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Nature-based entrepreneurship in private forests – The preconditions for the sustainable co-operation between private forest owners and entrepreneurs



Anne Matilainen
Merja Lähdesmäki

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Anne Matilainen
Merja Lähdesmäki

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Esipuhe

Luontomatkailu on jatkuvasti kasvava toimiala ja se tarjoaa uusia elinkeinovaihtoehtoja maaseudun perinteisten toimialojen, metsä- ja maatalouden rinnalle. Luontomatkailu on ollut viime vuosina yksi nopeimmin kasvavia matkailun osa-alueita ja kasvun on ennustettu jatkuvan vahvana myös tulevaisuudessa matkailijoiden arvostaessa yhä enemmän puhdasta luontoa, saasteettomuutta sekä turvallisuutta. Ala on myös hyvin työvoimavaltainen ja usein tulot jäävät suoraan maaseutualueille. Nämä seikat tekevät siitä erityisen kiinnostavan maaseudun kehittämistä ajatellen.

Luontomatkailun yksi selkeimpiä kehittämishaasteita on luontoresurssien ja matkailun liiketoimintaosaamisen yhdistäminen. Usein innovatiivisimmat ja menestyneimmät yritykset eivät toimi täysin omien maidensa varassa. Vastaavasti taas metsänomistajilla itsellään on harvoin kiinnostusta aloittaa luontomatkailuyritystoimintaa omalla maallaan puuntuotannon ollessa useimmiten keskeisin metsien käyttömuoto. Onkin tärkeää pohtia, miten yhteistyötä näiden tahojen välillä voitaisiin edistää molempia osapuolia hyödyttävällä tavalla. Käsillä oleva raportti pureutuu ongelmaan psykologisen omistajuuden käsitteen avulla. Psykologisella omistajuudella käsitetään niitä tunteita, asenteita sekä sosiaalisesti muodostuvia merkityksiä, joiden kautta syntyy omistamisen kokemus: ”minun metsäni”. Psykologista omistajuutta on tarkasteltu aiemmin lähinnä yrittäjyyskontekstissa. Raportti tuokin uuden kiinnostavan näkökulman niin metsänomistajuuden tutkimukseen kuin metsänomistajien ja luontomatkailuyrittäjien yhteistyösuhteen tarkasteluun.

Suuri kiitos raportin syntymisestä kuuluu ennen kaikkea tutkimukseen osallistuneille metsänomistajille ja yrittäjille. Ilman heidän erinomaista yhteistyötään olisi ollut mahdotonta päästä sisälle niin haasteelliseen ja monitahoiseen aiheeseen kuin psykologinen omistajuus. Heidän kommenttinsa ovat tuoneet runsaasti eväitä yhteistyön käytännön kehittämiseen eri tasoilla. Metsänomistajien ja yrittäjien kokemukset ja tulkinnat jokamiehen oikeuksien ja yritystoiminnan välisestä suhteesta tarjoavat myös hyviä näkökulmia jokamiehen oikeuksista käytävään yleiseen keskusteluun.

Raportin ovat laatineet MMM Anne Matilainen ja YTM, KTM Merja Lähdesmäki. Molemmat tutkijat ovat osallistuneet yhtäläillä tutkimuksen tekemiseen ja raportin kirjoittamiseen. Tutkimuksen teknisessä toteutuksessa avustivat julkaisusihteeri Jaana Huhtala ja ETK Hanna Kasari. Kiitos heille työpanoksesta. Kiitos kuuluu myös hankkeen referenssiryhmälle sekä kaikille tutkimuksen toteuttamisessa avustaneille henkilöille ja tahoille. Erityisesti tahomme kiittää KTL Marjo Siltaojaa ja projektipäällikkö, MMM Juha Rutasta asiantuntevista kommentteista. Tutkimusryhmän puolesta tahdon myös kiittää Maaseutupolitiikan yhteistyöryhmää tutkimuksen mahdollistaneesta rahoituksesta.

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Johtaja Sami Kurki

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Tiivistelmä

Luontoon pohjautuva yrittäjyys on kasvava toimiala. Se tarjoaa runsaasti elinkeinovaihtoehtoja maaseudun perinteisten toimialojen rinnalle. Esimerkkejä luontoyrittäjyydestä ovat muun muassa luontoalan matkailu-, käsityö- ja elintarvikeyrittäjyys. Luontomatkailuksi voidaan käsittää matkailu, jonka keskeiset toimintatekijät liittyvät luontoon. (Saarinen 2001). Se on ollut yksi nopeimmin kasvavia matkailun osa-alueita (Ryymän 2005) ja kasvun on ennustettu jatkuvan vahvana myös tulevaisuudessa matkailijoiden arvostaessa yhä enemmän puhdasta luontoa, saasteettomuutta sekä turvallisuutta (Ryymän 2006). Luonto ja ulkoilmaharrastukset ovat myös edelleen yksi Suomen tärkeimmistä vetovoimatekijöistä ulkomaa-laisten vapaa-ajanmatkailijoiden silmissä (Matkailun edistämiskeskus 2007). Laajemmassa mittakaavassa luontomatkailu on keskittynyt tietyille alueille muun muassa Lapissa ja Itä-Suomessa sekä Etelä-Suomen asutuskeskusten läheisyydessä (Ryymän 2006; Tyrväinen ja Sievänen 2007). Nämä samat alueet ovat usein myös virkistyskäyttäjien kiinnostuksen kohteena (Pouta ja Sievänen 2000).

Lisääntyvä virkistys- ja matkailukäyttö asettaa paineita näille, usein metsäisille, luontoalueille ja niiden käytölle. Joissakin tapauksissa matkailu kohdentuu valtion maa-alueille, mutta usein, etenkin Etelä- ja Keski-Suomen osalta myös yksityisille metsäalueille (Tyrväinen ja Sievänen 2007). Läheskään aina luontomatkailuyrittäjä ei omista maa-alueita, joiden käyttöön hänen toimintansa perustuu. Tällöin keskeiseksi toimintaa rajoittaviksi ja mahdollistaviksi lähtökohdiksi nousevat esille maaomistajuuteen liittyvät seikat; miten turvata luontoalan yrityksen toiminnan laatu ja jatkuvuus kun keskeinen tuotannontekijä on jonkun toisen omistuksessa. Luontoalan yritystoiminta ei kovinkaan usein perustu jokamiehenoikeuksiin toiminnan säännöllisyyden ja intensiteetin johdosta. Kuitenkin joissakin tapauksissa myös luontomatkailuyritystoiminta voidaan katsoa jokamiehenoikeuksien alla tapahtuvaksi, vaikka yleisesti suositellaankin lupakäytännöistä sopimista maanomistajan kanssa. (Lehtonen ym. 2007). Jokamiehenoikeuksien linjauksia ja rajanvetoa selvitetään parhaillaan esimerkiksi kansallisen Ulkoilufoorumin toimesta. Luontomatkailusektorille on kehitetty ja kehitetään parhaillaan työkaluksi myös erilaisia korvaus- ja sopimusjärjestelmiä useiden tahojen toimesta parantamaan yhteistyötä maanomistajien kanssa. Vaikka järjestelmät tarjoavat hyviä työkaluja sopimuksellisuuden pohjaksi, pääasiassa ne perustuvat ainoastaan maanomistajan mahdollisesti luontomatkailun takia menettämien tulojen (mm. puunmyyntitulot) korvaamiseen ja taloudellisen omistajuuden huomioimiseen.

On kuitenkin keskeistä tunnistaa, että myös monet muut omistajuuden ulottuvuudet, kuten erilaiset psykologiset ja sosiaaliset tekijät, nousevat varsin suureen rooliin kestävien yhteistyösuhteiden syntyemisessä. Metsänomistajuuteen liittyy usein monenlaisia tunteita, asenteita ja sosiaalisia merkityksiä, jotka vaikuttavat yhteistyön kehittymiseen, usein jopa enemmän kuin metsän käyttömuotoihin liittyvät arvostukset. On todettu, että yli puolella metsänomistajista päällimmäisinä metsään liittyvät jotkut muut kuin taloudelliset arvot, kuten esimerkiksi virkistysarvot (Karppinen ym. 2002). Suotuisa arvopohja monikäyttöä kohtaan ei kuitenkaan takaa onnistunutta yhteistyötä, jollei omistajuuden ulottuvuuksia huomioida tarpeeksi. Esimerkiksi jos yrittäjä aliarvioi omistajuuteen liittyvän kontrolli- ja tunne-elementin, voi yhteistyö kariutua samanlaisesta metsän käytön arvopohjasta huolimatta.

Tutkimuksen tavoitteena on tuottaa tietoa siitä, minkälainen rooli psykologisella omistajuudella on metsäkontekstissa ja miten se pitäisi huomioida yhteistyösuhteissa. Tutkimus keskittyy myös tuomaan esille, minkälaisia strategioita luontomatkailuyrittäjät ovat kehittäneet yhteistyösuhteen ylläpitoon ja miten psykologinen omistajuus on huomioitu näissä strategioissa. Lisäksi tutkimuksessa kehitetään psykologisen omistajuuden käsitettä käyttäen hyväksi onnistuneita käytäntöjä metsänomistajien ja luontoalan yrittäjien välisistä suhteista ruohonjuuritasolla.

Tutkimuksen keskeisenä teoreettisena työkaluna toimii omistajuuden käsite. Käsitteellisesti omistajuudessa on kyse tiettyjen oikeuksien ja velvollisuuksien määrittelemisestä ja tunnustamisesta (Grunebaum 1987). Metsänomistajuus määritellään yleensä juridisena ja taloudellisena ilmiönä – metsän omistaja on henkilö tai yhteisö, jolla on lain puitteissa määritelty oikeus hallita tiettyä metsäaluetta ja saada siitä taloudellista hyötyä. Laillinen omistajuus ymmärretään tavallisesti yhteisössä tehtynä institutionalisoituneena sosiaalisena sopimuksena kun taas talouden näkökulmasta tarkasteltuna omistajuus viittaa prosessiin, jonka tavoitteena on taloudellisen hyödyn tuottaminen (Nordqvist 2005). Juridisen ja taloudellisen näkökulman lisäksi omistamiseen kuuluu kuitenkin vahvasti myös psykologinen ulottuvuus (ks. esim. Pierce ym. 2001). Psykologinen omistajuusulottuvuus sisältää ne tavoitteet, päämäärät, sitoumukset ja velvollisuudet, jotka liittyvät henkilön omistuksen kohteeseen (Mattila & Ikävalko 2003). Psykologisessa omistajuudessa on kyse tunteista, asenteista sekä sosiaalisesti muodostuvista merkityksistä. Pierce ym. (2001) jakavat psykologisen omistajuuden kolmeen eri ulottuvuuteen, joiden kautta psykologisen omistajuuden tavoitteet ja päämäärät toteutuvat. Nämä kolme ulottuvuutta liittyvät kontrolliin (control), identiteettiin (self-identity) sekä oman paikan tarpeeseen (having a space). Kontrolliulottuvuuteen liittyy keskeisesti valta ja vastuu omistuksen kohteesta. Omistajuutta voidaan myös käyttää identiteetin määrittelyssä sekä sen ylläpidossa suhteessa muihin ihmisiin. Kolmas ulottuvuus, oman paikan omistaminen taas viittaa tunteeseen, että tämä paikka on minun ja liittyy sitä kautta hyvinvoinnin, mielihyvän ja turvallisuuden tunteisiin.

Psykologisen omistajuusnäkökulman mukaan metsänomistajuudessa voivat taloudellisten elementtien rinnalla vaikuttaa siis sellaiset tekijät kuin esimerkiksi valta, kontrolli, identiteetti, vastuu ja yhteenkuulumisen tunne. Nämä omistajuuteen liittyvät psykologiset tekijät vaikuttavat olennaisesti yksilön omistajuuskäyttäytymiseen, toisin sanoen siihen, miten omistajuus näkyy ihmisten välisessä vuorovaikutuksessa. Esimerkiksi kontrollipyrkimysten voimakas korostuminen saattaa tuoda omistajuuskäyttäytymiseen itsekkyuden ja ahneuden piirteitä, kun taas perinnön vaalimiseen liittyvät omistajuustunteet todennäköisesti tekevät omistajuuskäyttäytymisestä vastuullista. Useimmiten omistajuuskäyttäytymiseen vaikuttavat erilaiset kombinaatiot edellä esitetyistä ääritapauksista. Metsänomistajan ja luontoyrittäjän suhteen rakentumisessa on siten huomioitava sekä arvojen samankaltaisuus että metsänomistajan omistajuuteen vaikuttavat psykologiset tekijät.

Metsänomistajat muodostavat luontomatkailuyrityksen keskeisen sidosryhmän. Sidosryhmäajattelu tarjoaa siten tutkimukselle teoreettisen viitekehyksen, jossa psykologisen omistajuuden ilmenemistä tarkastellaan. Sidosryhmänäkemyksen taustalla on käsitys yrityksestä yksikkönä, jonka kautta eri tahot, yrityksen sidosryhmät, pyrkivät saavuttamaan erilaisia ja joskus keskenään ristiriitaisiakin tavoitteitaan ja joita yritys toisaalta tarvitsee turvatakseen oman olemassaolonsa edellytykset. Yrityksen on siten huomioitava liiketoiminnassaan useiden erilaisten sidosryhmiensä, esimerkiksi tässä tapauksessa metsänomistajien, vaateet ja odotukset. Luontoalan yrittäjän ja metsänomistajan välisessä suhteessa psykologisen omistajuuden huomiointi on yksi keskeinen osa luontoyritysten sidosryhmäjohtamista. Tässä tutkimuksessa väitämme, että se miten hyvin yritys onnistuu psykologisen omistajuusaspektin liittämisessä osaksi sidosryhmäjohtamista, on keskeinen elementti yhteistyösuhteen onnistumisessa ja sitä kautta myös koko yrityksen toimintaedellytysten turvaamisessa.

Tutkimus on luonteeltaan laadullinen ja sen aineisto koostui 10 luontoyrittäjän sekä 17 yksityisen metsänomistajan haastattelusta, jotka toteutettiin syksyn 2008 ja kevään 2009 välillä. Haastateltavat yritykset edustivat erilaisia luontomatkailumuotoja sekä sijaitsivat Keski-Pohjanmaan, Pirkanmaan, Kainuun, Keski-Suomen ja Pohjois-Savon maakunnissa. Kaikilla haastatelluilla yrityksillä oli yhteistyötä yksityisten maanomistajien kanssa. Haastatellut metsänomistajat puolestaan on jaettavissa kahteen luokkaan: niihin, jotka olivat luovuttaneet maa-alueitaan luontomatkailuyrittäjien käyttöön sekä niihin, joilta asiaa oli

kysytty, mutta jotka eivät olleet lähteneet mukaan yhteistyöhön syystä tai toisesta. Tavoitteena oli tuoda esille kattavasti näkemyksiä yhteistyöstä.

