

Motivation-based segmentation of local food in urban cities: A decision segmentation analysis approach

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Motivation-based segmentation of local food in urban cities

Local food in urban cities

A decision segmentation analysis approach

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Abstract

Purpose – The purpose of this paper is twofold: first, to investigate the motives of urban consumers when purchasing local food products using means-end chain (MEC) analysis and second, to introduce an alternative approach to segment the market based on consumers' motivation using decision segmentation analysis (DSA). **Design/methodology/approach** – DSA was used as advanced segmentation procedure of hierarchy value maps (HVMs) produced by MEC analysis.

Findings – The findings suggest that there are two main segments of local food consumers in urban Indonesia: value-for-money and health benefits. The value-for-money segment is dominant when making local food purchasing.

Research limitations/implications – This study sample is not representative of local food consumers in urban Indonesia as only three urban cities were interviewed.

Practical implications – An understanding of the motivation-based segmentation of local food in urban cities is a useful tool in order to reinforce and attract local food consumers to consume more locally grown food.

Originality/value – This study reveals the motivation-based segmentation of local food in urban cities in Indonesia.

Keywords Local food, Motivation, Laddering, Means-end chain, Decision segmentation analysis, Market segmentation

Paper type Research paper

1. Introduction and literature review

1.1 Local food: definition and consumers' motivation

Rural and urban locations together with price, health benefits, locally grown produce, environmental benefits and support for local communities are expected to play important roles in local food choices (Miroso and Lawson, 2012; Tregear and Ness, 2005; Weatherell *et al.*, 2003). According to data from the World Bank (2018a, b), the percentage of the urban population in Indonesia was 54 percent of the total population in 2016. It is expected that the urban population will reach 71 percent of the total population by 2030. Food spending was the major part (45 percent) of total expenditure for Indonesia's urban households in 2015 (Statistics Indonesia, 2016), making them potential local food markets. For this reason, exploring the consumers' motivation of local food and segmenting the market involved are essential to develop products that might fulfill urban consumer needs.

There is no widely accepted definition of "local food" worldwide, although geographic distance between food production and consumption is often associated with the definition



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of "local" (Adams and Salois, 2010; Chambers *et al.*, 2007). In the USA, food produced locally and regionally within a 400-mile (643-km) radius from farms or distributed within the same state can be defined as local according to Martinez *et al.* (2010). However, the definition of "local" still remains ambiguous in Indonesia. Arsil, Li and Bruwer (2014) found that fresh and unprocessed food that are grown and sold within a regency or province is widely accepted as local food.

Local food has attracted consumers' attention despite no clear consensus on the local food definition. For consumers, the capacity to differentiate local food from widely used food products allows them to specify the important attributes they prefer. Some consumers in developed countries consider life quality, environmental benefits, enriching the local community and promoting social equity (Gracia and Albisu, 2001; Trobe, 2001). In addition to this, the engagement of farmers and reconnection to rural roots are also determining factors to buy locally grown produce (Hinrichs, 2000). Local food systems are also believed to be economic and viable alternatives in the food systems with respect to sustainable food consumption (Feenstra, 1997; Hinrichs, 2000). However, price, quality and consumer health are still the major important attributes for local food (Penney and Prior, 2014; Tey *et al.*, 2017). Although previous studies reported that local food is more expensive than national or imported food (Roininen *et al.*, 2006), some consumers believe that local food is cheap (Arsil, Li and Bruwer, 2014; Chambers *et al.*, 2007).

