	0	1	0	0	1
GFS	8	0	2	2	12
H & B Poultry and Meats Ltd.	0	1	0	0	1
Hills Foods	3	0	0	0	3
Intercity Packers	5	0	0	0	5
Jim Koo Produce	4	0	0	0	4
J & K Poultry	1	0	0	0	1
Meadowfresh Dairy Corporation	0	2	0	0	2
Metropolitan Meat & Game Co. Ltd.	1	0	0	0	1
Mikuni Wild Harvest	0	0	2	1	3
Oyama Sausage Company	2	0	0	0	2
Organic Ocean Seafood Inc.	1	0	0	0	1
Ridgecrest Dairy Ltd.	0	2	0	0	2
Saputo	2	0	0	0	2
Seven Seas	2	0	0	0	2
Snow Caps	2	0	1	0	3
Sysco	11	5	2	1	19
Tropical Wholesale Ltd.	0	1	0	0	1
Trimpac Meat Distributors (Sysco)	2	0	3	1	6
Two Rivers Speciality Meats	7	0	1	1	9
Two Sister Poultry and Meat Ltd.	1	1	0	0	2
Van-Whole Produce	0	2	0	0	2
Yen Bros Food Service	5	0	1	1	7
All other distributors	7	3	0	2	12
Total	87	22	21	12	142

^a Multiple responses accepted.

Table B14 Minimum number of wholesale distributor(s) used by cuisine style of restaurants in Vancouver (Unweighted N = 49)

Cuisine style	Range of distributor(s) used			Percent
	Number	Minimum	Maximum	
Canadian	26	1	11	53.06
Asian	8	1	5	16.32
European	9	1	3	18.36
Other	6	1	2	12.24

Table B15 Wholesale distributors by cuisine style of restaurants in Christchurch (Unweighted N = 83)

Distributor's name	New Zealand	Asian	European	Other	Total ^a
Akaroa Salmon New Zealand Ltd.	0	2	0	0	2
Angus Meats	8	2	3	0	13
Amalgamated Food Distributors	3	0	1	2	6
Ashby's Butchery	1	0	0	0	1
Bidvest	26	17	5	2	50
Brink Free Range Chicken	1	4	1	4	10
Broadfield Green Lettuce and Herb	1	0	0	0	1
Central Wholesale Seafood Christchurch	4	0	2	0	6
Canterbury Cheesemongers	0	0	1	0	1
Cashmere Cuisine Butchery	1	0	0	0	1
Dallington Fisheries	0	1	0	0	1
Dave's Chicken	1	0	0	0	1
Fresh Connection	0	0	0	1	1
Farm Chicken	3	14	2	0	19
Foodstuffs	1	2	0	0	3
Growers Direct Market	0	6	0	0	6
Green Gold Gardens	0	0	1	0	1
Halswell Butchery	0	0	0	1	1
Independent Meat Processors	1	2	0	1	4
Marshlands Produce	0	2	0	0	2
Meadow Fresh	1	0	0	0	1
Ocean North Seafood	1	0	0	0	1
Peter Rabbit's Patch	8	0	9	0	17
Peter Timbs Meats	4	1	2	1	8
Raewrad Fresh	0	1	0	0	1
Service Foods	2	0	0	0	2
Sensational Seafood	2	0	0	0	2
Tegel NZ Chicken	1	2	0	0	3
Trents Wholesale Food Services Suppliers	0	0	1	0	1
Theos Fisheries	6	1	1	1	9
TDM Meat Canterbury	0	1	0	0	1
Taso's Seafood	0	1	0	0	1
United Fisheries	2	2	1	0	5
Vegeland	0	1	0	0	1
West Meat	9	4	2	0	15
Mr. Wycola Chicken Christchurch	0	5	0	0	5
What A Catch Seafood Market	1	0	0	0	1
Total	88	71	35	13	207

^a Multiple responses accepted.