Tutkimusaineistossa psykologinen omistajuus näyttäytyi metsäkontekstissa pääasiassa identiteetti- ja kontrollielementtien kautta. Sen sijaan kolmas ulottuvuus, ”oman paikan omistaminen” ei tullut yhtä selkeästi esille aineistosta. Metsänomistajat eivät identifioineet itseään kuitenkaan ensisijaisesti metsänomistajiksi, vaan metsää käytettiin oman identiteetin rakentamiseen esimerkiksi sukuun tai vanhaan kotiseutuun liittyen. Etenkin perintömetsänomistamisen kautta metsänomistajat kokivat olevansa osa sukupolvien ketjua metsäalueen haltijoina. Taloudellista motiivia metsän omistamiselle korostettiin, mutta samalla pidettiin tärkeänä, että metsää hoidetaan siten, että se säilyy tuleville sukupolville, eikä varsinaisen metsämaan myymistä pidetty todennäköisenä.

Psykologisen omistajuuden ulottuvuuksista kontrolli nousi kaikkein vahvimmin esille aineistosta. Metsänomistajat kokivat, että heillä on, tai ainakin pitäisi olla korkein päätäntävalta metsäalueensa käytön suhteen ja tämän päätäntävällän kyseenalaistaminen nähtiin välittömänä rikkomuksena omistajuutta kohtaan. Samalla kuitenkin suurin osa metsänomistajista hyväksyi muun muassa jokamiehenoikeudet nykyisessä laajuudessaan, vaikka kokivatkin nykyihmisten olevan usein niistä tietämättömiä ja ylittävän monesti jokamiehenoikeuden rajat. He näkivät ihmisten kokevan metsäalueet usein ”yhteiseksi hyväksi”, jonka käytössä ei aina enää kunnioiteta metsänomistajan oikeuksia. Metsänomistajat ajattelivat, että heillä on alueen omistajina oikeus asettaa rajat metsän käytölle etenkin jokamiehenoikeuksien ”harmaalla alueella” omien arvojensa sekä mieltymyksiensä mukaan. Esimerkiksi se, kuinka lähellä metsänomistajan pihapiiriä on mahdollista kulkea jokamiehenoikeuksien perusteella tai mikä on kohtuuton haitta metsänomistajalle, vaihteli huomattavasti. Oli huomattavaa, että mikäli metsänomistajilla oli entuudestaan kokemuksia rikkomuksista omistajuuden kontrollielementtiä kohtaan, heillä tyypillisesti oli negatiivinen näkemys yhteistyöstä luontomatkailuyrittäjän kanssa jo etukäteen. Näin ajateltiin huolimatta siitä, että kontrollielementtiä olisi koettu rikottavan julkisen vallan eikä yksityisten toimijoiden kautta, esimerkiksi NATURA -ohjelman toimeenpanon yhteydessä.

Psykologisen omistajuuden ulottuvuuksia tarkasteltiin myös niiden seikkojen kautta, jolla tavoin metsänomistajat halusivat omistajuuttaan kunnioitettavan. Tavat yhdistettiin seitsemän käytännön tason teemaksi, joissa joko jokin tai kaikki kolme psykologisen omistajuuden ulottuvuutta tuli esille. Monet teemoista liittyvät sekä objektiiviseen (lailliseen) sekä psykologiseen omistajuuteen, sillä näiden erottaminen on monesti mahdotonta. Seuraavassa lyhyt kuvaus kustakin seitsemästä teemasta:

Metsäluonnolle aiheutuvan vahingon välttäminen: Suurin osa haastatelluista metsänomistajista korosti metsien taloudellista merkitystä. Tästä johtuen he myös luonnollisesti halusivat välttää kaikki potentiaaliset vahingot muun muassa puustolle. Vahingot nähtiin myös muina kuin taloudellisina. Esimerkiksi luonnon esteettisten tai ekologisten arvojen vaurioittaminen nähtiin yhtä lailla loukkauksena omistajuutta kohtaan. Vaikka metsän vaurioittaminen ja roskaaminen on laissakin kielletty, metsänomistajat eivät kuitenkaan korostaneet vastauksissaan rikkomuksia lakia vastaan. Heille toisen omaisuuden vähäininkin vaurioittaminen näyttäytyi välinpitämättömyytenä heidän omistusoikeuttaan kohtaan. Metsänomistajat näkivät identiteettinsä omistajina vaarantuvan samoin kuin heidän valtansa kontrolloida metsän käyttöä asetettiin kyseenalaiseksi.

Korvaus: Metsänomistajat antoivat pääsääntöisesti metsänsä luontomatkailuyrittäjän käyttöön nimellistä korvausta vastaan tai korvauksetta. Korvaus saattoi olla myös muussa muodossa kuin rahallisessa. Pienikin korvaus nähtiin kohteliaana eleenä, konkreettisena elementtinä siitä, että luontomatkailuyrittäjä ei ota yhteistyötä itsestään selvänä asiana, vaan huomioi metsänomistajan omistajuuden selkeästi. Jois-

sakin tapauksissa metsänomistajalle riitti korvaukseksi myös heidän hyväntahtoisuutensa huomioiminen, esimerkiksi vuosittaisen illallisen merkeissä, varsinaisen korvauksen sijaan.

Selkeä sopimus ja siihen sitoutuminen: Metsänomistajan ja luontomatkailuyrittäjän välinen sopimus metsän käytöstä on usein varsin epävirallinen ja usein suullinen. Sopimuksen rikkomukset olivat tyyppillisimmät syyt yhteistyösuhteen katkeamiselle. Esimerkiksi luontomatkailuyrittäjä saattoi laajentaa yksipuolisesti toimintaansa, vaikkakin kuinka pienesti tai alkaa sanella ehtoja muille metsäalueen käyttäjille. Tällöin yrittäjän nähtiin ottaneen ”oikeuden omiin käsiinsä” ja rikkovan metsänomistajan kontrollivaltaa vastaan. Metsänomistajat korostivat myös sopimuksen muotoa. Sen pitäisi olla tehty metsänomistajan ehdoilla ja olla mahdollisimman joustava muutoksille. Metsänomistajat halusivat pitää vahvasti kontrollin omasta metsästään käsissään, eivätkä tyyppillisesti kannattaneet esimerkiksi kovin pitkäaikaisia sopimuksia.

Luvan kysyminen: Metsänomistajien mukaan luvan kysyminen metsäalueen käyttöön liittyen on keskeinen osoitus kunnioituksesta heidän omistajuuttaan kohtaan. Lupa olisi syytä kysyä, vaikka toiminta periaatteessa tapahtuisi jokamiehenoikeuden turvin. Luvan kysyminen ei liittynyt pelkästään yhteistyösuhteen alkuvaiheeseen. Metsänomistajat arvostivat myös luvan kysymistä, mikäli yrittäjän aktiviteetteihin oli tulossa muutoksia.

Kommunikaatio: Metsänomistajat arvostivat avointa ja epämuodollista kommunikaatiota yrittäjän kanssa. Useinkaan he eivät nähneet tarpeelliseksi ilmoitusta kaikista käytännön pikkuseikoista, mutta arvostivat verrattain säännöllistä ”päivitystä” yrityksen toiminnasta. Kommunikaation pitäisi myös tapahtua hyvissä ajoin ennen tulossa olevia muutoksia, jolloin metsänomistajalla olisi mahdollisuus kunnolla reagoida asiaan tarvittaessa ja pitää kontrolli omissa käsissään.

Yrittäjän ammattitaito: Metsänomistajille oli tärkeää, että heidän maillaan toimivalla yrittäjällä oli hyvä imago ja toiminta oli kaikin puolin ammattitaitoista. Tämä lisäsi metsänomistajan luottamusta yrittäjää kohtaan ja sitä kautta mahdollisti kontrollin osittaisen luovuttamisen yrittäjälle. Metsänomistajat luottivat siihen, että ammattitaitoiset yrittäjät hoitivat alueen kunnolla sekä myös valvoivat sitä tarvittaessa. Näin metsänomistajat arvelivat välttyvänsä ikäviltä yllätyksiltä yhteistyössä.

Metsänomistajalle aiheutuvan haitan välttäminen: Yhtenä keskeisenä ehtona yhteistyön syntymiselle oli, ettei se saanut aiheuttaa kohtuuttomia haittoja metsänomistajalle, heidän määritelmänsä mukaan. Haittoja saattoivat olla hankaluudet metsänomistajan metsien käytölle ja muut haitat kuten melu, lisääntynyt liikenne metsätiellä sekä myös metsänomistajan asettaminen sosiaalisesti hankalaan tilanteeseen. Metsänomistajat eivät halunneet sallia sellaisia aktiviteetteja maillaan, joista potentiaalisesti esimerkiksi kyläläiset syyttäisivät heitä, vaikka muita varsinaisia haittoja itse metsänomistajalle ei ollut näköpiirissä. Haittojen välttäminen heijasti selkeästi metsänomistajan halua kontrolloida aktiviteetteja omalla maallaan.

Luontomatkailuyrittäjien yhteistyöstrategiat

Metsänomistajat muodostavat keskeisen sidosryhmän luontomatkailuyrittäjän toiminnalle. Heillä on hallussaan yksi keskeinen yrityksen tuotannontekijä. Yrityksen menestymisen ja jopa olemassa olon kannalta onkin keskeistä, miten yrittäjät ylläpitävät näitä yhteistyösuhteita. Tarkasteltaessa yrittäjien tapoja ylläpitää yhteistyötä, löydettiin neljä erilaista sidosryhmien hallintastrategiaa: ennakoiva (proactive), mukautuva (accommodation), välinpitämätön (defensive) ja yhteisöllinen (community) strategia.

Ennakoiva strategia

Ennakoivaa strategiaa käyttävät yrittäjät näkivät metsänomistajat yhtenä keskeisenä sidosryhmänä, joita kohdeltiin normaalina liikekumppanina. Yhteistyön lähtökohtana on, molemminpuolinen hyöty ja tämä taataan selkeillä sopimuksilla sekä korvauksilla. Tyypillistä tälle strategialle oli metsänomistajien tarpeiden ennakointi ja niiden aktiivinen huomiointi. Tämä edellyttää myös aktiivista kommunikaatiota yrittäjän ja metsänomistajan kanssa. Tässä tutkimuksessa ennakoivat yrittäjät olivat yleensä ammattimaisia ympäri vuoden toimivia yrityksiä, jotka myös työllistivät henkilökuntaa yrittäjän itsensä lisäksi. Tyypillistä oli myös yritysasiakkaiden suuri osuus yrityksen asiakaskunnasta.

Yrittäjät suosivat pitkäaikaisia kirjallisia sopimuksia, mutta heillä oli valmiina myös muita vaihtoehtoja, mikäli kirjallinen sopimus ei tuntunut olevan metsänomistajan mieleen. Monesti myös metsänomistajalle tuttuja paikallisia henkilöitä käytettiin välittäjinä yhteistyöneuvotteluissa. Yrittäjät myös tekivät paljon pr-työtä metsänomistajien suuntaan. Toisaalta taas ennakoivat yrittäjät pitivät kiinni omista oikeuksistaan yhteistyösuhteessa. He ymmärsivät yhteistyösuhteen olevan epäsymmetrinen metsänomistajan ollessa keskeinen resurssin haltija, jolle heidän toimintansa ei kuitenkaan ole keskeisin metsien tulonlähde. Yrittäjät pyrkivätkin aktiivisesti tasapainottamaan suhdetta.

Mukautuva strategia

Mukautuvassa strategiassa yrittäjillä oli selvästi vähemmän aktiivinen ote metsänomistajien sidosryhmäsuhteiden hoitamiseen. Vaikkakin metsänomistajat nähtiin keskeisenä sidosryhmänä, heidän vaatimuksiaan ei juuri ennakoitu, vaan niihin vastattiin ongelmien esiintyessä. Mukautuvaa strategiaa käyttävät yrittäjät pyrkivät kaikin keinoin välttämään ristiriitatilanteita metsänomistajan kanssa ja yhteistyö tapahtui täysin metsänomistajan ehdoilla. Mukautuvaa strategiaa käyttävien yritysten toiminta oli tyypillisesti pienimuotoista ja sesonkiluontoista. Myöskään yhteistyösuhteiden määrä metsänomistajien kanssa ei ollut kovin suuri.

Sidosryhmäjohtamisessa psykologisen omistajuuden huomiointi oli huomattavasti vähäisempää ennakoivaan strategiaan verrattuna. Siten sopimukset yrittäjien kanssa olivat usein epätarkkoja, ja kommunikointi metsänomistajan kanssa oli melko vähäistä, vaikkakin luvan kysymistä metsän käyttöön pidettiin tärkeänä. Niin ikään korvauksia metsän käytöstä ei yleensä maksettu. Myös nämä yrittäjät näkivät yhteistyösuhteen epäsymmetrisenä, mutta päinvastoin kuin ennakoivilla yrittäjillä heillä ei ollut tavoitetta sen tasapainottamiseen. Nykytilanne nähtiin itsestään selvänä ja mukautumisstrategiaa käyttävät yrittäjät luottivatkin suurella määrällä metsänomistajien hyvántahtoisuuteen.

Välinpitämätön strategia

Välinpitämätöntä strategiaa hyödyntävillä yrittäjillä oli hyvin passiivinen rooli yhteistyöhön metsänomistajien kanssa. Yrittäjät eivät tyypillisesti kommunikoineet metsänomistajien kanssa lainkaan, eivätkä kysyneet lupaa toimintaan vaan toimivat laajennettujen jokamiehenoikeuksien turvin. Yrittäjät tiedostivat metsänomistajien roolin keskeisenä sidosryhmänä ja konkreettisen mahdollisuuden kieltää toiminta metsässään. He olivat kuitenkin valmiit ottamaan tämän riskin, sillä heidän toimintansa oli tyypillisesti pienimuotoista, eikä kovin intensiivistä ja korvaavia metsäalueita oli helposti saatavilla.

Välinpitämätöntä strategiaa käyttävät yrittäjät olivat tasapainottaneet yhteistyösuhteen pienentämällä riippuvuuden metsänomistajayhteistyöstä olemattomiin. He tunnustivat metsänomistajien laillisuuden sidosryhmänä, mutta eivät nähneet heidän valtaansa sidosryhmänä keskeisenä omaa yritystoimintaansa ajatellen. Myöskään he eivät vastanneet mitenkään metsänomistajien vaatimuksiin.