Literature on local food has been analyzed from many angles of consumer views, involving consumers' perceptions and preferences for locally grown food (Arsil, Li and Bruwer, 2014; Feldmann and Hamm, 2015; Moser *et al.*, 2011). Some studies examine consumers' attitudes and behavior (Bianchi and Mortimer, 2015; Campbell, 2013) and consumers' motivation toward local produce (Arsil, Li, Bruwer and Lyons, 2014; Tey *et al.*, 2017). Other researchers have explored the willingness to pay (WTP) of local food (Adams and Salois, 2010; Burnett *et al.*, 2011; Gracia *et al.*, 2014; Onken *et al.*, 2011) that have found higher WTP values for a local attribute claim as opponent to non-local alternative products. Factors that contribute to the increasing of WTP for local agricultural products might be influenced by socio-demographic respondents such as gender, age and income (Jekanowski *et al.*, 2000; Yue and Tong, 2009), product quality (Carpio and Isengildina-Massa, 2009), stores to purchase (Onken *et al.*, 2011; Yue and Tong, 2009), social influences (Gracia *et al.*, 2014) and time of residency (Jekanowski *et al.*, 2000). In addition, local food movements appear to flourish in developed countries (Weatherell *et al.*, 2003), and most studies have focused on such countries (e.g. Adams and Salois, 2010; Pearson and Henryks, 2011). However, consumer segmentation based on motivation toward local food has received little attention. To date, there has been no study examining the segmentation of local food consumers based on their motivations in Indonesia.

1.2 Decision segmentation analysis (DSA): an advanced segmentation procedure of means-end chain (MEC)

The MEC approach was employed in this study as the method has been used widely to explore consumer motivation. This method assumes that consumers would buy and consume a specific product because they believe that they can achieve a desired value through the attributes of the product and their consequences (Reynolds and Gutman, 1988). The MEC theory typically produces attributes (A) and is linked sequentially to consequences (C) that derive importance from using the product and by satisfying personal values (V), the forms of which are called a "ladder." Attributes are physical or observable properties of a product or service while consequences are the benefits of using or consuming a product or service (Gutman, 1982). Values refer to desirable end-state that a person wants to achieve (Rokeach, 1973). A hierarchical value map (HVM) is the name given to the graph that is formed from various ladders, representing the

aggregate connection of A, C and V (Reynolds and Gutman, 1988). This HVM provides insight into a cognitive structure of consumer perceptions of products and their links to relevant consequences, and finally to the attainment of life values (Reynolds and Gutman, 1988).

In this context, we also introduce the use of DSA suggested by Reynolds (2006) to segment local food consumers based on their motivations. The use of this approach is still very limited in market segmentation, particularly in the case of local food consumers. Among traditional methods of segmentation that have considered one or a combination of variables involving demographics, geographics, psychographics and behavior, purchasing behavior is believed to be a potentially useful basis for segmentation (Kotler and Armstrong, 1991). Many researchers have emphasized that MEC theory can be very useful for the development of market segments (Botschen *et al.*, 1999; Reynolds and Gutman, 1988) as the values involved have been proven to play the dominant role in governing personal behavior and decision-making processes in all aspects of people's lives (Rokeach, 1973).

Several studies have focused on a method of motivational segmentation linked to the MEC approach (Aurifeille and Valette-Florence, 1995; Valette-Florence and Rapacchi, 1991). Clustering processes based on individual code elements as units of analysis have been suggested in addressing the segmentation problem of HVM (Valette-Florence and Rapacchi, 1991). However, Aurifeille and Valette-Florence (1995) identified that the number of ladders for each cluster was difficult to determine. The strength of the association between elements within the entire MEC also did not capture properly (Reynolds, 2006). Multi-dimensional scaling for chain clustering was then introduced by Aurifeille and Valette-Florence (1995) to improve the process of clustering based on the cognitive element. This approach represented the number of ladders in the chain to describe the dominant MEC chains (Aurifeille and Valette-Florence, 1995). However, this method was difficult to evaluate or to independently replicate by other researchers as this required several subjective choices to be made (Reynolds, 2006). Less attention has been paid to the use of DSA developed by Reynolds (2006). This approach has benefits in terms of the use of HVM as an appropriate unit of analysis. This deterministic model has enabled researchers to identify the internal consistency of the MEC segment (Reynolds, 2006). Accordingly, the present study proposes an alternative approach, called DSA, to segment the local food market based on consumers' motivations. This approach can provide significant benefits to standardize the procedure of segmenting HVM. The internal consistency of segments is more stable that reflects to one decision orientation. Therefore, the aims of our study are twofold:

- (1) to determine consumer motivation and related values when purchasing local food using MEC analysis; and
- (2) to segment local food markets with respect to consumer motivations using DSA in urban areas in Indonesia.

This study will assist producers and agricultural officials to better understand the potential of the market segments of local food and contribute to knowledge with respect to the motivation-based segmentation of local food in urban Indonesia. We apply quantitative methodology to segment the HVM underlying MEC theory, as proposed by Reynolds (2006).