Table B16 Minimum number of wholesale distributor(s) used by cuisine style of restaurants in Christchurch (Unweighted N = 83)

Cuisine style	Range of distributor(s) used			Percent
	Number	Minimum	Maximum	
New Zealand	31	1	26	37.34
Asian	36	1	17	43.37
European	9	1	9	10.84
Other	7	1	2	8.43

Table B17 Establishment’s mean of supplier selection factor ratings according to the cuisine style of restaurants by using a one-way ANOVA test

Vancouver respondents

Food supplier selection factor	Entire Sample (N=94)				Canadian (C) (N=27)			Asian (A) (N=14)			European (E) (N=12)			Other (O) (N=7)			F-test	p-value
	N	M	SD	Rank	N	M	SD	N	M	SD	N	M	SD	N	M	SD		
Convenience in order process	60	5.75	1.79	8	27	6.04	1.28	14	5.71	2.16	12	4.75	2.41	7	6.43	0.78	1.89	0.14
Guaranteed consistent of product quality	60	6.25	1.49	1	27	6.52	1.22	14	5.86	1.96	12	6.08	1.73	7	6.29	0.95	0.65	0.58
Year-round availability	60	5.37	1.79	12	27	5.19	1.79	13	6.08	1.70	12	4.58	1.88	7	6.14	1.21	2.09	0.11
Products/ingredients knowledge	60	5.85	1.53	7	27	6.07	1.29	14	5.50	2.10	12	5.92	1.44	7	5.57	1.27	0.51	0.67
Ability to meet delivery deadlines	60	6.13	1.49	3	27	6.26	1.28	14	5.86	1.95	12	6.00	1.70	7	6.43	0.78	0.33	0.79
Products/ingredients fair prices	60	6.00	1.38	5	27	6.26	1.16	14	5.64	1.69	12	5.75	1.54	7	6.14	1.21	0.78	0.51
Ability to provide flexible payment procedures	60	4.83	2.03	14	27	4.48	2.10	14	5.50	1.50	12	4.25	2.26	7	5.86	1.86	1.77	0.16
Ability to deliver quantity needed or ordered	60	6.02	1.60	4	27	6.00	1.54	14	5.86	1.95	12	6.00	1.75	7	6.43	0.78	0.19	0.90
Ability to provide wide range of food products/ingredients	60	5.35	1.74	13	27	5.41	1.78	14	5.64	1.64	12	4.92	1.92	7	5.29	1.64	0.38	0.76
Willingness to share trustworthy information	60	5.69	1.32	9	27	6.04	0.98	13	5.31	1.54	12	5.42	1.31	7	5.57	1.90	1.19	0.32
Commitment to customer service	60	5.93	1.41	6	27	6.07	1.17	14	5.71	1.72	12	5.92	1.78	7	5.86	1.06	0.20	0.89
Responsiveness to questions or solving problems	60	6.02	1.43	4	27	6.33	1.14	14	5.57	1.78	12	5.92	1.67	7	5.86	1.21	0.93	0.42
Food safety assurances	60	6.15	1.56	2	27	6.37	1.44	14	5.86	1.87	12	5.92	1.78	7	6.29	0.95	0.43	0.72
Substitutions availability	60	5.60	1.39	10	27	5.59	1.50	14	5.64	1.39	12	5.50	1.38	7	5.71	1.25	0.03	0.99
Ability to provide process/package food products/ingredients as requested	60	5.45	1.70	11	27	5.19	1.88	14	5.71	1.43	12	5.83	1.40	7	5.29	2.05	0.54	0.65

Note: Mean based on scale of 1= “Very Unimportant”, 4= “Neither Important nor Unimportant”, 7= “Very Important”. C refers to “Canadian”, A refers to “Asian”, E refers to “European”, and O refers to “Other”. *F-test significant at the 0.05 level.