Yhteisöllinen strategia

Yhteisöllistä strategiaa käyttävät yrittäjät näkivät metsänomistajat sidosryhmänä, mutta eivät kokeneet sillä olevan varsinaista valtaa vaikuttaa yrityksen toimintaan. Yrittäjät luottivat kyläyhteisön sosiaalisen paineen aiheuttavan sen, että metsänomistajat eivät aiheuta ongelmia niille harvoille elinkeinoille, joita kylällä on jäljellä. Metsänomistajien lupa toimintaan kysyttiin kuitenkin joka kerta ja yrittäjät tunnustivat metsänomistajien laillisen omistajuuden alueisiinsa. Yhteistyö oli tyypillisesti varsin epävirallista ja normaalin kylän sisäisen vastaavuoroisuuden katsottiin toimivan korvauksena alueiden käytöstä. Yrittäjät myös reagoivat nopeasti korjatakseen mahdolliset yhteistyössä esiin tulleet ongelmat ja tiesivät selkeästi, missä kulkevat rajat metsien hyväksikäytölle. Selkeänä erona mukautumisstrategiaan, yhteisöstrategiassa yrittäjät eivät olleet huolissaan metsänomistajien potentiaalisesti yritystoiminnalle aiheuttamista hankaluuksista. Usein yhteisöllistä strategiaa hyödyntävillä yrittäjillä oli keskeinen asema kyläyhteisössä. Voidaankin katsoa, että metsänomistajien omistajuuden kautta saama valta yhteistyösuhteessa tasapainotettiin yrittäjän sosiaalisella vallalla yhteisössä. Yhteisöllistä strategiaa käyttävät yritykset saattoivat olla toiminnassa ympäri vuoden ja toiminta niissä oli aktiivista.

Johtopäätökset

Tämän tutkimuksen tulosten perusteella voidaan todeta, että psykologisella omistajuudella on keskeinen rooli yksityisten metsänomistajien sekä luontomatkailuyrittäjien välisessä yhteistyössä ja sen vaikutus on syytä ottaa huomioon pitkäjänteisen yhteistyön takaamiseksi. Tutkimuksessa haastatellut metsänomistajat korostivat metsän taloudellista merkitystä, vaikka myös muut arvot nousivat esille. Metsänomistajat eivät tyypillisesti ole taloudellisesti riippuvaisia luontomatkailutoiminnasta maillaan, vaan se toimii usein lisänä tai jopa jonkinlaisena puuntuotannon vastakkaisena toimintana. Taloudellisesti kuitenkin sen arvo on vain murto-osa alueen potentiaalisesta puuntuotannon arvosta. Näin ollen metsänomistajat eivät ole millään lailla taloudellisesti riippuvaisia yhteistyöstä luontomatkailuyrittäjän kanssa. Yrittäjät taas päinvastoin ovat usein erittäin riippuvaisia käytettävissä olevasta, ehkä jopa ainutlaatuisesta, luontoresurssista. Tämä aiheuttaa yhteistyösuhteen olevan varsin asymmetrinen ja yhteistyön onnistuminen riippuu tyypillisesti monesta muusta seikasta kuin taloudellisen korvauksen suuruudesta. Metsänomistajat asettavat metsälleen hyvin erilaisia omistajuus- ja tunnearvoja, joissa psykologisen omistajuuden rooli on suuri. Näin ollen yhteistyötä ei voida suoraan verrata esimerkiksi yritysten välisiin yhteistyösuhteisiin. Tämä tulisi myös huomioida olemassa olevien korvausjärjestelmien käyttöönotossa ja kehittämisessä.

Asymmetria yhteistyösuhteissa asettaa yritykset hankalaan asemaan toiminnan pitkäjänteisen kehittämisen kannalta. Yrittäjät ovatkin kehittäneet erilaisia keinoja tasapainottaakseen yhteistyösuhdettaan metsänomistajien kanssa. Strategiat eroavat toisistaan sen perusteella, miten psykologinen omistajuus on niissä huomioitu. Ennakoivassa strategiassa yrittäjät hyödynsivät selkeitä sopimuksia ja korvauksia, joiden avulla yrittäjälle allokoitiin selkeitä oikeuksia alueen käytön suhteen. He myös ymmärsivät pr-työn arvon yhteistyösuhteen alkuvaiheessa sekä ylläpidossa. Lisäksi ennakoivaa strategiaa käyttävät yrittäjät peräänkuuluttivat yhteiskunnan taholta erilaisia keinoja (esim. tiehallinnossa käytettävät lunastukset), joiden avulla metsänomistajat olisi taivutettavissa yhteistyöhön, mikäli alueen elinkeinojen yleinen etu niin vaatisi. Välinpitämättömässä strategiassa suhde oli tasapainotettu kaventamalla yrittäjän riippuvuus yksittäisestä yhteistyösuhteesta mahdollisimman pieneksi. Yhteisöllisessä strategiassa suhde oli lähes tasapainotettu yrittäjän sosiaalisella asemalla kyläyhteisössä ja mukautuvassa strategiassa suhdetta ei puolestaan varsinaisesti edes yritetty tasapainottaa. On huomattava, että kaikissa strategioissa oli löydettävissä hyviä ja huonoja puolia yritystoiminnan kehittämisen kannalta ja kaikkien avulla voi ylläpitää menestyksellistä yritystoimintaa. Kuitenkin pitkän aikajänteiden toimintaa ja sen sosiaalista kestävyttä aja-

tellen ennakoivan strategian voidaan arvioida olevan yrittäjän kannalta vähemmän riskialtis kuin muiden strategioiden, vaikka se vaatiiikin selkeitä panostuksia yhteistyösuhteeseen. Mukautuvassa strategiassa yhteistyösuhteen hoitoon satsataan jonkin verran resursseja, mutta toiminta on silti metsänomistajan "hyväntahtoisuuden" varassa. Välinpitämättömässä tai yhteisöllisessä strategiassa yhteistyöhön ei tarvitse vastaavasti varata resursseja, mutta yhteistyö on muutoin epävakaalla pohjalla ja altis esimerkiksi muutoksille metsänomistajakunnassa.

Metsänomistajat arvostivat yhteistyöneuvotteluissa omistajuutensa kunnioittamista eri muodoissaan ja heille oli tärkeää kokea pitävänsä tilannetta hallinnassa, ilman että heidän asemaansa metsänomistajana asetetaan kyseenalaiseksi esimerkiksi yhteiskunnan, yrittäjän tai sosiaalisen ympäristön toimesta. Monesti omistajuuden kunnioittaminen oli jopa tärkeämpää kuin varsinainen rahallinen hyöty yhteistyöstä. Mikäli metsänomistajilla oli kokemuksia siitä, että heidän koetun omistajuutensa "yli oli kävelty", heillä oli tyypillisesti negatiivinen suhtautuminen kaikenlaiseen yhteistyöhön maillaan myös tulevaisuudessa. Tämä korostaa muun muassa erilaisten korvausjärjestelmien käyttöönoton huolellisen suunnittelun merkitystä.

Abstract

Nature-based tourism is one of the fastest growing tourism sectors at the moment. It is also the form of tourism that often benefits the economy of rural areas. In addition to state owned forests, nature-based tourism is in many countries situated in private forests, which are not owned by entrepreneurs themselves. Therefore, the ownership issues and property rights form central challenges for the business activities. The maintenance of good relationships between private forest owners and entrepreneurs, as well as combining their interests, becomes vital. These relationships are typically exceptionally asymmetrical, granting the forest owner unilateral rights regulating the business activities in their forests. Despite this, the co-operation is typically very informal and the existing economic compensation models do not necessarily cover all the forest owners' costs. The ownership issues bring their own characteristics to the relationship. Therefore, we argue that different aspects of ownership, especially psychological ones, have to be more critically examined and taken into consideration in order to build truly successful relations between these parties. This is crucial for sustaining the business activities.

The core of psychological ownership is the sense of possession. Psychological ownership can be defined as a state, in which individuals perceive the target of ownership, the object or idea, as "theirs". The concept of psychological ownership has so far been mainly used in the context of professional organizations. In this research, it has been used to explain the relationships between private forest owners and nature-based entrepreneurs. The aim of this study is to provide new information concerning the effect of psychological ownership on the collaboration and to highlight the good practices.

To address the complexity of the phenomenon, qualitative case study methods were adopted to understand the role of ownership at the level of subjective experience. The empirical data was based on 27 in-depth interviews with private forest owners and nature-based tourism entrepreneurs. The data was analysed by using the methods of qualitative analysis to construct different typologies to describe the essence of successful collaboration. As a result of the study, the special characteristics and the practical level expressions of the psychological ownership in the privately owned forest context were analysed. Four different strategies to perceive these ownership characteristics in co-operation relationships were found. By taking the psychological ownership into consideration via these strategies, the nature-based entrepreneurs aim to balance the co-operation relationship and minimise the risks in long term activities based on privately owned forests.

Key words: private forest owner, nature-based entrepreneurship, nature-based tourism, psychological ownership, stakeholder approach, qualitative study

Introduction

Nature-based tourism is a growing industry sector providing new sources of livelihood to the rural areas to diversify the traditional economics, namely agriculture and forestry. It can be broadly defined as tourism, with main activities related to nature (Saarinen 2001). At the moment it is one of the fastest growing tourism sectors world wide and the growth has been estimated to continue in near future with increasing respect for the pure and authentic nature by the consumers (Ryymän 2007, 2008). Furthermore, nature-based tourism is also the form of tourism providing benefits directly to the economy of remote rural areas. The income generating from nature tourism typically remains in the rural regions, the sector is labor intensive and usually requires strong local knowledge base (e.g. Saarinen 2003; Ympäristöministeriö 2002; Honkala 2001). These characteristics make it especially interesting concerning rural development.

In addition to state owned forests, nature-based tourism is concentrated in Finland on privately owned forest lands, which are not owned by the entrepreneurs themselves due to the requirement of wide forest areas for many nature tourism activities. In Finland 60% of forest land is owned by non-industrial private forest owners (Metinfo 2008). Most of these areas are located in southern, western and central Finland. Especially in southern part of Finland and around tourist attractions and tourist centres in other parts of the country the pressure to use privately owned forest areas for the recreational as well as for the nature tourism activities is high (Ryymän 2006; Tyrväinen & Sievänen 2007) and causing conflicts with landowners (e.g. Vuolle & Oittinen 1994). Even though the Everyman's Rights guarantee the public access to nature for all at some extent, especially concerning intensive business activities the forest owners have legal right to regulate the activities in their forests. According to Beaglehole (1932) and Furby (1978), possessions and feelings of ownership trigger a sense of responsibility for an entity and cause individuals to protect and defend their ownership rights (Van Dyne & Pierce 2004). This includes e.g. controlling or limiting access by others (Van Dyne & Pierce 2004). Therefore, the ownership issues and property rights provide essential challenges and possibilities for the business activity and development.

The forest owners possess a critical factor of production in nature-based tourism, without which in many cases the business activities could not continue fluently. They can be classified as very influential primary stakeholder group when nature-tourism enterprises are concerned. Therefore, the maintenance of a good relationship between a private forest owner and an entrepreneur, as well as combining their interests, becomes vital in order to successfully develop nature-based tourism activities. These relationships are typically exceptionally asymmetrical, granting the forest owner legal, mainly unilateral rights to regulate the business activities in their forest. Despite this, the co-operation is typically very informal and there is a lot of variation, how the stakeholder role of forest owners is recognised and taken into consideration by the nature-based entrepreneurs.

At the moment the economic compensation is not necessarily covering the all the costs of the forest owner and even when higher, it does not guarantee successful co-operation due to the complex values set to the forests by their owners. Because of various ownership values as well as traditions of relatively free access and utilisation possibilities of forests for all in Finland, the co-operation relationships cannot directly be compared with typical business relationships. Therefore, even though various compensation schemes to distribute the economic benefits of tourism activities have been developed (see e.g. MTK 2007; Temisevä et al. 2008), we argue that different aspects of the ownership, especially psychological and social ones, have to be more critically examined and taken into consideration in order to build truly successful and trustful relations between these parties.

The aim of this research is to use the concept of psychological ownership to *explain more in details the relationships between private forest owners and nature-based entrepreneurs* and to *provide practical solutions to develop the co-operation models further*. The concept of psychological ownership has so far been mainly used in the context of professional organizations (Mattila & Ikkävalko 2003) and extensive research in a variety of fields emphasizes the importance of ownership in influencing human attitudes, motivation and behaviour (Van Dyne & Pierce 2004). Even though the private non-industrial forest owners' values and motives for forest owning and their influence on the forest management decisions has been widely studied in Finland as well as in many other countries (see e.g. Karppinen 1998, 2000; Karppinen et al. 2002; Petäjäistö & Shelby 2007; Ní Dhubháin et al. 2007; Shelby et al. 2007), there is not extensive research focusing on psychological ownership and its influence on forest management or forest use alternatives.

In this study it will be evaluated, how psychological ownership appears, how it has and can be taken into consideration in stakeholder relations between forest owners and nature-based tourism entrepreneurs. The research also aims to study, how psychological ownership is seen in stakeholder management by the nature-based tourism entrepreneurs and what kind of practical level methods are developed in order to manage it. In addition to the development of nature-based tourism, the study also aims to contribute to secure the position of private forest owners by acknowledging forest owners' different ownership aspects in the relationship.

In this research the complex phenomena of psychological ownership in the private forest owning context is approached by using theme interviews. In total 17 private forest owners and 10 nature-based tourism entrepreneurs were interviewed in depth in order to study, how the forest owners perceive the forest owning and what kind of aspects of psychological ownership are related to it. The critical characteristics of psychological ownership and their influence on the co-operation with nature-based entrepreneurs are analysed. In addition, the entrepreneurs' stakeholder management strategies to perceive these ownership characteristics are analysed and practical implications to develop the co-operation as well as the tools promoting it are presented.

More in details, the research studies the subject by using the following research questions:

1. How the forest owners perceive the forest owning?
2. How these perceptions appear in the attitudes towards nature-based tourism?
3. What aspects of psychological ownership are critical in building trustful relationship between the forest owners and nature-based entrepreneurs?
4. What kind of experiences the nature-based entrepreneurs have on co-operation with the private forest owners?
5. How the trustful relationship can be improved in the co-operation between the forest owners and nature-based entrepreneurs?
6. What factors of psychological ownership should be taken in consideration in marketing and implementing the existing co-operation tools and compensation schemes?