2. Methods

The MEC methodology application for this study closely follows the research guidelines of MEC theory (Olson and Reynolds, 2010; Pieters *et al.*, 1995; Reynolds and Gutman, 1988). The DSA approach selected for this study refers to guidelines developed by Reynolds (2006).

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2.1 Data collection

Sampling of respondents in the urban cities involved a multi-stage design that included a random sampling stage. During the first stage, three urban locations in Indonesia – Yogyakarta, Bandung and Padang – were selected methodically instead of randomly to represent three main ethnic groups in Indonesia, namely, the Javanese, Sundanese and Minangese. At the second stage, each urban city was selected and three sub-districts were selected randomly. A village was then selected randomly from each sub-district chosen. Thereafter, a neighborhood area was chosen randomly for every village selected. Finally, a residential block was selected randomly from each village selected (Zikmund and Babin, 2010). Screening questions were asked to the potential subjects to assure that they were of ethnic origin and decision makers at the households. They also were asked about motives of purchasing local food using the MEC analysis approach (Reynolds and Gutman, 1988).

Table I depicts the summary statistics of the demographic characteristics of the sample of respondents. The food decision makers in the urban cities involved in the study areas were dominated by a female and housewife and had higher education level compared to statistics national data. These results show that female and housewife are still dominated the food decision making in the study area. Married-couple families are dominant and individuals spend money for food a week approximately less than IDR100,000.

2.2 MEC analysis

In total, 18 interviewers were trained in the soft-laddering technique and MEC theory prior to data collection. Soft laddering was chosen for use in the one-on-one and in-depth interviewing technique in order to elicit the A–C–V sequential links (Phillips and Reynolds, 2009; Reynolds and Gutman, 1988). Then, an HVM was generated by asking each respondent the following specific question: “why is that important for you?” In this study, 269 respondents were interviewed through the MEC, resulting in individual HVM that provided from one to four maps per person. A total of 509 HVMs were involved in this study.

A content analysis procedure was employed to construct a master set of codes for the attributes, consequences and values. In order to mitigate the classification errors of elements, the concept of abstractness ratio was employed in this study (Bagozzi and Dabholkar, 1994). An abstractness ratio coefficient was used to examine elements for their position in the A–C–V hierarchies. A higher abstractness ratio coefficient indicated that the element served as the end or value and a lower abstractness ratio coefficient signified that the element served as the means or attributes (Pieters *et al.*, 1995). Additionally, Pieters *et al.* (1995) suggested that a centrality index could be used to explain the proportion of connections in the HVM through the use of a particular variable. A higher centrality index showed the degree to which a particular element played a key role over other elements. The calculation of abstractness ratio and centrality index are presented in Table II. We also excluded some linkages of A–C–V by employing a cut-off level to provide an HVM that is easy to interpret and provides an informative solution. Multiple cut-off levels were attempted, accounting for 60–70 percent of active linkages in the construction of the HVM (Bagozzi and Dabholkar, 1994; Pieters *et al.*, 1995).

2.3 DSA procedure

The unit measurement for market segmentation in this study was provided by HVM. Reynolds (2006) mentioned that the analytical procedure of DSA began with the determination of the number of desired clusters in the solution (2–9) and the maximum number of codes included in a chain (3–6). The next step of DSA was to draw suggested graphical main pathways with respect to the number of desired clusters and codes included in a chain. In addition, the data of the strength of linkages and centrality index coefficient were considered in developing proposed clusters. Thereafter, the number of codes included