Christchurch respondents

Food supplier selection factor	Entire Sample (N=94)				New Zealand (NZ) (N=36)			Asian (A) (N=40)			European (E) (N=10)			Other (O) (N=8)			F-test	p-value
	N	M	SD	Rank	N	M	SD	N	M	SD	N	M	SD	N	M	SD		
Convenience in order process	94	6.49	1.17	3	36	6.31	1.28	40	6.75	0.77	10	6.30	1.05	8	6.25	2.12	1.16	0.32
Guaranteed consistent of product quality	94	6.49	0.94	3	36	6.58	0.80	40	6.40	0.77	10	6.70	0.48	8	6.25	2.12	0.57	0.63
Year-round availability	94	6.18	1.33	9	36	6.03	1.55	40	6.35	0.89	10	6.20	1.31	8	6.00	2.07	0.41	0.74
Products/ingredients knowledge	94	6.48	1.07	4	36	6.39	1.10	40	6.50	0.73	10	6.30	1.05	8	6.25	2.12	0.62	0.59
Ability to meet delivery deadlines	94	6.43	1.04	5	36	6.56	0.73	40	6.28	1.01	10	6.70	0.94	8	6.25	2.12	0.76	0.51
Products/ingredients fair prices	94	6.38	0.93	6	36	6.42	0.80	40	6.38	0.66	10	6.70	0.48	8	5.88	2.23	1.21	0.31
Ability to provide flexible payment procedures	94	6.06	1.47	11	36	5.64	1.67	40	6.50	0.90	10	5.70	1.56	8	6.25	2.12	2.56	0.06
Ability to deliver quantity needed or ordered	94	6.61	0.94	2	36	6.69	0.62	40	6.58	0.90	10	6.70	0.67	8	6.25	2.12	0.52	0.66
Ability to provide wide range of food products/ingredients	94	6.20	1.32	8	36	6.11	1.48	40	6.38	1.00	10	6.00	1.15	8	6.00	2.07	0.42	0.73
Willingness to share trustworthy information	94	5.95	1.26	13	36	5.86	1.43	40	6.03	0.86	10	5.90	1.28	8	6.00	2.07	0.11	0.95
Commitment to customer service	94	6.43	1.04	5	36	6.47	0.97	40	6.48	0.90	10	6.30	0.67	8	6.13	2.10	0.31	0.81
Responsiveness to questions or solving problems	94	6.36	1.12	7	36	6.50	0.81	40	6.20	1.20	10	6.70	0.48	8	6.13	2.10	0.88	0.45
Food safety assurances	94	6.67	0.94	1	36	6.78	0.42	40	6.63	1.03	10	6.90	0.31	8	6.13	2.10	1.28	0.28
Substitutions availability	94	6.07	1.48	10	36	5.78	1.67	40	6.28	1.15	10	6.20	1.39	8	6.25	2.12	0.78	0.50
Ability to provide process/package food products/ingredients as requested	94	5.99	1.37	12	36	6.17	1.32	40	5.85	1.23	10	5.80	1.54	8	6.13	2.10	0.42	0.73

Note: Mean based on scale of 1= "Very Unimportant", 4= "Neither Important nor Unimportant", 7= "Very Important". NZ refers to "New Zealand", A refers to "Asian", E refers to "European", and O refers to "Other". *F-test significant at the 0.05 level.

Table B18 Establishment’s mean of communication media (tools) ratings according to the cuisine style of restaurants by using a one-way ANOVA test