This report is structured as follows. The following section describes the conceptual framework on nature-based entrepreneurship and forest ownership in Finland by presenting the legal ownership conditions and regulations of use of forests, values set to the forests by their owners based on the previous studies, the potential of nature-based tourism as source of rural livelihood, the importance of use of private

forests in its development and existing tools to enhance this co-operation. The third section discusses the theoretical premises of the concept of psychological ownership. This section is largely based on the research of Pierce et al. (2001; 2003), who had proposed a framework for studying psychological ownership by defining the reasons why psychological ownership exists as well as the routes through which an individual comes to experience ownership. The section aims to reflect this theoretical framework to the context of Finnish forest owners. The last section of theoretical framework presents the concept of stakeholder approach and the importance and the role of stakeholder management to the enterprises.

In the fourth section the methodological choices made in this study as well as the analysis of empirical data are presented. The results in the fifth section are described in 3 sub-chapters concentrating on I) expression of characteristics of psychological entrepreneurship in forest context (research questions 1), II) the critical aspects of psychological ownership in co-operation relationships with nature-based entrepreneurs and their acknowledgement based on forest owners' opinions (research questions 2–3 and 5) and III) the co-operation strategies developed by nature-based entrepreneurs for establishing and maintaining the co-operation and acknowledgement of critical aspects of psychological ownership in them (research questions 4–5). At the end the conclusions and practical implications are presented (research question 6).

Conceptual framework: forest ownership and nature-based entrepreneurship in Finland

Forest ownership and Everyman's Rights

Forest owners in Finland can be divided into three distinct groups: public, forest industry, and non-industrial private forest owners. This research focuses solely on the latter group of forest owners. Although there are several terms to refer to people, who have private property rights over forests, the term 'non-industrial private forest owner' is rather established in the field of forestry research (see e.g. Deane 2004). According to the definition of van der Ploeg & Wiersum (1996) and Deane (2004) the term 'non-industrial private forest owner' is sometimes used as a distinction from those forest owners who use their forests to support other agricultural activities to supplement income when needed. Here we do not, however, make this distinction but use the term in more general manner, referring to all the other forest owners except public or industrial owners. Thus, in this study, a forest owner can be an individual or group of individuals as jointly owning a forest.

Approximately 60 % of the Finnish forests are owned by private non-industrial forest owners. There are nearly 900,000 private, non-industrial forest owners, including those who share the ownership of a forest in one way or another. This adds up almost to one fifth of the total population (Metsätieto 2008). The profile of the Finnish forest owner has changed during the past decades (Karppinen et al. 2002). The amount of pensioners and paid employees living relatively far away from their forests is growing and the amount of farmers decreasing. The change is still ongoing. At the moment the pensioners are the biggest forest owner group (43%), followed by the paid employees (29%) (Ruohola et al. 2004). Most of the forest owners are still living in rural areas, even though the proportion of forest owners living in large towns is continually growing. In 2002, two thirds of the forest owners are still living in the same municipality, where their forests are located (Karppinen 2002). Typically the forest has been gained by heritage. Most of the private forests are located in the southern and western Finland (Figure 1), where also the most of the population of Finland is located (Figure 2). Especially in the southern part the pressure to use these forest areas for the recreational as well as for the nature tourism activities is high (Ryymin 2006; Tyrväinen & Sievänen 2007).

The forest owners have different objectives for their forests. Due to the socio-economical changes in the forest owner profile, these different objectives have become even more visible. The values of the forest owners influence strongly into their behaviour relating to the management of their forests (e.g. Karppinen 1998, 2000; Karppinen et al. 2002). Also the personal histories of the individuals affect the different kinds of objectives for the management and utilisation of the forests and the objectives are by no means homogenous (Petäjistö & Shelby 2007). According to Karppinen (2000) the forest owners can be divided into four different categories in relation to their objectives to their forest areas. These approaches are based on different types of personal values. Karppinen (ibid.) has distinguished four different groups: 1) "income mainly from forests", 2) "forest owners emphasising the economical security", 3) "recreational users" and 4) "forest owners with multiple objectives". The group 1 highlighted the forests as the source of livelihood and employment. Also the second group focused on the economic use of forests by bringing up especially the security the forest holdings bring to the personal economy as a "bank". The third group on the other hand can be seen having a hedonistic approach emphasising the esthetical and other immaterial values of the nature and rural regions. The fourth group, forest owners with multiple objectives represents the forest owners who highlight both material (economic) and immaterial values. According to Karppinen (1998) this fourth group covers 26 % of the forest owners, holding 33% of

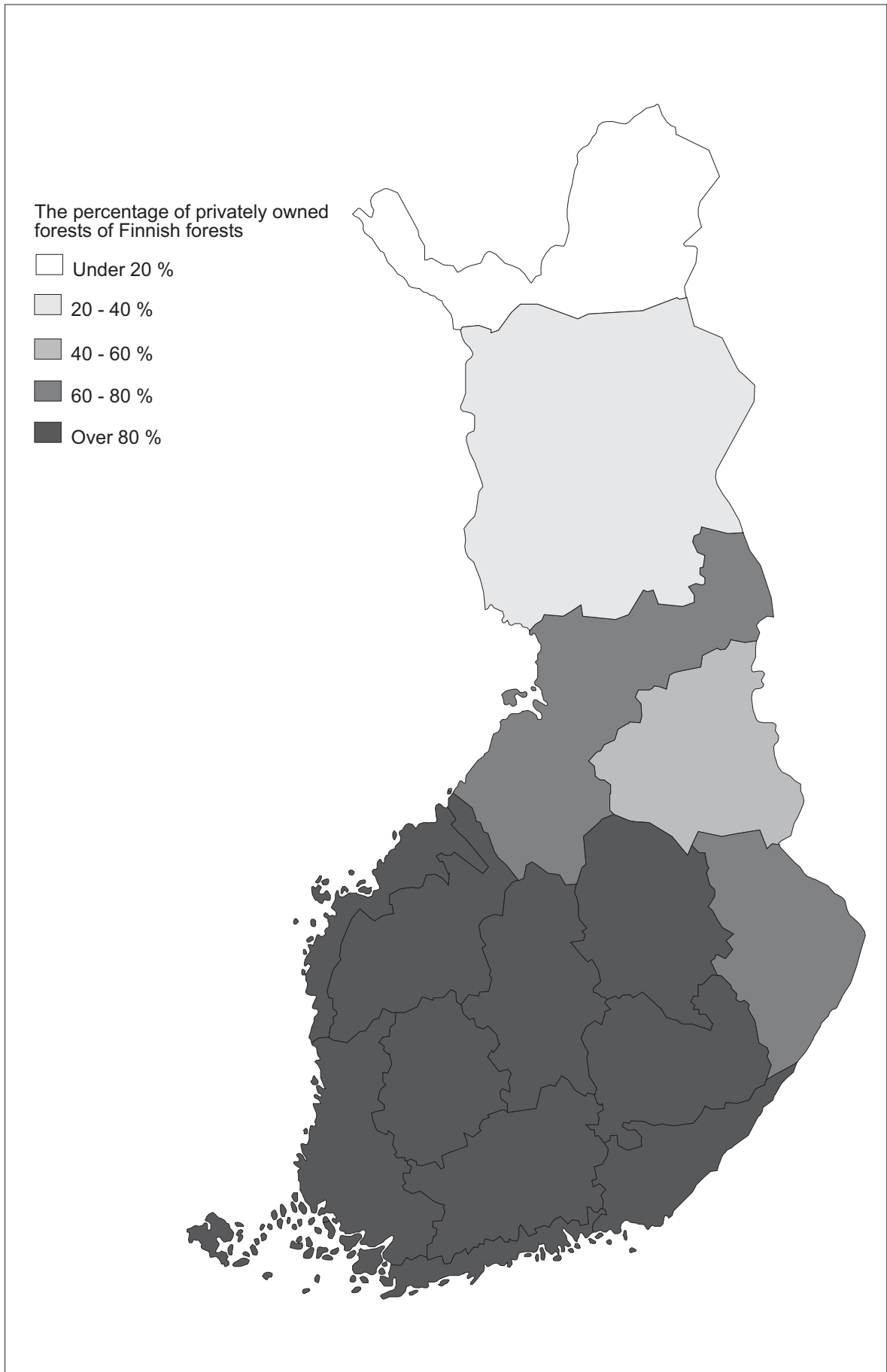


Figure 1. The proportion of private forest areas of the total forest area

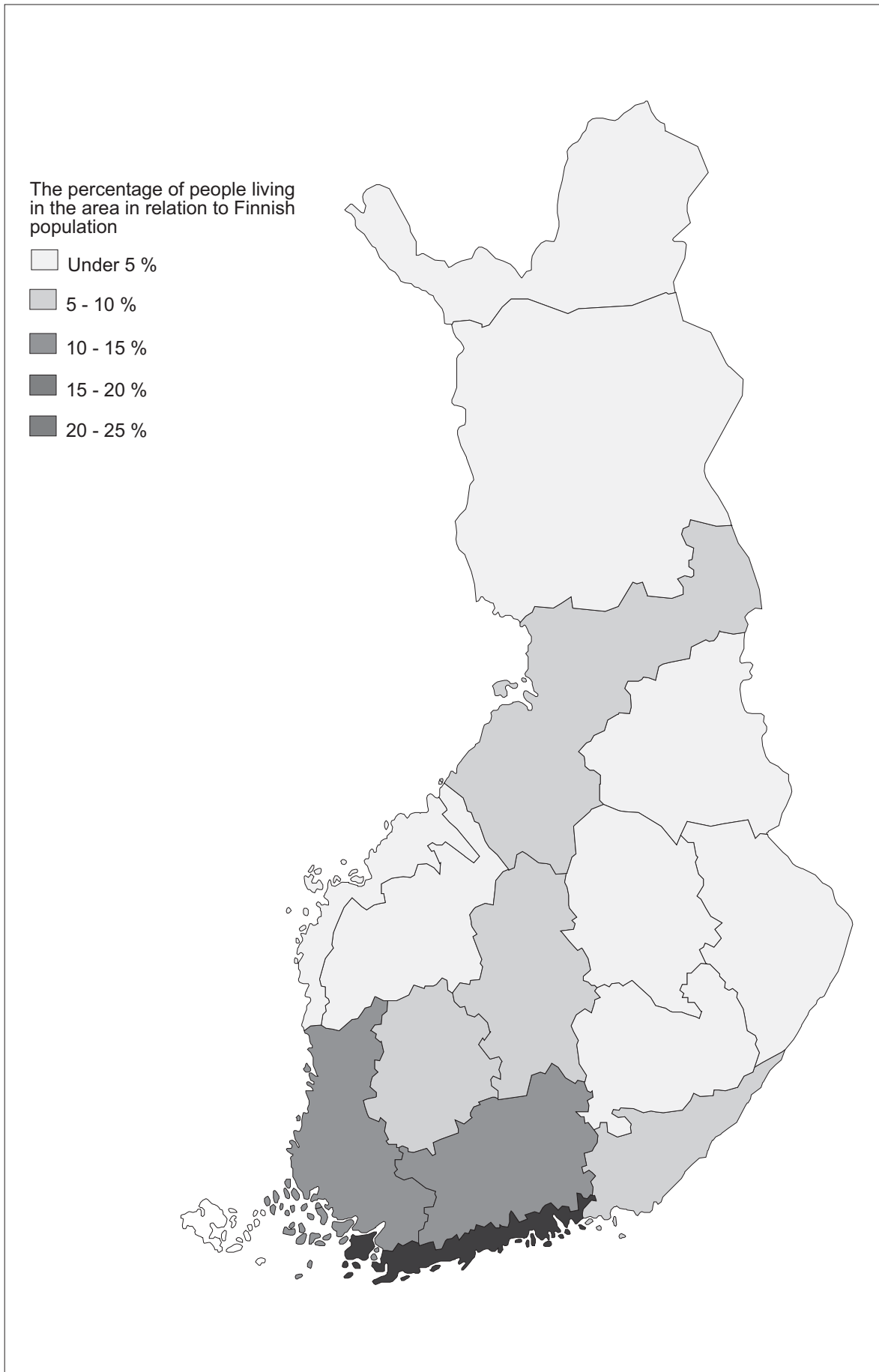


Figure 2. The population of Finland and its distribution

forest land area. It can be estimated that the proportion of the fourth group will increase in the future. Therefore, the role of other than purely economic values of forests will also increase, which might increase also the possibilities of nature tourism in private forests, when the pure economic issues do not solely dictate the use of the forests. However, according to Wigley and Sweeney (1993) one of the most important reasons for the forest owners to value their land, however, was pride-in-ownership.

Even though the legal ownership structure of the Finnish forests is in general very clear, there are legislation and regulations that set limitations on the forest owners' sole control over their forests. The forest law (Metsälaki 1996/1093) e.g. forbids the deforestation and requires obligatory reforestation after clear cutting. Also nature conservation legislation may set limitations to the use of private owned forests, regardless of the forest owners own willingness to protect the nature or endangered species. Concerning the recreational use of forests Everyman's Rights guarantees free public access to the forests regardless of the owner of the area. Everyman's Rights are an entity of possibilities and limitations related to the use of nature. They are based on the principle of public right of access to nature and on some laws and regulations related to use of nature. Everyman's Rights are a commonly agreed way of using nature. It is not an actual subjective right, because it has not been especially granted to anyone and there are no legal regulations to implement it. It can be called the "right of public use" (Laaksonen 1999). The roots of Everyman's Rights are in an ancient custom allowing free travel in roadless country, including the right to stay overnight and gather nourishment (Everyman's right in Finland). This custom also forms a large part of the current spirit of land and natural resource utilisation culture in Finland, even though it has been reformed since.

According to the Everyman's Rights hiking, biking or skiing in the nature and picking up natural flowers, berries and mushrooms are allowed, regardless of whom is the owner of the area. It is also allowed to ice fish, angle, boat, and swim freely. Enjoying the Everyman's Rights is free including foreign people and no permit from the landowner is needed. However, the Everyman's Rights do not allow causing any damage or disturbance in the nature nor unreasonable disadvantages to the forest owner. It is not allowed e.g. to kill or disturb animals, damage growing trees or collect moss, herbs or wood without the landowner's permission. It is also forbidden to make an open fire, to drive with motorized vehicle without permission or to disturb privacy by being too close to settlements. (e.g. Mäntymaa 1998; Laaksonen 1999; www.environment.fi 2009). In addition to not causing damage or disturbance, the Everyman's Rights are based on occasional, not regular use of forests.