Characteristics	Average (<i>n</i> = 269) (%)	Statistics Indonesia (2016) (%)	Local food in urban cities
<i>Gender</i>			
Female	92	50	
Male	8	50	
<i>Family income (million IDR/month)</i>			
4≤	80	na	
4< and ≤8	12		
8< and ≤12	3		
12>	5		
<i>Education-level attained</i>			
Not attending school	0	8	
Primary school	15	44	
High school	57	42	
Diploma/University/postgraduate	28	6	
<i>Occupation</i>			
Housewife	61	na	
Entrepreneur	23		
Civil servant	7		
Employee	5		
Others	4		
<i>Household types</i>			
Single person	4	na	
Married-couple family	63		
Other family	29		
Other non-family	3		
<i>Age (years old)</i>			
30≤	10	0–14 years old (27%)	
30< and ≤40	33	15–64 years old (67%)	
40< and ≤50	31	≥65 years old (5%)	
50< and ≤60	18		
60< and ≤70	7		
70≥	1		
<i>Number of family members</i>			
1–4	48	na	
5–8	47		
8>	5		
<i>Money for food per capita per week (000 IDR)</i>			
100<	78	na	
200<	15		
200≥	7		

Note: All percentages may not total 100 percent due to rounding

Table I.
Summary of
socio-demographic
characteristics of
sample respondents

in a chain was ascertained, which were three to seven codes, with a chain length of two to six. Multiple runs were made involving different numbers of desired clusters and chain length, yielding clusters that represented the respective connections. The final DSA solution was determined by the amount of additional variance of the next cluster size. Phillips *et al.* (2010) argued that in practice, there was no significant variance if the amount of additional variance accounted for less than 8 percent and the last cluster could be excluded. A sensitivity analysis was then conducted to illustrate the key DSA statistics, namely, the percentage of the ladder (%L) involved (Reynolds, 2006).

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	Content codes	AR	CI
	<i>Attributes</i>		
	Easy for preparation and cooking	0.09	0.12
	Inexpensive	0.09	0.13
	Food quality	0.11	0.08
	Healthy food	0.21	0.02
	Trust the food	0.25	0.02
	<i>Consequences</i>		
	Can afford	0.40	0.07
	Good taste	0.43	0.04
	Save time and energy	0.49	0.06
	Family eats a lot	0.51	0.04
	Save money	0.51	0.24
	Money for other things	0.53	0.18
	Controlling budget	0.54	0.08
	Good health	0.55	0.21
	Time for other things	0.57	0.12
	<i>Values</i>		
	Sense of accomplishment	0.62	0.09
	Fun and enjoyment in life	0.84	0.05
	Happy	1.00	0.17
Table II. Attributes, consequences and values of local food in urban cities	Notes: AR, abstractness ratio; CI, centrality index		

3. Results

3.1 Means-end chain

A cut-off level of eight had been selected that represented 66.7 percent (two-thirds) of active links at or above the cut-off level, as stated by Reynolds and Gutman (1988) who said that two-thirds of all connections among elements could be used to select a cut-off level. At cut-off level 8, there were 1,779 active links with 17 content codes. As shown in this study, the categories of attributes, consequences and values were clearly consistent with the MEC concept developed by Reynolds and Gutman (1988). Based on the abstractness ratio, attributes were represented by elements with lower abstractness ratio located at the bottom of hierarchy. Attributes of local food in this study consisted of "easy for preparation and cooking," "inexpensive," "food quality," "healthy food" and "trust the food," ranging in value from 0 to 0.25. Among these attributes, "inexpensive" was the most important element based on the centrality index. Elements with higher abstractness ratio were positioned as values and were located in the higher level of the hierarchy such as "sense of accomplishment" and "happy" which ranged in value from 0.62 to 1. In addition, elements in between attributes and values were categorized as consequences ranging in value from 0.4 to 0.57. "Happiness" and "save money" were identified, based on the centrality index, as the most important values and consequence, respectively. These values were consistent with values in previous studies (e.g. Rokeach, 1973). The centrality index represented the role of each element in the hierarchy. A higher centrality index represented by the black boxes indicated that this element was more important than other elements. Low centrality indices were depicted by light gray boxes indicating that those elements were less important than others.