Vancouver respondents

Communication media (tools)	Entire Sample (N=46)				Canadian (C) (N=22)			Asian (A) (N=8)			European (E) (N=9)			Other (O) (N=7)			F-test	p-value
	N	M	SD	Rank	N	M	SD	N	M	SD	N	M	SD	N	M	SD		
Menu descriptions	46	5.76	1.49	6	22	5.73	1.35	8	5.00	2.26	9	6.33	1.11	7	6.00	1.15	1.21	0.31
Identification of origins of ingredients on the menu/blackboard	46	5.26	1.54	10	22	5.50	1.50	8	4.38	2.13	9	5.44	1.13	7	5.29	1.25	1.10	0.35
Staff (wait staff, kitchen staff, and managers) knowledge about the history and background of local food products/ingredients	46	6.00	1.33	3	22	6.14	1.24	8	5.13	1.80	8	6.50	0.92	7	6.00	1.15	1.67	0.18
Educate employees about local food products/ingredients	46	6.13	1.20	1	22	6.45	0.73	8	5.00	2.00	9	6.56	0.72	7	5.86	1.06	4.06	0.01*
Educate customers about local food products/ingredients	46	5.50	1.62	9	22	5.55	1.84	8	5.00	1.85	9	5.56	1.23	7	5.86	1.06	0.36	0.78
Reputation of the restaurant	46	6.07	1.34	2	22	6.09	1.06	8	5.13	2.41	9	6.56	0.52	7	6.43	0.78	2.01	0.12
Reputation of the chef	46	5.87	1.45	5	22	5.68	1.39	8	5.25	2.25	9	6.56	0.72	7	6.29	0.95	1.51	0.22
Theme of the restaurant	46	5.70	1.58	7	22	5.77	1.41	8	5.00	2.33	9	5.89	1.36	7	6.00	1.41	0.65	0.58
Personal recommendation (Word of mouth)	46	5.89	1.52	4	22	5.77	1.57	8	5.50	2.13	9	6.44	0.72	7	6.00	1.41	0.61	0.61
Signage (i.e. Brochures, Posters, on special erasable boards)	46	4.87	1.65	11	22	4.73	1.77	8	5.00	2.00	8	5.13	0.99	7	4.86	1.67	0.12	0.94
Social media (e.g. Website and Facebook)	46	5.67	1.54	8	22	5.73	1.45	8	5.63	2.06	8	5.88	1.24	7	5.29	1.70	0.19	0.90
Advertisements (i.e. Food guides, Newspaper reviews, Prize winning)	46	4.84	1.78	12	22	4.77	1.82	8	4.75	1.90	7	4.86	1.95	7	5.14	1.67	0.08	0.97

Note: Mean based on scale of 1= “Strongly Disagree”, 4= “Neither Agree nor Disagree”, 7= “Strongly”. C refers to “Canadian”, A refers to “Asian”, E refers to “European”, and O refers to “Other”. *F-test significant at the 0.05 level.

Summary of Post Hoc Tests

Educate employees about local food products/ingredients (4)

A < C < E

The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Christchurch respondents

Communication media (tools)	Entire Sample (N=49)				New Zealand (NZ) (N=25)			Asian (A) (N=13)			European (E) (N=7)			Other (O) (N=4)			F-test	p-value
	N	M	SD	Rank	N	M	SD	N	M	SD	N	M	SD	N	M	SD		
Menu descriptions	49	6.49	1.02	2	25	6.52	1.00	13	6.38	1.32	7	6.57	0.78	4	6.50	0.57	0.06	0.97
Identification of origins of ingredients on the menu/blackboard	49	6.14	1.38	7	25	6.36	1.22	13	5.54	1.85	7	6.29	1.11	4	6.50	0.57	1.15	0.33
Staff (wait staff, kitchen staff, and managers) knowledge about the history and background of local food products/ingredients	49	6.43	0.89	4	25	6.44	0.91	13	6.38	1.04	7	6.43	0.78	4	6.50	0.57	0.01	0.99
Educate employees about local food products/ingredients	49	6.39	0.95	5	25	6.44	0.91	13	6.15	1.21	7	6.43	0.78	4	6.75	0.50	0.46	0.70
Educate customers about local food products/ingredients	49	5.88	1.24	8	25	5.76	1.39	13	5.77	1.16	7	6.14	1.06	4	6.50	0.57	0.53	0.65
Reputation of the restaurant	49	6.67	0.63	1	25	6.72	0.61	13	6.46	0.77	7	6.71	0.48	4	7.00	0.00	0.91	0.44
Reputation of the chef	49	6.45	1.19	3	25	6.52	1.00	13	6.23	1.69	7	6.29	1.11	4	7.00	0.00	0.48	0.69
Theme of the restaurant	49	6.14	1.24	7	25	5.20	1.00	13	5.92	1.65	7	5.86	1.46	4	7.00	0.00	0.90	0.44
Personal recommendation (Word of mouth)	49	6.37	1.27	6	25	6.56	0.82	13	5.92	2.06	7	6.43	0.97	4	6.50	0.57	0.73	0.54
Signage (i.e. Brochures, Posters, on special erasable boards)	49	5.39	1.92	10	25	5.44	1.89	13	4.69	2.25	7	6.00	1.73	4	6.25	0.50	1.08	0.36
Social media (e.g. Website and Facebook)	49	5.86	1.68	9	25	6.00	1.22	13	5.23	2.45	7	6.00	1.73	4	6.75	0.50	1.05	0.37
Advertisements (i.e. Food guides, Newspaper reviews, Prize winning)	49	5.08	1.88	11	25	5.08	1.84	13	5.15	2.19	7	5.29	1.60	4	4.50	2.08	0.15	0.92