Conducting nature-based tourism activities based on Everyman's Rights has been a grey area (see e.g. Viljanen & Rautiainen 2007) and different interest groups have their own interpretations on it (Lehtonen et al. 2007). Recently there have been attempts to clarify the regulation related to this and the Ministry of Environment is publishing a handbook for professional use of nature based on Everyman's Rights. The spirit of the new guidance is, that if the use of nature is not intensive (leaving significant visible marks to the forests) or is random, e.g. like in some cases of hiking activities, the landowners' permit is not required. However, in all other cases the permission is required. The interpretation of Everyman's Rights sets regulative framework, though at the moment still very much open to various interpretations, for the professional use of forests for nature tourism. However, the concept of unreasonable disadvantages is always very much disputable (see e.g. Lehtonen et al. 2007). Also the forest owner, if not accepting the nature tourism activities in his or her forests, can cause significant harm to the nature-tourism company's business and imago by disturbing the tourism activities e.g. by noise, blockades or arguments.

Due to the public requirements for the private forests, whether they are based on recreation activities (public access), nature conservation, climate change or securing the forest assets of Finland, the forest

owners do not have a sole control over their forest areas. Therefore, the ownership of forests cannot directly be compared e.g. to the ownership of cars or stocks. However, the feeling of ownership, i.e. psychological ownership, can and typically is very strong (Wigley & Sweeney 1993) and sometimes the forest owners might feel their ownership rights violated. To be able to avoid conflicts, it is very important to understand the role of psychological ownership in order to create and maintain fluent co-operation.

Nature-based tourism entrepreneurship

Nature-based entrepreneurship is a rapidly growing sector, basing the activities one way or another to the nature, in many cases forest nature. Nature-based entrepreneurship can be defined as sustainable entrepreneurship based on resources and experiences offered by nature (Rutanen & Luostarinen 2000). The typical examples of nature-based entrepreneurship are nature tourism, utilisation of wild berries, mushrooms or other ingredients of nature and recreational services. Nature-based entrepreneurship has been recognised as an important and potential source of livelihood for rural areas (e.g. Elinvoimainen maaseutu... 2004; KMO 2015) either as a form of a main business or as a secondary occupation.

One of the most potential sub-sectors of nature-based entrepreneurship is nature tourism. It can be seen as tourism where essential aspects are related to nature (Saarinen 2001). Nature tourism and recreation services are one of the fastest growing branches in the tourism sector at the moment. During 2003-2004 the turnover growth rate has exceeded up to 8.5 % concerning big safari enterprises and even up to 6 % for the smaller nature activity enterprises in Finland (Ryymin 2006). As typical rural enterprises, apart from skiing resorts and theme parks, nature tourism enterprises are usually microenterprises (Vail & Hultkrantz 2000; Ryymin 2008). It has been estimated that there are approximately 500-700 nature tourism enterprises in Finland employing effect including multiple effect being approximately 10 000 persons annually (Ryymin 2008). The multiple effects of nature-tourism are significant. It has been estimated that 2/3 of the income generated from nature tourism ends up to other businesses than nature tourism enterprises (Ministry of Environment 2002). Also the income originating from nature tourism remains typically well in the rural regions and the sector is labour intensive (see e.g. Saarinen 2003; Ministry of the Environment 2002; Honkala 2001). These characteristics make it especially attractive concerning rural development. The activities with the highest growing potential in nature tourism in the annual sector report have estimated to be snow mobile safaris, dog sledge and reindeer safaris, riding tours/safaris, fishing and canoeing, hiking and biking (Ryymin 2007). The Finnish tourism board (MEK) has highlighted as the most potential nature tourism products as summertime activities: wildlife watching, hiking and Nordic walking, biking, equine tourism and fishing and canoeing (Matkailun edistämiskeskus, Outdoors Finland -kesäaktiviteettien kehittämisohjelma) and as wintertime activities: skiing, snow mobile safaris, dog sledge and reindeer safaris, and other experiences based on nature and culture (MEK 2009 Talvimatkailustrategia). Most of these nature tourism activities require large forest areas and are delicate e.g. for extensive forest management activities, which highlight the co-operation with landowners and other land use.

Nature-based entrepreneurs operate either in their own land areas, on the public land or in private land owned by other landowners. According to Nousiainen and Tyrväinen (2002) four out of five nature-based tourism entrepreneurs used land areas not owned by themselves in their activities and half of them had faced property rights related problems. Typically the written agreements between nature-based entrepreneurs and land owners are made, even though the Everyman's Rights provide some possibilities to organise business activities freely in the land areas, regardless of the owner (Lehtonen et al. 2007). To be able to guarantee the successful business operations and quality of the products, close co-operation with the landowners is extremely vital (Weiss et al. 2007).

Existing compensation schemes

The co-operation relationships between the forest owners and various different utilisation forms of nature have been under vivid discussion recently. There are various existing guidelines and practises aiming to enhance the utilisation of other benefits than timber from the forest for commercial or recreational use. The schemes aiming to develop the landscape and recreational values can be seen important also concerning nature-based tourism development and their success could benefit the sector. The results of this study will bring more information on implementing and marketing these schemes for forest owners, and hopefully clarify and enhance operational environment of the nature-based tourism in Finland.

There are two main national compensation models based on co-operation between private actors and forest owners. These are called landscape renting model (*maisemanvuokrausmalli*) and recreational value trading (*virkestysarvokauppa*). The aim of landscape renting model is to provide a tool to sustain and improve landscapes, which requires co-operation between several landowners. Metsäkeskus Tapio launched it in 2008 and it is based on the principle that one or several landowners can make a joint agreement, in which they agree on limiting their own use of the area in question, so that the larger landscape will be kept attractive. The “buyer”, however, do not have any usage right for the area, just the benefits of the landscape as such. The “buyer” can be any private or public actor, interested in sustaining attractive landscape e.g. a tourism entrepreneur network, a village association or even a private company.

Recreational value trading on the other hand focuses in addition to the attractive landscape on enhancing the utilization of recreational values of the area and allocating the benefits based on them to the landowners. The Central Union of Agricultural Producers and Forest Owners (*Maa-ja metsätaloustuottajain Keskusliitto*, MTK) launched it in 2007 by using the same principle than is used in landscape renting model. The calculative system varies a bit from the landscape renting model though. The agreement includes the activities outside of the Everyman’s Rights and it should not limit the usage of them for other forest users.

In addition to landscape renting model and recreational value trading there are compensation schemes aiming for safeguarding the ecological diversity of nature. The “buyer” in these schemes is, however, often some public actor or authority. One and probably the most significant of these is Voluntary biodiversity protection tool (*luonnonarvokauppa*). In this system the landowner agrees to enhance the biodiversity in his/her land areas and will get compensation of it from the “buyer of the biodiversity values”, mainly the state or forest conservation association (Syrjänen et al. 2006). The agreements are drafted based on the needs of both the “buyer” and the “seller” (Temisevä et al. 2008) and the method and resources for it has been included to the so called METSO-programme (*Etelä-Suomen metsien monimuotoisuusohjelma*). The voluntary biodiversity protection can, however, have a significant role in nature-tourism, even though the agreement is made between a landowner and a public actor rather than a private entrepreneur and the main aim is to protect biodiversity. As such it can also cause limitations to the use of the land area in question for tourism activities. Nevertheless, in its implementation also psychological ownership can play a significant role. Another method used in METSO-programme is a competitive bidding. It is based on open calls published by different authorities on certain type of ecosystem of biodiversity value and the landowners can offer their forests to be taken in the programme against compensation.

In addition to these national level compensation schemes, several guidelines, agreement templates and handbooks have been made in various projects and other initiatives in order to establish systematic agreement and compensation procedure between the landowner and the user of the areas. These have

been created for different types of nature tourism and recreation activities or for certain geographical regions. These all base more or less on the monetary compensation covering at least partly the loss of income of the land owner. However, the implementation especially of the national schemes has been relatively slow and there are not very much practical examples of landscape renting model or recreational value trading. The models have raised interest among the forest owners, but the negotiations have not been realized yet. As one reason has been mentioned that common agreement practices are not yet established and each agreement is too much case-specific (Temisevä et al. 2008), which has delayed the implementation. Nevertheless, in implementing these compensation schemes in addition to technicalities of the agreements, it is also very important to recognize the complexity of values the forest owners set to their forest areas and their influence on the willingness for the co-operation. The compensation is not always the only or the critical factor in establishing or even more in maintaining successful co-operation. One critique towards the current compensation schemes has been sustainability of these agreements in the long run (Temisevä et al. 2008). To enhance this aspect, the stakeholder management of forest owners must be properly conducted, which entails that it is very important that already in formulating the agreements, templates and practices, the psychological ownership values are better taken into consideration.

Theoretical framework of the study

The theoretical framework of this study combines two broader concepts, namely psychological ownership and stakeholder approach. Non-private forest owners constitute an essential group of stakeholders for the nature-based tourism enterprises, since they possess a critical factor of production, without which in many cases the business activities could not continue fluently. Therefore, in this study, the stakeholder approach is considered as a practical theoretical framework to examine the manifestation and essence of psychological ownership in the relationship between the forest owners and nature-based entrepreneurs. In this chapter, we first introduce the theoretical premises of the concept of psychological ownership and apply them to the context of forest ownership to the appropriate extent. After this, the main ideas of the stakeholder approach are discussed.

Psychological ownership

In this research, the relationship between a forest owner and a nature-based entrepreneur is studied from the perspective of ownership. Generally speaking, ownership is about possessiveness and about rights and responsibilities towards what is (felt being) possessed (Hall 2005 cit. Dittmar 1992 and Pierce et al. 2001). According to Grunebaum (1987), ownership refers to the relationship between human beings and things and objects surrounding them. Although often related to a legal regime, ownership should be understood as a more complex and multidimensional concept with certain psychological aspects. Etzioni (1991), for example, states that ownership is a "dual creation, part attitude, part object, part in the mind, part 'real'". The "real", objective ownership, is related to economic or legal reality, while psychological ownership is related to the feeling "it is mine" (Pierce & Rogers 2004). Pierce et al. (1991) have defined three fundamental rights that accompany the ownership as an objective state. These are a right to some share of the owned object's physical being and/or financial value, a right to information on the status of that which is owned and a right to exercise influence (control) over that which is owned. Thus, even though legal and psychological views on ownership sometimes overlap, there are significant differences between these two phenomena. Objective ownership is recognized foremost by society and the rights that come with ownership are specified and protected by the legal system, while psychological ownership is recognised foremost by an individual, who holds that feeling and also manifests the felt rights associated with psychological ownership. Similarly, the responsibilities associated with legal and psychological ownership differ. The responsibilities that come with legal ownership are often an outgrowth of the legal system, whereas those associated with the psychological state stem from the individual, that is, from his or her feelings of being responsible. (Pierce et al. 2003, 87).

The core of psychological ownership is the sense of possession. Psychological ownership can be defined as the state in which individuals perceive as though the target of ownership, an object, entity or idea, is "theirs" (Furby 1978; Mattila & Ikkävalko 2003; Pierce et al. 2003). It thus reflects a relationship between individual and an object (in this research between a forest owner and a forest) in which the object is experienced as having a close connection with the self (Mattila & Ikkävalko 2003). Psychological ownership is an attitude with both affective and cognitive elements (Pierce et al. 2001). In other words, it reflects an individual's thoughts and beliefs, like ambitions, motivations and commitment regarding the target of ownership (see Mattila & Ikkävalko 2003; Pierce et al. 2003). Thus, psychological ownership is also associated with certain rights and responsibilities in relation to the target in question, such as right to get information about it and right to have a say in decisions affecting it (Hall 2005, 3). It should be further noticed that although all the forest owners in this research are legal owners of their forests, psycho-

logical ownership can also exist in the absence of legal ownership. Similarly, people can legally own an object yet never claim the possession of it as their own (Pierce et al. 2003).

According to Pierce et al. (2003, 88-91), the previous literature shows that the emergence of psychological ownership is related to the fulfilment of both generic and socially generated motives of human beings. More specifically, they divided these motives into three different categories, namely 1) efficacy and effectance, 2) self-identity and 3) 'having a place'. The first motive, efficacy and effectance, relates to the feelings of control. The possibility of being in control, being able to do something in regard to the environment and to be able to gain the desirable outcome of actions are important factors in creating psychological ownership (Ikävalko et al. 2006). In addition to serving an instrumental function of efficacy and effectance, psychological ownership stems also from the expressions of self-identity. In other words, people use ownership for defining and expressing their self-identity to others as well as maintaining the continuity of self-identity. Bliss and Martin (1989), for example, have found out that forest contributes to the identity of the family that owns it. Similarly, the childhood experiences with forest management are seen to induce the development of strong habitus and values hereby shaping forest identity. Also forest work/management (related to the idea of self-investment) is shown to contribute to one's sense of self (Bliss & Martin 1989). Thirdly, the motive 'having a place' arises from the need to possess a certain space. Each of the motives described above facilitates the development of psychological ownership, though there is no direct causal relation between the motives and psychological ownership.

After discussing *why* the state of psychological ownership exists, it can be also discussed on the question of *how* people come to feel psychological ownership. The emergence of the feeling of psychological ownership is often a long process. There are different routes through which people come to experience psychological ownership. Pierce et al. (2001) identified three potentially interrelated routes, namely controlling the target, becoming intimately to know the target and investigating self into the target. First, being control over an object creates the feelings of ownership. In other words, the greater the amount of control a person can exercise over certain objects, the more they will be psychologically experienced as part of the self (Pierce et al. 2003 cit. Furby 1978). Exercise of control becomes concrete by having the access to use the object. Second, the more information and better knowledge an individual has over the object, the deeper is the relationship between self and the object, and hence, the stronger is the feeling of ownership towards it. And finally, investment of the self allows individuals to see their reflection on the target and to feel their own effort in its existence (Pierce et al. 2003). Thus, the investment of individual energy, time, effort and attention into objects causes the self to become one with the object and develop feelings of psychological ownership towards it (Ikävalko et al. 2006).

Each route can enforce any motive of psychological ownership. These routes are distinct, complementary, and additive in nature. Any single route can still result in the feelings of ownership independent of each other. However, the feelings of ownership for a particular target will be stronger when an individual arrives at this state as a result of multiple routes rather than just one route (Pierce et al. 2003, 95-96). For example, the more someone invests personal values, time and energy in a target the more intimate the knowledge of it, the more it becomes a representation of the self, the stronger impetus for control, the more time invested etc., and the stronger the psychological ownership felt towards it (Hall 2005, 5). Although there is no clarity whether some routes are more effective in generating psychological ownership than the other, Pierce et al. (2003) speculate, however, that the routes of control and investing self in the target have the potential to be the most effective.