3.2 Cluster solutions of local food

Figure 1 represents the hypothetical HVM of local food in urban cities, which includes suggested main pathways as the cluster. In order to determine the number of segments,

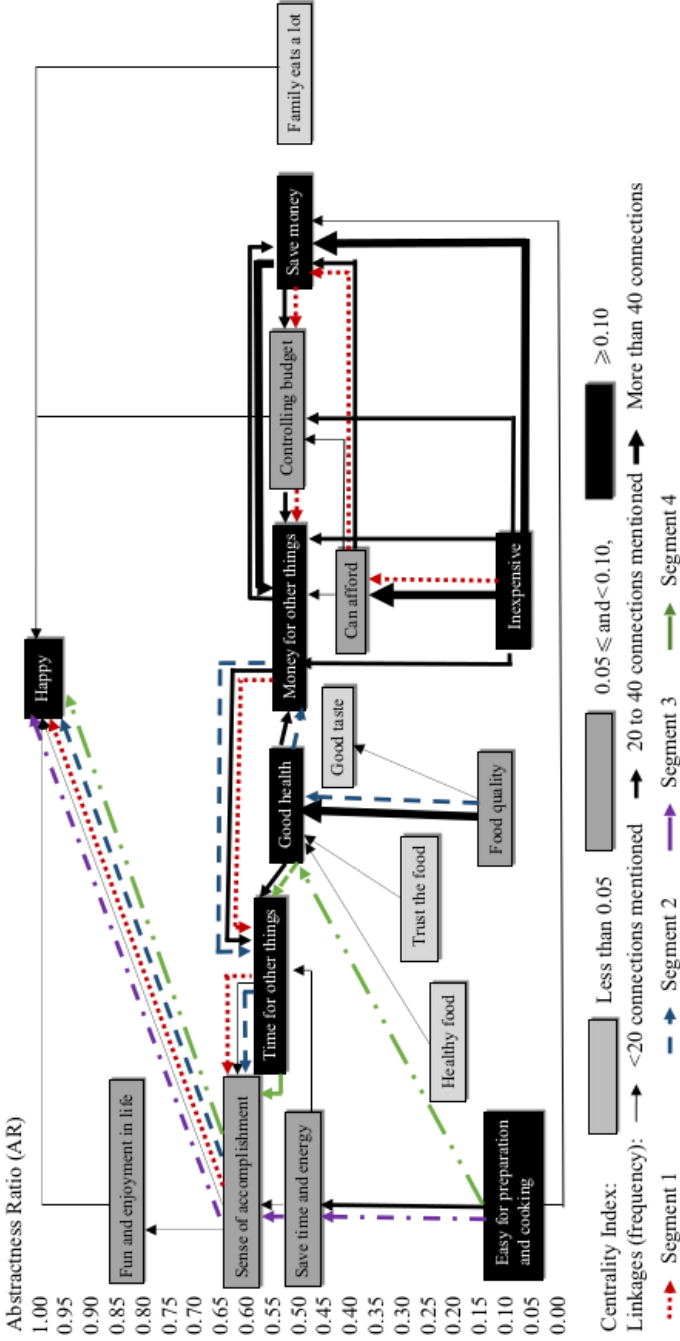


Figure 1.
Hierarchy value map
of local food for
everyday eating at
cut-off level 8

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main pathways were then identified by considering the centrality index and how many times the links were mentioned by respondents. Four segments were consequently identified from the HVM of local food.

Table III presents the calculation of the percentage of ladders in each of the solutions that involve the number of desired clusters and chain length for each city. The percentage of “cluster solution of two” meant the total percentage of ladders of segments 1 and 2. The chain length of two signified the link of A–C–V of three distinctions. The total percentage of the chain of length ≤ 3 meant the total percentage of ladders of the chain length of 2 and 3.

The review and summary of the percentage of ladders of two clusters of four chain length (68 percent) for local food show that the addition of the third cluster (74 percent) is not significant (less than 8 percent). Furthermore, the addition of five chain length at two clusters does not account for significant increase that is 6 percent. It is suggested that two clusters with a four chain length was the final solution. The DSA analysis is of considerable benefit in the interpretation of the evidence obtained from interviews with regard to the cognitive structure of purchasing local food. The findings show that the themes advanced by groups of consumers in urban locations involve two segments, which are value-for-money and health benefits, respectively.