Note: Mean based on scale of 1= “Strongly Disagree”, 4= “Neither Agree nor Disagree”, 7= “Strongly”. NZ refers to “Canadian”, A refers to “Asian”, E refers to “European”, and O refers to “Other”. *F-test significant at the 0.05 level.

Appendix C: Details of interviewees

Table C1 Descriptions of the interviewees and their respective establishments: Restaurant/Chef

Reference*	Gender	City (Country)	Type of establishment	Position of interviewee	Years living in the region	Years of industry experience	Procurement sources
R1	Male	Vancouver (Canada)	Hotel Restaurant	Executive Chef	31	14	Farmers and Wholesale distributors
R2	Male	Vancouver (Canada)	Hotel Restaurant	Executive Chef	20	32	Wholesale distributors
R3	Female	Vancouver (Canada)	Restaurant	Executive Chef	15	22	Farmers and Wholesale distributors
R4	Male	Vancouver (Canada)	Restaurant	Executive Chef -Owner	40	28	Farmers' markets, Farmers, and Wholesale distributors
R5	Male	Vancouver (Canada)	Restaurant	Executive Chef -Owner	22	35	Farmers' markets, Farmers, and Wholesale distributors
R6	Female	Vancouver (Canada)	Café	Owner-Manager	40	8	Farmers and Wholesale distributors
R7	Male	Vancouver (Canada)	Restaurant	Executive Chef	29	15	Farmers' markets and Wholesale distributors
R8	Male	Vancouver (Canada)	Restaurant	Executive Chef	14	16	Farmers' markets, Farmers, and Wholesale distributors
R9	Male	Vancouver (Canada)	Hotel Restaurant	Executive Sous Chef	12	30	Farmers and Wholesale distributors
R10	Female	Vancouver (Canada)	Restaurant	Executive Chef	30	22	Farmers' markets, Farmers, and Wholesale distributors
R11	Male	Vancouver (Canada)	Restaurant	Executive Chef	10	15	Farmers' markets, Farmers, and Wholesale distributors
R12	Male	Vancouver (Canada)	Restaurant	Chef-Manager	7	14	Farmers and Wholesale distributors
R13	Male	Vancouver (Canada)	Restaurant	Chef-Owner	34	28	Farmers and Wholesale distributors
R14	Female	Vancouver (Canada)	Restaurant	Executive Chef	25	14	Farmers' markets, Farmers, and Wholesale distributors
R15	Male	Vancouver (Canada)	Hotel Restaurant	Sous Chef	25	23	Farmers' markets, Farmers, and Wholesale distributors
R16	Male	Vancouver (Canada)	Restaurant	Executive Chef	2	20	Farmers' markets and Wholesale distributors
R17	Male	Vancouver (Canada)	Hotel Restaurant	Sous Chef	40	14	Farmers and Wholesale distributors
R18	Male	Vancouver (Canada)	Hotel Restaurant	Executive Chef	24	12	Farmers' markets and Farmers

Note: *Names were changed to reference to ensure anonymity. R refers to "Restaurant".