Pierce et al. (2003, 94) argue that the degree to which an individual will actually develop the feelings of ownership for a target will be affected by specific target attributes that influence (a) the potential of the target to satisfy the three motives of psychological ownership and (b) the capacity of the target to facilitate or impede the routes through which the feelings of ownership emerge. Thus in general, targets with attributes that can satisfy the motives of efficacy and effectance, self-identity, or having a place and can facilitate the three above mentioned routes are good candidates for psychological ownership. Therefore, the different ways to become an owner of a forest, for example, to buy a forest for investment reasons or to inherit one, might have certain effect on the aspects of psychological ownership since the forest in these cases can satisfy different kinds of motives. Although, there is no research focused on these differences, it has been shown that the importance of the forest as a legacy increases the stability of ownership, and it is more important to the owners who themselves inherited the forest. They perceive it as a legacy that they borrow from coming generations (see e.g. Bliss & Martin 1989). Similarly, Boon and Meilby (2004) have stated that the perceived importance of one's identity as a forest owner is likely to be high for owners, who have inherited the forest or bought it from family/friends (as opposed to having acquired the forest through a spouse or at the open market). It should be noticed though, that psychological ownership is a context-bounded phenomenon. Thus different individual as well as structural (e.g. laws and norms) and cultural factors have also an effect on psychological ownership (Pierce et al. 2003). Hence, ownership as a phenomenon is closely linked to human action in a social context (Mattila & Ikävalko 2003).

In this study, all the forest owners are legal owners of forests, which can further facilitate the feelings of psychological ownership. Thus, legal ownership provides the right to control or change the target more or less at one's one will, the right to explore and come to intimately know the target, and the right to invest the self in the target. (Pierce et al. 2003). In the context of forest owning in Finland, there are several regulations and laws that have effect on the forest owners' right to control their forest areas. For example the forest law (already from 1928) requires that after clear cutting the owner must safeguard the establishment of new forest stand within five years by planting new seedlings or enhancing the natural regeneration. Furthermore, the forest law legislates the forest owner to protect certain valuable nature habitats (Metsäläki 1996/1093). Even though the forest owner can claim for certain subvention against the lost timber incomes, they do not have a direct right to decide, which natural habitats will be protected. Concerning the utilisation of non-wood forest products and services and recreation, traditionally Everyman's Rights have bestowed everyone wide possibilities to use nature regardless of the owner of the forest area as a "right of public use" (Laaksonen 1999). In addition several conservation regulations and environmental legislation limit the forest owners' exclusive right to control their forests. Forests as a resource form so called common pool regarding on several assets like biodiversity, carbon sequestration or recreational services (Bouriaud & Schmithüsen 2005). Especially in the case of small-scale forestry, a complex mixture of these aspirations can lead institutional situations where sometimes the role of ownership is minimized (Bouriaud 2007).

This has naturally effects on the psychological ownership of the forest owner. The regulations on regenerating the new stands or Everyman's Rights date long back to history and the current forest owners have not protested very strongly against them as limiting their forest utilisation possibilities (Viljanen & Rautiainen 2007). However, the updated environmental legislation, partly generated from the EU membership, has caused some storm of protests among the forest owners and their associations. With the increasing recreational use of nature and rapidly growing nature tourism sector, there has also been a lot of discussion on the limits of very generally described Everyman's Rights, since it has been a bit unclear, e.g. whether the entrepreneur requires permits from the landowner for very small scale nature tourism activities, or how much recreational use of land can be limited by the forest owner.

The feelings of ownership toward various objects have important and potentially strong, positive and negative, behavioural effects. Psychological ownership is positively associated with behaviour that contributes to the community's well-being, is voluntary, and is intended to be positive in nature as well as the willingness to assume personal risks or sacrifices. Furthermore, psychological ownership for a particular target may also promote the feelings of responsibility. When individual's sense of self is closely linked to the target, a desire to maintain, protect, or enhance that identity will result in an enhanced sense of responsibility. (Pierce et al. 2003, 100-101). It should be noticed though that psychological ownership can entail certain negative behavioral effects too, which are related to individuals' unwillingness to share the target of ownership with others or their need to retain exclusive control over it. Such behaviour is likely to impede cooperation between people. (Pierce et al. 2003). Furthermore, there are times when the feelings of ownership can lead an individual to feel overwhelmed by the burden of responsibility. In addition, when people witness radical alteration in targets that they perceive as theirs, they may come to feel personal loss, frustration, and stress. These effects find their origin in the lack of control over what once was theirs. (Pierce et al. 2003).

Furthermore, individuals may be positively oriented to some types of change and negatively disposed to other types according to the strength of their feelings of ownership for the target of change. They are likely to promote the change in a target, towards which they feel ownership, when the change is self-initiated (because it reinforces their need to control and efficacy), evolutionary (because it tends to promote their sense of self-continuity), or additive (because it contributes to their need for control, self-enhancement, and feelings of personal efficacy). On the other hand, they are likely to resist the change in a target of psychological ownership, when the change is imposed (because it is seen as threatening their sense of control), revolutionary (because it is a threat to self-continuity), or subtractive (because it takes away or diminishes the core of that to which they have attached themselves) in nature. (Pierce et al. 2003, 102). The establishment of collaboration with a nature-based entrepreneur always represents a change in the psychological forest ownership. Thus, we argue that the ways the collaboration is managed is indeed of utmost importance for the sustainability and success of the relationship between a nature-based entrepreneur and a forest owner. This calls excellent stakeholder management skills from the nature-based entrepreneurs.

The role of stakeholder management in forming successful co-operation

In their operational environment nature-based tourism enterprises have different kind of stakeholder groups influencing their scope of action. The core emphasis of the stakeholder approach is on the importance of interaction between a business and those parties intertwined in its operation. The stakeholder approach describes a business as an organizational entity through which numerous and diverse participants can try to accomplish multiple, and sometimes contradictory, purposes (Donaldson & Preston 1995, 70). According to this view, sustainable business behavior requires that a business takes into the consideration different expectations and claims of stakeholders in its decision-making, since a firm can only exist through the interaction, transactions and exchange carried on with its stakeholders (Näsi 1995).

According to Freeman's (1984) well-known definition a stakeholder can be counted as being virtually any person or group, who can affect or is affected by the operation of the business. Thus, stakeholders are usually considered to include variety of groups such as shareholders, employees, suppliers, customers, competitors, local communities and so on (e.g. Goodpaster 1998; Carroll 1989; Clarkson 1995; Mitchell et al. 1997). Stakeholders can be divided into "primary stakeholders" who typically have formal, official

or contractual relationship with a company and to “secondary stakeholders” who represent the rest of interest groups in the business environment (Carroll 1989; Näsi 1995). A primary stakeholder group is one without whose continuing participation the business cannot survive, because of the high level of interdependence between these two parties. Stakeholders can thus relate directly to company's product or service provision, like private forest owners in this study for example by owning the forest areas where business activities take place. Secondary stakeholder groups, on the other hand, are not engaged in transactions with the business and not essential for its survival (Clarkson 1995). Although a business is not directly dependent on secondary stakeholder groups, they can nevertheless cause significant damage to it. The survival and success of a business depend upon the ability of its managers to create sufficient wealth, value, or satisfaction for its stakeholders, so that they continue as a part of the business' stakeholder system (see e.g. Clarkson 1995; Besser 1999).

The influence the stakeholders have on company's activities can be direct or indirect. If the company's dependence on the stakeholders' resource, for example in case of nature tourism and forest land, is high, direct influence mechanisms are more likely used in the co-operation and interactions between the company and stakeholders. In cases when the dependence is low and stakeholders do not control the critical resources for company's operations, the indirect influence methods via other stakeholders are used (Frooman 1999; Sharma & Henriques 2005). Furthermore, the stakeholder groups are unique for each company and its actions based on e.g. the location, line of business, networks and customer base. Therefore, in practice businesses operate in complicated stakeholder networks, i.e. businesses have to response to the interaction of multiple influences from the entire stakeholder set. In fact, it should be noticed that stakeholder relationships do not occur in a vacuum of dyadic ties, but rather in a network of influences and therefore a firm's stakeholders are likely to have direct relationships also with one another (Rowley 1997).

In many cases it is impossible to fully satisfy all the stakeholder groups. Therefore, it is important to find the critical stakeholders for each case, whether they are primary or secondary stakeholders (Bryson 2003). Several different kind of stakeholder analyses and mapping practices have been developed to locate the most critical stakeholders for different processes and activities (e.g. Bryson 2003; Bourne & Walker 2005; Cleland 1999; Neville & Menguc 2006). A popular and widely applied example of stakeholder identification is the one suggested by Mitchell et al. (1997). According to them, different kind of stakeholders can be identified by their possession of one, two, or all three of the following attributes: the stakeholder's *power* to influence the firm, the *legitimacy* of the stakeholder's claim on the firm, and the *urgency* of the stakeholder's claim. In line with Etzioni (1964) a stakeholder is considered to have power to the extent it has or can gain access to coercive (based on physical resources of force, violence or restraint), utilitarian (based on material or financial resources), or normative (based on symbolic resources) means in order to impose its will in the relationship (Mitchell et al. 1997, 865). Legitimacy, on the other hand, has been defined as the generalized perception that the actions of an entity are desirable or appropriate within some socially constructed system of norms, values, beliefs, and definitions (Suchman 1995). Although these two notions are sometimes coupled in different stakeholder definitions, powerful stakeholders are not necessarily legitimate, neither does the legitimate stakeholders have necessary power over the business. Finally, stakeholder urgency can be defined as the stakeholder's claim for immediate attention. It is based on the ideas of time sensitivity and criticality (Mitchell et al. 1997).

According to Näsi (1995) in the long run the company must operate in such a way that the stakeholder groups are satisfied: *“The more dissatisfied the main stakeholders are, the more certain is that the company's activities will cease”*. Bryson (2003) also highlights that it is important to find ways to satisfy the critical stakeholders at least minimally according to their own criteria for satisfaction. This brings out

the need for entrepreneurs to be able to understand and manage the stakeholder's point of view, not only their own agenda. Sometimes the stakeholders' primary agenda is difficult to identify. The failure to understand often the unforeseen hidden power and influence of stakeholders has led to countless project and business failures (Bourne & Walker 2005; Nutt 2002). One typical example of stakeholder's significant role are planning and decision making processes of the utilization of nature resources (see e.g. Rannikko 2000; Sharma & Henriques 2005; Bisi & Kurki 2008).

Similar to the variety of stakeholders and their expectations and claims over a business, the strategies a business can use to manage their stakeholder relationships vary considerably. Introduced by Carroll (1979) and modified by Wartick and Cochran (1985), one of the most accepted categorization of different stakeholder management strategies includes reactive, defensive, accommodative, and proactive strategies. According to these scholars, proactivity involves extensive addressing of stakeholder's issues, including anticipating and actively focusing on specific concerns or leading an industry effort to do so. Relative to proactivity, the strategy of accommodation is a less active approach in dealing with stakeholder's issues. The defensive strategy involves doing only the minimum legally required concerning stakeholder's issues. The strategy of reaction, on the other hand, involves either fighting against addressing a stakeholder's issues or completely withdrawing and ignoring the stakeholder. (Jawahar & McLaughlin 2001, 400). Clarkson (1995) extended this typology to develop an RDAP (Reactive, Defensive, Accommodative, Proactive) scale to measure a business' approach to social issues (see table 1).

Table 1. *The Reactive-Defensive-Accommodative-Proactive (RDAP) scale (Clarkson 1995, 109)*

Rating	Strategy	Performance
1. Reactive	Deny responsibility	Doing less than required
2. Defensive	Admit responsibility but fight it	Doing the least that is required
3. Accommodative	Accept responsibility	Doing all that is required
4. Proactive	Anticipate responsibility	Doing more than is required

Research design

All social research involves, explicitly or implicitly, metatheoretical assumptions concerning the very essence of the phenomenon under investigation (*ontology*), the grounds of knowledge (*epistemology*) and the methodological choices, which link them to certain scientific paradigms (Burrell & Morgan 1979; Guba & Lincoln 1994). A scientific paradigm refers thus to “a loose collection of logically held-together assumptions, concepts, and propositions that orientate thinking and research” (Bogdan & Biklen 1982, 30). Similarly, Guba and Lincoln (1994, 105) define a scientific paradigm as the “basic belief system or world view that guides the investigation”. The aim of this chapter is to first shortly discuss the three main elements building a scientific paradigm as identified by Guba and Lincoln (1994) and locate the present study within these paradigms. This is followed by descriptions of the empirical material and data analysis process.

Methodological choices

Ontology refers to the theory of being. Ontology considers the form and nature of reality, more precisely, what is there that can be known about the reality (Guba & Lincoln 1994). According to Burrell and Morgan (1979, 1-4) two extremes of ontological considerations are nominalism and realism. Nominalist ontology conceives social reality external to individual cognition to be made up of nothing more than names, concepts and labels, which are used to structure the reality. Thus, the nominalist view does not admit there to be any ‘real’ structure to the world, which these concepts are used to describe. Realism, on the other hand, postulates that the social world external to individual cognition is a real world made up of hard, tangible and relatively immutable structures. So, whether or not we label and perceive these structures, they are still considered to exist as empirical entities. Thus, for realist, the social world exists independently of an individual’s appreciation of it.

Epistemology concerns the relationship between the researcher and what can be known. The epistemological considerations vary from anti-positivism (or interpretive approach) to positivism. Characteristic for positivist epistemology is the aim to explain and predict, what happens in the social world by searching regularities and causalities between its constituent elements. Thus, there are two important characteristics of positivist epistemology, namely that science is concerned only with directly observable phenomena and with hypothetical-deductive testing of theories. The hypothetical-deductive analysis requires the specification of the main variables and the statement of specific research hypotheses before data collection begins. Furthermore, specification of research hypotheses based on an explicit theoretical framework means that general construct provides the framework for understanding specific observations (Patton 2002, 56).

Contrary to positivist epistemology, anti-positivism is firmly set against the utility of a search for laws or underlying regularities. For the anti-positivist, the social world is essentially relativistic and can only be understood from the point of view of the individuals, who are directly involved in the activities which are to be studied. (Burrell & Morgan 1979, 5). Anti-positivist study is also usually inductive in nature, meaning that analysis begins with specific observation and builds toward general patterns. Thus, the categories or dimensions of analysis emerge from open-ended observations as the researcher comes to understand patterns that exist in the phenomenon being investigated (Patton 2002, 55–56). Though, it should be noticed, that an idea of conducting a research with no theoretical influences guiding the process is rather challenging. The practicality of this kind of approach could also be questioned (Perry 1998), and also when doing inductive analysis common prior knowledge gained through the process of socialization will inevitably influence the research process (Manicas 1989, 194).