3.3 Motivational-based segmentation of local food in urban areas

The value-for-money segment was inexpensive \rightarrow save money \leftrightarrow money for other things \rightarrow time for other things \rightarrow happy. A total of 219 ladders (43 percent) from 166 respondents (62 percent) involved in this segment. The salient attribute of local food was emphasized as an inexpensive product that consumers could afford for daily food consumption. Some consumers believed that local food was cheaper than national or imported foods. By purchasing local food, consumers mentioned that some money could be saved and other needs and wants could be fulfilled. For consumers, local purchases were an easy way to save money and even had some extra left to spend on other things. When asked, consumers mentioned that they also had time for other activities, such as working, daily, family, religious and social activities. Consumers felt satisfied with themselves because they could save some money for their pension deposit fund and having a nice home. This led to happiness:

Local food is cheaper compared to national food and the food that I can afford [...] So that, I can save some money and share money for other needs like bills, unexpected needs and others [...] So, I can have some money for pension deposit. This makes me happy (an anonymous respondent).

The main pathways for the health benefits segment were developed in a similar way. There were 176 ladders (35 percent) from 133 respondents (49 percent) clustered in this segment. The dominant pathways were food quality \rightarrow good health \rightarrow money for other things \rightarrow time for other things \rightarrow happy. “Freshness” and “good quality” were the important attributes mentioned by respondents that associate with good health. Consumers considered that being in good health was associated with reducing health costs and saving time from visits

Table III.
Percentage of ladders for each cluster solution in different desired cluster solutions and chain length for local food

Number of cluster solutions	Chain length				
	≤ 2 (%)	≤ 3 (%)	≤ 4 (%)	≤ 5 (%)	≤ 6 (%)
2	37	55	68	74	78
3	43	61	74	80	85
4	46	65	78	84	89

to hospitals, so that money could be saved and more activities could be undertaken. Good health also led to happiness:

Local food is natural with a good quality [...] It will lead us to good health [...] I am a businessperson. I need to be in a good health condition to run my business. By working, I can get some money to cover my daily needs [...] We can thank Allah (God) [...] I feel I am a good person and for a quiet life [...] No more. I no longer want anything to achieve (an anonymous respondent).

Local food in urban cities

4. Discussion

4.1 Consumer motivation and segmentation toward local food

Two groups of consumers were identified on the basis of their purchasing motives, which were “value-for-money” and “health benefits.” The consumers of the value-for-money segment considered local food types as inexpensive. This result of the study is similar to the results of other studies. Tey *et al.* (2017) reported that consumers who purchase at farmers’ markets perceived fresh food to have a lower price. Consumers in this segment are also in the same group of some of the local food consumers in the UK who believed that local food was cheaper than national and imported food (Chambers *et al.*, 2007). In contrast, Lockeretz (1986) reported that price was not a significant factor influencing the buying of local food, both in farmers’ markets and in supermarkets. Similar to this, Roininen *et al.* (2006) reported that price had a negative association with locally produced food, which was believed to be high. The segment confirmed that price became the most important consideration for people with lower family incomes when making purchasing decisions (Ostrom, 2006). This is not surprising as gross national product (GDP) per capita in Indonesia in 2016 amounted to around \$3,570 (see data.worldbank.org for the definition of GDP), which was much lower than the UK (\$40,367) and the USA (\$57,638.2) (World Bank, 2018a, b).

Most studies in the USA and Europe found that consumers valued the local food claim and had a positive WTP for premium price for origin attributes as compared to products with other characteristics (Burnett *et al.*, 2011; Feldmann and Hamm, 2015; Gracia *et al.*, 2014; Onken *et al.*, 2011). However, consumers’ WTP for local food has little attention and is still not clear in Indonesia. Socio-demographic factors, product quality, stores to purchase, social influences can be considered in order to increase the consumers’ WTP for local food in Indonesia.

In addition, the health benefits segment is in the same group as urban consumers in Birmingham (UK) who considered food quality, freshness and health issue as an important reason for buying local produce (Penney and Prior, 2014). This result is also consistent with Roininen *et al.* (2006) who reported that freshness was associated with local production. Arsil, Li, Bruwer and Lyons (2014) further mentioned that good quality was also an important attribute of local production. Local food was judged to be fresher due to short transportation distance and time (Chambers *et al.*, 2007).