Table C1

Reference*	Gender	City (Country)	Type of establishment	Position of interviewee	Years living in the region	Years of industry experience	Procurement sources
R19	Male	Vancouver (Canada)	Restaurant	Executive Chef -Owner	17	20	Farmers' markets, Farmers, and Wholesale distributors
R20	Male	Vancouver (Canada)	Restaurant	Owner-Operator	39	30	Wholesale distributors
R21	Male	Vancouver (Canada)	Restaurant	Executive Chef	23	37	Farmers' markets, Farmers, and Wholesale distributors
R22	Male	Vancouver (Canada)	Hotel Restaurant	Executive Chef	35	20	Farmers and Wholesale distributors
R23	Male	Vancouver (Canada)	Restaurant	Executive Chef	2	35	Farmers and Wholesale distributors
R24	Male	Vancouver (Canada)	Restaurant	Executive Chef	36	18	Wholesale distributors
R25	Male	Vancouver (Canada)	Restaurant	Owner-Operator	7	24	Farmers' markets and Wholesale distributors
R26	Male	Vancouver (Canada)	Hotel Restaurant	Sous Chef	14	33	Farmers' markets, Farmers, and Wholesale distributors
R27	Male	Vancouver (Canada)	Restaurant	Sous Chef	35	14	Farmers and Wholesale distributors
R28	Male	Vancouver (Canada)	Hotel Restaurant	Executive Sous Chef	1	12	Farmers and Wholesale distributors
R29	Male	Vancouver (Canada)	Restaurant	Executive Chef	14	20	Farmers' markets and Wholesale distributors
R30	Male	Vancouver (Canada)	Restaurant	Chef-Owner	7	20	Farmers and Wholesale distributors
R31	Male	Vancouver (Canada)	Restaurant	General Manager	25	20	Farmers' markets and Wholesale distributors
R32	Male	Christchurch (New Zealand)	Restaurant	Sous Chef	3	15	Farmers and Wholesale distributors
R33	Male	Christchurch (New Zealand)	Restaurant	Executive Chef	35	25	Farmers and Wholesale distributors
R34	Male	Christchurch (New Zealand)	Restaurant	Executive Chef	39	31	Wholesale distributors
R35	Male	Christchurch (New Zealand)	Restaurant	Manager	15	22	Wholesale distributors
R36	Male	Christchurch (New Zealand)	Restaurant	Owner-Operator	40	23	Wholesale distributors
R37	Male	Christchurch (New Zealand)	Hotel Restaurant	Executive Sous Chef	17	14	Farmers and Wholesale distributors
R38	Male	Christchurch (New Zealand)	Restaurant	Manager	22	10	Farmers' markets and Wholesale distributors
R39	Male	Christchurch (New Zealand)	Restaurant	Executive Chef	50	38	Wholesale distributors

Note: *Names were changed to reference to ensure anonymity. R refers to "Restaurant".