The role a researcher varies notable between the two epistemological extremes described above. When adopting a positivist approach to epistemology, the researcher is thought to be a neutral and external observer basing the empirical data gathering and analysis on established methods and procedures thus aiming at objectivity. As the anti-positivist view is based on the idea that social phenomena exist only through human interpretation, a similar objective analysis is not possible. Thus, the ontological and epistemological choices have direct impact on the methodological approach of a study. Acceptance of positivist assumptions leads to the utilization of nomothetic methodology, which is preoccupied with the construction of scientific tests and the use of quantitative techniques for the analysis of data. In contrast to the positivist approach, the anti-positivists accept ideographic methods, which emphasize the analysis of subjective accounts by using qualitative methods. Furthermore, these accounts are generated by 'getting inside' situations and involving oneself in the everyday flow of life (Burrell & Morgan 1979).

Characteristics for the approach adopted here is a certain mid-way stance between realistic and nominalistic ontology. Thus, even though the tangible nature and existence of social reality is taken as a starting point, this study does not represent extreme realism, but emphasizes the imperfectly apprehendable nature of reality (see Guba & Lincoln 1994). Social phenomenon can be ascertained, even though this process is thought to be imperfect and probabilistically comprehensible (see e.g. Guba & Lincoln 1994). Similar to Healy and Perry (2000) we consider that a perception is a window on to reality from which a picture of reality can be triangulated with other perceptions. Furthermore, epistemologically the study adopts an anti-positivist stance. This means that interpretation is emphasized instead of measuring. We also aim to understand the relationship between a forest owner and a nature-based entrepreneur from their own point of view. Thus, we do not aim to verify or discredit the existing theoretical perceptions on psychological ownership as such, but rather to apply the main ideas of this theoretical discussion to the context of the relationship between the two parties. Therefore, despite the theoretical framework introduced in this study, we aim to rather inductive analysis.

Data collection and description of empirical data

As the objective of this study was to examine the relationships between nature-based entrepreneurs and private non-industrial forest owners, this study adopts a dyadic approach to the data collection. Thus, the empirical data of this study consist of face-to-face interviews with 27 nature-based entrepreneurs and forest owners. The sampling of the interviewees was made by a purposive sampling approach in order to ensure manageable and informative data (see Patton 2002). In other words, the entrepreneurs represented different kind of nature-based tourism businesses located in different geographical areas of Finland. The potential entrepreneurs were tracked down by utilizing the Finnish Nature-based Entrepreneurship Association and the personal networks of the researchers. The private forest owners of the study can be divided into categories: those who have collaboration with a nature-based entrepreneur and those who have refused to let their forest for such business or recreation usage that is not included in the Everyman's Rights. The potential forest owners were tracked down by enquiring the nature-based entrepreneurs or other informants (e.g. Forestry Centres, several different local forestry societies, Finnish Environment Institute, Regional Development Centres and municipalities) to suggest suitable forest owners for the interview. Among these suggestions the interviewees were randomly selected. Furthermore, an announcement in a national newspaper was published in order to find potential forest owners.

The interviews were conducted between October 2008 and March 2009. The length of the interviews varied from 45 minutes to 90 minutes. All the interviews were recorded at the permission of the interviewee and afterwards fully transcribed in order to guarantee a rich data and to allow the precise analy-

sis. The interviews were based on a semi-structured framework of themes, which allowed rather flexible conversations to take place still ensuring that all the main issues are discussed with every interviewee (Hirsjärvi & Hurme 1982). In the case of the nature-based entrepreneurs, the themes highlighted during the interviews included: the business characteristics, the description of the collaboration between the entrepreneur and the forest owner and the ways the entrepreneur has taken the ownership issues into consideration during the collaboration. The interviews of the private forest owners covered topics such as the personal history as a forest owner, the significance of forest ownership and the description as well as experiences of the collaboration with the nature-based entrepreneur.

The empirical data includes the interviews with 10 nature-based tourism entrepreneurs (see table 2). All the businesses operated in the service sector and provided different kind of nature-based tourism experiences, like hiking, climbing, canoeing, riding, motor safaris, wildlife watching and hunting. The average age of the interviewed businesses was 9,5 years. The oldest business was established 17 years ago, while the youngest one was three years old. The interviewed businesses were located in five different regions: Central Finland, Kainuu, Central Ostrobothnia, Pirkanmaa and Northern Savo. The nature-based enterprises in this study were very small when measured by the number of employees, the average being 2 full-time employees. There were three businesses, which did not provide full time employment even for the entrepreneur, i.e. they were all part-time entrepreneurs with mainly farming as their main occupation. It should be mentioned though that many of the businesses had, however, several part time employees during the season. The number of forest owners, with whom the entrepreneurs collaborated, varied considerable. Thus, in some cases the entrepreneur had only a couple of collaborating partners, when the operation of some entrepreneurs covered over one hundred different forest owners' land areas.

Table 2. *The main characteristics of the interviewed nature-based enterprises*

Number of interview	Products	Age of the business (years)	Size of the business (employees)	Number of forest owners with whom collaborates
1	Hunting, hiking	15	1,5	3
2	Hiking, climbing, cycling	11	2–3	15
3	Motor safaris, paintball, climbing	10	3	20–30
4	Hiking, canoeing	9	0,5	n.a.
5	Riding tours	3	3	100
6	Hiking, canoeing	10	1	n.a.
7	Hiking, hunting, climbing	11	0,5	n.a.
8	Riding tours	17	1,5	8
9	Wildlife watching, canoeing	11	0,5	3
10	Hunting, fishing	8	1	5

In addition to the nature-based entrepreneurs, the data of this study consists of 17 interviews with private non-industrial forest owners. The size of the forest areas owned by the interviewees varied considerable from 5 hectares to 480 hectares (see table 3). The duration of the forest ownership was rather long as the majority of the interviewees had been owners of their forest areas for 20 years or longer. Typical for the interviewees was that the forest areas were usually inherited (12/17) and that the area of ownership had remained rather stable ever since. In other words, after inherited the forest area, the great majority of the interviewees (9/12) had neither sold any part of their forest land nor were they planning to

sell it. However, the interviewees in this study have not actively increased their forest areas either; there was one interviewee, who had bought some forest land to increase the forest area he had inherited. The forests were usually legally owned by the interviewee alone or together with his/her spouse. The forests located in six different regions in Finland, mainly in the central parts of the country. In most cases, the forest owners lived rather near (usually in the same municipality) to the forest areas they owned as only three of the interviewees lived in a different region than his/her forest located.

Table 3. *The main characteristics of the interviewed forest owners*

Number of interview	Forest area (hectares)	Duration of ownership (years)	How the forest is acquired	The form of the ownership	Location of the forest (region)	Is the owner living near to the forest	Existing co-operation with nature-based tourism
1	250	20	Inheritance	Alone	Kainuu	yes	yes
2	235	28	Inheritance / purchase	Married couple	Keski-Suomi	yes	yes
3	160	28	Inheritance	Alone	Pirkanmaa	yes	yes
4	480	n.a.	Inheritance		Pirkanmaa	yes	yes
5	50	n.a.	Inheritance	Co-ownership	Pirkanmaa	yes	yes
6	40	23	Inheritance	Alone	Etelä-Pohjanmaa	yes	yes
7	43	39	Purchase	Married couple	Etelä-Pohjanmaa	yes	yes
8	over 20	22	Inheritance	Alone	Etelä-Pohjanmaa	yes	yes
9	90	43	Inheritance	Alone	Pohjois-Savo	yes	yes
10	20		Purchase	Married couple	Pohjois-Savo	yes	yes
11	60	28	Inheritance	Married couple	Pohjois-Savo	yes	yes
12	40	48	Inheritance	Heirs	Pohjois-Savo	no	yes
13	4	40	Inheritance	Alone	Etelä-Savo	no	no
14	6	15	Purchase	Married Couple	Pohjois-Savo	yes	no
15	50	15	Inheritance	Alone	Etelä-Pohjanmaa	yes	no
16	30	8	Purchase	Alone	Pohjois-Savo	no	no
17	80	30	Purchase	Alone	Etelä-Pohjanmaa	yes	no

Data analysis

The data was analyzed by using analyst constructing typologies, in which patterns, categories and themes are looked for from the data and based on these, typologies are formed (Patton 2002). For this purpose a common analyzing framework was created. Typologies are built on ideal types or illustrative endpoints rather than complete and discrete set of categories and they provide one simple form for presenting the qualitative comparisons (Patton 2002). Unlike classification systems, typologies do not provide rules for

classifying. Instead, typologies usually identify multiple ideal types, each of which represents a unique combination of the attributes that are believed to determine the relevant outcome (Doty & Glick 1994). In other words, the typologies and their characteristics emerge from the data during the analyzing instead of being decided beforehand. Also since typologies present complex ideal types, the cases can have elements from several different typologies.

We started the analysis by writing a summary for each interview in order to point out the circumstances and other relevant issues affecting the interview based on the interviewer's immediate analysis (Patton 2002). These summaries were written as soon as possible after each interview in order to capture the initial insights emerged during the interviews. The aim of the summaries was not to look for any results at this point, but rather to help in managing the large amount of data produced through the interviews.

The actual analysis included two different phases as we analysed separately the interviews of the nature-based entrepreneurs and the private forest owners. We started the analysis by reading through the interviews of the entrepreneurs several times. We looked for the interview extracts that would describe the entrepreneurs' attitudes towards the forest owners and the ways of collaborating with them. During this phase, we looked for any congruencies and discrepancies in the data for which we could construct the typology to further elucidate the findings (Patton 2002). We eventually organized the data into four different categories as we constructed the typology of nature-based entrepreneur – private forest owner relationship. The types were named in the spirit of stakeholder theory as proactive, accommodation, defensive and community strategies.

The process for the second phase of the analysis concerning the private forest owners' interviews was rather similar to the first one. We first read the interviews through in order to find out any instances indicating the ways forest owners perceive the idea of psychological ownership in the relationship with a nature-based entrepreneur. We listed all these instances conceptually. This listing was further grouped into more general concepts. Although both phases of the analysis were rather inductive in nature, all the time the link between the data and the theories of psychological ownerships and stakeholder approach was important.

To ensure the quality of the results, all phases of the analysis and interpretation of the data were a collaborative and iterative effort by both authors. In case of any disagreements, the data was jointly reanalyzed until a shared interpretation was reached. Although rather laborious, this way of utilizing analyst triangulation is often considered to increase the credibility of the research (Patton 2002). As Eisenhardt (1989) argues the use of the more researchers builds confidence in the findings and increases the likelihood of surprising findings. Furthermore, to ensure the transparency of the data analysis, a number of interview citations are presented in the main body of text in order to make it easier for the reader to evaluate the interpretations we have made. In order to increase the credibility of the study, the interview citations are presented both in Finnish and translated into English. The letter in the parenthesis after each citation refers either to a private forest owner (F) or a nature-based tourism entrepreneur (E). The number stands for the number of the interview in question.

Empirical results

In the following sub-chapters, the empirical findings of the study are presented. The first two sub-chapters discuss psychological ownership from the viewpoint of the forest owners. In the last sub-chapter, the focus of analysis is turned to the relationship between the forest owner and the nature-based entrepreneur examined from the perspective of the latter.

The main elements of psychological ownership in the forest context

The expressions of psychological ownership in the forest context are reported mainly from the perspectives of self-identity and control. These two elements of psychological ownership were, according to the results, strongly related to forest ownership, and although they are linked with each others, they are discussed in the results separately. The existence of the third element of psychological ownership, 'having a space', was not so evident in the data. This element appeared mainly in relation to the feelings of security provided by the forest, and it was very difficult to distinguish this element from the ideas of construction of self-identity. For this reason these two elements of psychological ownership are discussed together.

Forest ownership and self-identity

According to Pierce et al. (2001), self-identity can be considered as an essential element of psychological ownership. Identity refers here to subjective meanings and experiences concerning the self by entwining feelings, values and behaviour and pointing them in particular directions (Alvesson et al. 2008). Identity constitutes, what is core to a person's being. Ownership can be considered as one means to express and/or maintain one's self-identity in relation to others. It has been noted that people establish, maintain, reproduce and transform their self-identity through interactions with possessions (Dittmar 1992). Thus, a person can, for example, identify him/herself as a forest owner. According to Avey et al. (2009) a feeling of psychological ownership over an object (like forest) may provide a foundation from which individuals can identify themselves as being unique, thus contributing to their personal identity. In this chapter, the role of a forest as an element of identity production is examined by considering the meaning of forest ownership for the forest owners as well as their personal perceptions of themselves as forest owners.

In this study, only a few forest owners considered the forest as a principal element of their self-identity construction, i.e. they did not identify themselves first and foremost as forest owners. This does not, however, mean that a forest does not have an important role in their identity construction. On the contrary, the role of the forest ownership was considered to be indirect as it provided a resource to produce some other identities. Thus, through a forest ownership some forest owners identified themselves as a part of chain of generations or as a member of certain community. Forest ownership was regarded as something that linked the owners with some broader social entity. Especially in the case of inherited forests, the idea of the forest ownership as a connector of different generations and definer of a family membership was highlighted, as the following citation shows:

"Se [metsän omistaminen] merkitsee sitä, että mennään niinku ennenkin on menty, ihan samat päämäärät, että pidetään metsät, hoidetaan metsät ja tietenkin tama talokokonaisuus. Se on niinku luonnostaan selvä asia." (Int. F4)

"It [forest owning] means that we are going to continue in the same way as earlier. Goals are just the same, we are keeping forests and taking care of them and of course this whole house. It's like a self-explanatory thing." (Int. F4)

When the forest owners were asked to describe, what the forest ownership means to them, most interviewees referred to the economic aspects of the ownership. A forest was considered as a good long term investment providing extra income for its owner. Particularly those forest owners with agricultural affiliation emphasized the importance of forest ownership from the economic point of view. For them, forest ownership was a natural part of farming constituting an essential resource for the agricultural investments. The farm based forest owners emphasized also forest owning as a way of life, something you have grown into and which actually constructs an important part of being a farmer.