The value-for-money segment is dominant when making local food purchases accounting for 62 percent people involved compared to health benefit segment (49 percent). It is noted that some ladders cannot be assigned to one of the two segments involved, accounting for 22 percent. Another important finding is that these two segments share general common codes, namely, “money for other things,” “time for other things” and “happiness.” “Money for other things” refers to money that can be used for basic needs, school fees, charity, traveling as a pilgrim to Mecca, as well as unexpected needs. Previous studies of food choices using MEC analysis reported a similar code to “money for other things,” namely, “save money, better economy, buy something else” (Grunert *et al.*, 2001) and “spend money on other things” (Lind, 2007). The coding of “time for other things” in this study is related to eating food associated with saving time, so that consumers have time to devote to other activities such as time for daily activities, family and social activities, as well as religious activities. It is generally understood that relationships within the family and neighborhood are a significant characteristic of traditional Indonesian values, which may

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correspond to how consumers spend their time on daily activities. Others reported the same consequences such as “time for other things” (Lind, 2007) and “can do alternative activities” (Roininen *et al.*, 2006). Some consumers felt a greater “sense of accomplishment” such as completing all housework and tasks, saving money for pensions and sending children to school for a better future through education when they have time to do other activities and can save some money. In addition, “happy” can be described as pleasant or emotional feelings or contentment with a representative phrase in laddering such as “happy or happiness” and is similar to the value used in MEC studies (e.g. Arsil *et al.*, 2016; Grunert *et al.*, 2001; Roininen *et al.*, 2006).

In conclusion, the motivation for purchasing local foods in Indonesia is different from those of people who are living in developed countries. People living in developed countries consider abstract attributes such as ecological components, life quality, living environment, enriching the local community and promoting social equity, in addition to value-for-money and health benefits motives (Bianchi and Mortimer, 2015; Feenstra, 1997; Hinrichs, 2000; Roininen *et al.*, 2006; Weatherell *et al.*, 2003). However, these abstract attributes might also be used in local food promotion to motivate urban consumers to consume more local food in Indonesia.

4.2 DSA approach

There was an important point to be underlined in the application of the DSA technique. Its advantage was the standardization of the process during the interpretation and segmenting of HVMs obtained from traditional laddering. The current study provides a comprehensive interpretation of the local food segments involved. In a previous study (i.e. Arsil, Li, Bruwer and Lyons, 2014), main pathways were selected subjectively that were based on the centrality index and how many times the links were mentioned by respondents. This might have resulted in a different number of main pathways between different researchers as it was subjective. The application of DSA makes it possible to construct more solid segments with one decision orientation that consists of one or more pathways completed with sensitivity analysis. The exact composition of a segment described by chain strength, number of codes in a cluster and number of clusters in the final solution combined with sensitivity analysis, called the percentage of the ladder (%L), is also presented. It is believed that the use of the DSA approach permits the identification of a stable segment solution in more complex HVMs. Another important issue identified during the process of DSA is that the composition of the decision cluster may have overlapping codes. For example, a short ladder that consists of attribute-consequence links could belong to different segments. In the current study, this ladder is categorized into a segment that has a higher attributes or consequences of the centrality index.

5. Conclusions

The DSA produced two stable segments, namely value-for-money and health benefits. This study confirms that the use of the DSA technique can help researchers to standardize the segmentation process of HVMs attained from using the laddering technique.

The information elicited from this study will have managerial implications in order to reinforce and attract local food consumers to consume more locally grown food through promotion and advertising. We recommend three ways to make local food more competitive. First, this study suggests the main drivers leading to purchase of more locally grown produce are price, food quality, saving money, money for other things, time for other things, sense of accomplishment and happiness. The producers, traders or government could promote local food through mass media by emphasizing these keywords and/or phrases. Abstract attributes might also be used in local food promotion by using slogan such as “local and fresh” or “buy local, save money and support local farmers.” Second, as this study

does not specify a particular product, all local produce should be equally promoted in this way. However, flagship local produce of particular geographical regions, such as provinces and regencies, needs to be identified in order to promote them to the markets and to establish a strong image of local food. Third, although consumer perceived local food as inexpensive products, the drivers identified from previous studies such as socio-demographics, product quality, stores to purchase and social influences could be taken into account to increase consumers' WTP.

The study has a limitation in generalizing the findings to all consumers in Indonesia. This study did not capture the different urban characteristics in Indonesia as only three urban cities were interviewed. In future, research could examine local food purchasing motives in different consumption situations and country environments.

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