Table C1

Reference*	Gender	City (Country)	Type of establishment	Position of interviewee	Years living in the region	Years of industry experience	Procurement sources
R40	Male	Christchurch (New Zealand)	Restaurant	Executive Chef	9	20	Wholesale distributors
R41	Male	Christchurch (New Zealand)	Restaurant	Executive Sous Chef	20	18	Farmers and Wholesale distributors
R42	Male	Christchurch (New Zealand)	Restaurant	Owner-Operator	30	5	Wholesale distributors
R43	Male	Christchurch (New Zealand)	Hotel Restaurant	Sous Chef	22	7	Wholesale distributors
R44	Male	Christchurch (New Zealand)	Restaurant	Executive Chef	32	17	Wholesale distributors
R45	Male	Christchurch (New Zealand)	Restaurant	Manager	16	9	Wholesale distributors
R46	Male	Christchurch (New Zealand)	Restaurant	Manager	3	3	Wholesale distributors
R47	Male	Christchurch (New Zealand)	Restaurant	Executive Chef-Owner	10	8	Farmers' markets and Farmers
R48	Male	Christchurch (New Zealand)	Restaurant	Executive Chef	3	18	Farmers' markets, Farmers, and Wholesale distributors
R49	Male	Christchurch (New Zealand)	Restaurant	Executive Chef	4	7	Farmers' markets and Farmers
R50	Male	Christchurch (New Zealand)	Restaurant	General Manager	10	10	Farmers and Wholesale distributors
R51	Male	Christchurch (New Zealand)	Restaurant	Manager	6	10	Wholesale distributors
R52	Male	Christchurch (New Zealand)	Caterer	Executive Chef	15	32	Wholesale distributors
R53	Male	Christchurch (New Zealand)	Restaurant	Executive Chef	6	27	Wholesale distributors
R54	Male	Christchurch (New Zealand)	Restaurant	Executive Chef	38	25	Wholesale distributors
R55	Male	Christchurch (New Zealand)	Restaurant	Executive Chef-Owner	15	10	Wholesale distributors
R56	Male	Christchurch (New Zealand)	Hotel Restaurant	Executive Sous Chef	38	20	Farmers and Wholesale distributors
R57	Female	Christchurch (New Zealand)	Restaurant	Manager	21	30	Wholesale distributors
R58	Male	Christchurch (New Zealand)	Restaurant	Sous Chef	5	38	Wholesale distributors
R59	Male	Christchurch (New Zealand)	Restaurant	Executive Chef	32	18	Farmers and Wholesale distributors

Note: *Names were changed to reference to ensure anonymity. R refers to "Restaurant".

Table C2 Descriptions of the interviewees and their respective farms: Farmers and/or Farmers' market vendors

Reference*	Gender	City (Country)	Position of interviewee	Farming status	Number of employees (FT/PT)**	Years living in the region	Years of farming experience	Main product	Value added product	Production techniques	Arable land in acres
F1	Female	Vancouver (Canada)	Owner-Manager	Fulltime	6 (FT)	35	15	Vegetables and Potatoes	None	Certified organic and Certified biodynamic	76
F2	Male	Vancouver (Canada)	Owner	Fulltime	2-3 (PT)	43	40	Fruits and Vegetables	None	Certified organic	8
F3	Male	Vancouver (Canada)	Farmer cum sales co-ordinator	Fulltime	6-8 (FT)	8	10	Vegetables and Salad greens	None	Non-certified organic	10
F4	Male	Vancouver (Canada)	Owner	Fulltime	8 (FT)	30	35	Fruits and Vegetables	None	Certified organic	12
F5	Female	Vancouver (Canada)	Farmer cum distribution co-ordinator	Fulltime	17-20 (FT)	10	15	Fruits, Vegetables, and Salad greens	None	Non-certified organic	4.5
F6	Female	Vancouver (Canada)	Owner	Fulltime	2 (FT) 5 (PT)	32	7	Fruits, Vegetables, and Salad greens	None	Certified organic	10
F7	Female	Vancouver (Canada)	Owner	Fulltime	6 (FT)	15	1	Free range Turkey	Sausages	Certified organic	5
F8	Male	Vancouver (Canada)	Owner	Fulltime	2 (FT)	20	25	Fruits and Vegetables	None	Certified organic	5
F9	Male	Vancouver (Canada)	Owner	Fulltime	2 (FT)	4	3	Micro-greens	None	Non-certified organic	1
F10	Female	Vancouver (Canada)	Owner	Fulltime	2 (FT)	40	15	Vegetables, and Salad greens	None	Non-certified organic	4

Note: *Names were changed to reference to ensure anonymity. **FT refers to “Full-Time” and PT refers to “Part-Time”. F refers to “Farmers and/or farmers market vendors”.

Table C2

Reference*	Gender	City (Country)	Position of interviewee	Farming status	Number of employees (FT/PT)**	Years living in the region	Years of farming experience	Main product	Value added products	Production techniques	Arable land in acres
F11	Male	Vancouver (Canada)	Owner	Fulltime	12-14 (FT)	35	20	Vegetables, Herbs, and Salad greens	None	Non-certified organic	34
F12	Female	Vancouver (Canada)	Owner	Fulltime	4-10 (FT)	30	30	Fruits and Vegetables	None	Certified organic	6
F13	Male	Christchurch (New Zealand)	Owner	Fulltime	2 (FT)	56	22	Free range pork	Salamis and Pork liver Pâtés	Non-certified organic	50
F14	Male	Christchurch (New Zealand)	Owner	Fulltime	2 (FT)	26	15	Fruits, Vegetables, and Salad greens	None	Certified organic	10
F15	Male	Christchurch (New Zealand)	Owner	Fulltime	2 (FT)	11	10	Fruits and Vegetables	None	Conventional	5
F16	Male	Christchurch (New Zealand)	Owner	Fulltime	3 (FT)	32	14	vegetables	None	Integrated pest management	3
F17	Male	Christchurch (New Zealand)	Owner	Fulltime	3 (FT)	27	4	Vegetables, and Salad greens	None	Certified organic	10
F18	Male	Christchurch (New Zealand)	Owner	Fulltime	2 (FT) 2 (PT)	9	9	Lettuce and Fresh herbs	None	Non-certified organic	10
F19	Male	Christchurch (New Zealand)	Owner	Fulltime	4 (FT)	23	22	Free range chicken	None	Certified organic	20
F20	Male	Christchurch (New Zealand)	Owner	Fulltime	18-20 (FT)	35	31	Micro-salads and Fresh herbs	Mesclin mix salad	Non-certified organic	14

Note: *Names were changed to reference to ensure anonymity. **FT refers to “Full-Time” and PT refers to “Part-Time”. F refers to “Farmers and/or farmers market vendors”.

Table C3 Descriptions of the interviewees and their respective establishments: Wholesale distributors

Reference*	Gender	City (Country)	Type of wholesale distributor	Position of interviewee	Years living in the region	Years of industry experience
W1	Male	Vancouver (Canada)	Hand selected boutique meats	Business Manager	18	28
W2	Male	Vancouver (Canada)	Fresh produces	Sales Representative	34	21
W3	Female	Vancouver (Canada)	Fresh produces, meats, poultry, seafood, and shellfish	Sales Representative	40	20
W4	Male	Vancouver (Canada)	Fresh produces, dairy and eggs, meats and speciality meats, poultry, seafood, and shellfish	Corporate Food and Beverage Representative	47	30
W5	Male	Vancouver (Canada)	Speciality meats	Owner	15	12
W6	Female	Vancouver (Canada)	Seafood and shellfish	Sales Representative	51	31
W7	Male	Christchurch (New Zealand)	Meats	Business Development Manager	13	9
W8	Male	Christchurch (New Zealand)	Meats	Purchasing and Sales Manager	39	22
W9	Male	Christchurch (New Zealand)	Seafood and shellfish	Owner	25	25
W10	Male	Christchurch (New Zealand)	Seafood and shellfish	Sales Manager	26	4
W11	Female	Christchurch (New Zealand)	Meats	South Island sales representative	6.5	3.5
W12	Male	Christchurch (New Zealand)	Speciality cheeses	Owner	16	15
W13	Male	Christchurch (New Zealand)	Meats (Wholesale retail butcher distributor)	Owner	35	16
W14	Male	Christchurch (New Zealand)	Fresh produces	Owner	65	35
W15	Male	Christchurch (New Zealand)	Meats (Wholesale retail butcher distributor)	Wholesale Manager	52	34
W16	Female	Christchurch (New Zealand)	Fresh produces	Operation Manager	8	8

Note: *Names were changed to reference to ensure anonymity. W refers to “Wholesale distributor”.

Appendix D: Full-length paper published from this research

Roy, H., Hall, C.M. & Ballantine, P. 2016, 'Barriers and constraints in the use of local foods in the hospitality sector', pp.255-273 in C.M. Hall and S. Gössling (eds). *Food Tourism and Regional Development: Networks, products and trajectories*, Abingdon: Routledge.