"Kyllä se metsä tärkeä on. Että ei tätä olis pystynyt ilman metsää niin ees viljeleen. Se alkuun lähtö olis ollut niinku mahdoton tilanne. Usein maatalous on alkuun ainakin rahoitettu metsätalouden puolelta." (Int. F3)

"Yes, the forest is important for me. It wouldn't have been possible to even farm without the forest. It would have been impossible at the beginning. Farming is often financed by the forestry, at least in the beginning." (Int. F3)

"Se [metsän omistaminen] on tämmönen elämäntapa. Siihen on kasvanut niin kuin se on elämäntapa. Onhan se samalla tietysti niin kuin tulon lähdekin." (Int. F1)

"It's [forest owning] a kind of way of life. You have grown into it. Sure it's a source of income at the same time." (Int. F1)

Previous research has stated that the importance of wood production and economics seems to be more profound, if the forest owner has an agricultural affiliation (see e.g. Lönnstedt 1989). Because of the small amount of the data, this argument cannot be verified or falsified in this study. Nevertheless, when the interviewees were asked to describe the most important objectives for the usage of their forests, the role of economic objectives was emphasized regardless the professional background of forest owners. Thus, the identity as a forest owner was often constructed in the economic framework rather than ecological or recreational frameworks. It should be mentioned though, that the economic objectives the forest owners referred to were seldom solely related to the ideas of economic profits, but it can be said that for majority of the interviewees, forest ownership was related to economic security and perishing the inheritance. In addition to the construction of the identity, these can be also considered as fulfilling the motives of 'having a space', which is also one of the main aspects of psychological ownership (see e.g. Pierce et al. 2001). In other words, the forests were considered to provide their owners security while being important element in the identity construction.

"Kyllä ne painottuu siihen taloudelliseen, että se on kumminkin raha on semmonen, että se on tänä päivänä ykkösjuuttuja aika monenssa asiassa. Kyllä se taloudellinen arvo, että en mä voisi ajatella, että mä metsiä jättäisin luonnonvaraiseen tilaan, että ei niitä hoidettaisi, että niiden antais mädäntyä sinne, että mä pidän sitä tyhmänä touhuna." (Int. F6)

"It's focused on the economic side because money is today a priority in quite a many things. So [it has] economic value, I couldn't imagine leaving forests decomposing in wild without management. I think that would be stupid hassle." (Int. F6)

"No niin se taloudellinen [tavoite], sanotaan nyt siinä mielessä, että ne metsät pysyis hyvinä jälkipolvillekin, että onhan se tavallaan taloudellinen tavoite." (Int. F16)

"You can say that keeping forests in good condition for future generations is a kind of an economic target, too." (Int. F16)

Although the recreational and ecological objectives were less often mentioned as the objectives of forest ownership, they were not totally unheeded in the data. Thus, most of the interviewees thought that the economic, recreational and ecological objectives are not exclusive, but can be into certain degree considered simultaneously. Many of the forest owners did have some voluntary areas of protection in their forests. These were places which had specific personal value for them, either from the viewpoint of ecology or scenery. They also valued their forests from the recreational perspective as the forests provided them

a good place for different outdoor activities. In this sense, the most of the interviewees in this study did not want to identify themselves exclusively as forest owners who would maximize the economic utility of the forest, but emphasized the existence of different objectives of their forest ownership.

"Kyllä osin varmaan sillai taloudellinen hyöty, että niinhän se asia pitäis vissiin nähdä, että ne [metsät] pidetään semmosessa kunnossa, että ne tuottais mahdollisimman hyvin. Mutta sitten on semmosia alueita tosiaan, niin ne on tavallaan meidän vapaaehtoisia suojelukohteita, että niissä on hyvä puusto mutta ei niitä oo tarkoitus käsitellä mitenkään. Että vähän semmosta kaksjakoista tämä meidän puuhastelu siltä osin." (Int. F2)

"Probably economic benefit in that way that they [forests] should be kept in such condition that they yield as much as possible. Nevertheless, there are many areas which are in a way our own conservation areas. Those areas have a good tree stand but we're not going to handle them in any way. So you can say that our activities are somewhat bicentric." (Int. F2)

The majority of the forest owners in this study had inherited their forests and wanted to maintain the ownership of the forest in the family also in the future. Similar to the study of Bliss and Martin (1989) most of the interviewees perceived the forest as a legacy that they borrow from the coming generations. Therefore, the decisions concerning, for example, the cuttings do not always concern solely the forest owner, but they have also an impact on the ownership of the next generation as well. Likewise, selling the forest land was regarded as a very difficult decision, which would include a strong emotional aspect. Thus, in case of inherited forests, the realization of the investment is not just a matter of economic deliberation, but includes more complex mix of different values. The way of perceiving the forest ownership, i.e. whether it is, for example, inherited or bought as an investment, has a major effect also on the identity construction of the forest owners.

"Tietystihän jos sitä ostaa ihan vapailta markkinoilta niin sijoituskohehan se silloin on, mutta se on sitten tama perintötila on sitten vähän niin kuin eri juttu siinä mielessä." (Int. F1)

"Of course, if you buy it from open markets you can call it an investment, but this family estate is a bit different in this way." (Int. F1)

"Kun minusta aika jättää niin se [metsä] pittää pysyä. Se on ehkä sen takia, että se on isävainaa tämän saanut ja se on hoidettu sillä lailla, että sitä ei oo hummattu eikä hakattu oo sitä. Hakkuureserviä olis mutta ei oo sitä..." (Int. F11)

"After I'm gone I want it [the forest] to stay [within the family]. It's maybe because my father, who's already deceased, has received it and it's been kept without splurging or cutting it heavily. There's some logging reserve but it hasn't been [used]..." (Int. F11)

Forest ownership and a sense of control

The feeling of control as a central aspect of psychological ownership was clearly visible in the data. The forest owners felt that they have or at least should have the highest control over their forest areas and questioning this "overruling" control was seen as immediate violation against their ownership. However, they were accustomed to the current legislation limiting their absolute control and at least partly accepted it as a status quo. The a right to exercise influence (control) over that which is owned, is strongly related also to the objective ownership in addition to psychological ownership (Pierce et al 1991). However, in this chapter, the sense of control is studied mainly from the point of view of psychological ownership and legal or objective aspects are not highlighted.

In general the forest owners were willing to provide access to the forests for other people and they did not oppose the free access to the forests based on Everyman's Rights. On the contrary, they mentioned that they themselves used these rights as well and felt that the current wording of Everyman's Rights

does not provide too much liberties to the other forest users. However, they highlighted that utilization of Everyman's Rights should not cause any damages to the forests and feared that the more urbanized people get, the easier they will cause damages or disadvantages to the forest owner, even without intention. This was seen as a risk that was uncontrollable according to the free access policy and was seen as a threat by the forest owners.

"Kyllä varmaan se jokamiehen oikeus ihan toimii, jos se pysyy siinä rajoissa...mutta siinäkin porukassa on tietty joku häntä, jotka sitten sotkee sen." (Int. F11)

"Probably the Everyman's Right works in it if it stays within the limits... but also in that group there's someone who surely messes it up." (Int. F11)

"No se on taas se, että kun tänä päivänä ihmisten järjenkäyttö, ikävä kyllä näissä luontoa-sioissa tahtoo pikkusen ruveta pettämään, että se nuotiokin voiraan perustaa ilman että se tehdään turvallisesti." (Int. F17)

"Well, again it's that thing that when today people's wits are beginning to fail in nature issues and even a fire can be set up unsafely." (Int. F17)

The forest owners also felt that they have the right to set the boundaries especially concerning the grey areas of Everyman's Rights e.g. related to what is seen as unreasonable disadvantages to the forest owner or the distance that should be kept to the forest owner's private farmyard or house. The experience of unreasonable disadvantages was individual and varied a lot between the forest owners, as well as the tolerance of the other people close to their private house. For some forest owners it was enough, if the recreational users did not come to the actual garden, but for others the visible contact of recreational users was already too close. Nevertheless, there was a general consensus that it is the forest owner's privilege to set these boundaries as they will, as part of the control they had over their forest areas. Also the idea that Everyman's Rights should be harmonized within EU was brought up.

"No kyllä minä sillä tavalla niinku hyväksyn sen, että metsässä niin sanotusti jokamiehen oikeudella jokainen saa kulkea ja poimia marjoja ja sienä ja sillä tavalla virkistyä, mutta tuota sen että tietty niinku pihapiirin ympäristö niin ois hyvä...se näkyy olevan hyvin erilainen käsitys että tuota jotkut... vähän niin kuin tässäkin kun ajattelee tätä kuitenkin alueita on paljon, että pakkoko se nyt on ihan siihen nurkalle tulla..." (Int. F10)

"Well, I kind of approve that in the forest, so to say, everyone is allowed to walk and pick berries and mushrooms and refresh in that way according to Everyman's Right but farm yard would be good... there seems to be very different understanding so that some people... a bit like if you think about this area, there is a lot of space in here so is it necessary to come right here on the way..." (Int. F10)

"Että on ihan ok, että jos nyt on normaali näkyvyys metsässä siitä tontin rajalta, niin saahan siellä nyt mennä. Miten sitä nyt vois mennä kieltämään?" (Int. F16)

"So it's quite ok that if there's normal visibility in the forest from the border of the site so of course it is allowed to go there. How could you deny it?" (Int. F16)

The forest owners also brought up strongly that continuously bigger group of people utilising Everyman's Rights are not aware of their limitations or do not care to act based on them. They also felt that Everyman's Rights and free access to the forests can cloud peoples' understanding on the property rights especially concerning the natural resources of forests. This was seen as clear violation against the forest owner's ownership and possibility to control their forests as the following citations illustrate:

"Mutta sitten tämä jokamiehen oikeus sekottaa, hämää hiukan tätä rajaa, että siinä, siinä niin ihmisillä tulee käsitys, että ne on vähän niin kuin yhteistä hyvää, että me saadaan siellä olla ja siinä mielessähän se tietysti onkin vähänyhteistä hyvää, että sitä voi käyttää hyväksi, mutta joillain on mennyt sitten jauhot taikka puurot ja vellit sekaisin, ne on jopa ruvennu jäkälää keräämään luvatta toisten mailta." (Int. F17)

“However this Everyman’s Rights mixes up and makes this limit a bit fainter. People think that it is a bit like common good and they are allowed to be there. In that way it’s seen slightly as a common good, so that everyone can use it, but some people have mixed up things and they have even started to collect lichen from other people’s land without permission.” (Int. F17)

“Mä miellän sen samanlaiseksi, että jos sä vaikka tuut tänne, niin sä tuosta pois lähtiessä nappaat taulun seinältä, että olipas hyvännäköinen taulu, että mä vien sen kotiin. Että kaikki ymmärtää että se ei oo sallittua, mutta kun tuolla luonnossa liikkuu ihminen, niin se ajattelee, että täältä saa ottaa mitä tahansa mukaansa [...] Ja moni on mullekin sanonu, että moni mieltää sen niin, että se on kaikkien omaisuutta se luonto, vaikka kyllä suurimman osan metsistä ja maista niin yksityinen kumminkin omistaa.” (Int. F6)

“I perceive it in the same way like if you come here and when you’re leaving you take a painting from the wall and say that what a good-looking picture, I’m taking it with me home. Everyone understands that, it isn’t allowed but when there’s someone walking in the wild, one thinks that one can take whatever one wants with him/her. [...] And many people have also told me that several individuals perceive that nature is common property, even most of the forests and land is owned by private people.” (Int. F6)

Experiences of overusing Everyman’s Rights generated typically negative attitudes towards the Everyman’s Rights in general as well as towards other utilisation of the forests e.g. hunting. Especially related to other utilisation outside Everyman’s Rights, if the forest owners’ right to control the activities according to their values and priorities was challenged in any way, they typically forbid all these kind of activities in their forests. Also in some cases the permission was not given at all due to the fear that the forest owners control over their area could be endangered. The forest owners were ready at least in general to consider the local community’s requests like game management or exclusion areas in forest management decisions. Important aspect was, however, to be able to consider the requests from voluntary basis and not to feel forced to these decisions.

Also the desire to do something regarding to the environment and to be able to gain desirable outcomes was highlighted by the forest owners. Ikävalko et al. (2006) has mentioned this as one central factor in creating psychological ownership via sense of control. The forest owners were contributing strongly to the forest management work either directly or by using contractors, and they also highlighted their own central role in the decision making related to the forest management. Even though the local forest management association (Metsänhoitoyhdistys) was consulted or the management activities were implemented in order to keep up with 10-year forest management plan, the forest owners clearly brought up that the final decision was theirs. They also mentioned that they might discuss e.g. the clear cutting decision within their family, but even then they highlighted that they themselves make the final decision at the end. Nevertheless, the decisions were not made without any communication. In most of the cases the forest owners did discuss on their forest management decisions with some expert or family members in order to seek consultation related to the activities or confirming their own ideas. Also the forest companies or forest associations approached the forest owners with management or cutting proposal. The following citation illustrates the forest owners opinions related to the forest management work and decision making process.

“Kyllä se, no on se tietysti se metsänhoitosuunnitelma on pikkusen apuna, vaan niin kuin ite päätän.” (Int. F1)

“Of course the forestry plan gives some help but I make the decisions by myself.” (Int. F1)

The feeling of control, not only legal based control, was probably the most visible aspect of psychological ownership. It was related to most of the forest owner's comments concerning the use of their forests as well as the co-operation with the other users of the forests. Therefore, it is vitally important to consider this aspect of psychological ownership in forest owner stakeholder management.

Practical level aspects to respect the forest owners' psychological ownership

The experience of different aspects of psychological ownership is often linked together and mixed in several practical issues through which the motives of self-identity, control and "having a space" are realized in the co-operation. Therefore, the psychological ownership was also studied through the forest owners' opinions, concerning, how their ownership should be respected in co-operation relationships with nature-based tourism entrepreneurs. Especially control and identity aspects were highlighted among the forest owners. The forest owners felt that they should have the highest authority regarding to their forest areas, and they wanted this authority to be respected in some way, even when activities would happen within free access or Everyman's Rights. They saw, that they have the right to set individual limits to the use of their forests as they please according to their own aspirations and values, like nature conservation and dislike towards the motor vehicles in the nature. This indicated strongly on existence of the control aspect of the psychological ownership, as well as brought out the influence of the identity of forest owners, who they are and what values do they have, on which they base their decisions on the use of their forest areas. Any violations against this authority were seen as an insult against the ownership and caused negative attitude towards nature-based tourism in general, as well as could lead to the termination of the co-operation.

Based on the analysis of the empirical data, seven different practical level themes, through which the forest owner's psychological ownership should be taken into consideration were found. Some of them are related to both objective and psychological ownership, since they support each other and it is impossible fully distinguish them (Rogers and Pierce 2004).

Avoiding any damage

The majority of interviewed forest owners highly emphasized the economic value of the forest as an important source of income and a provider of financial security. For this reason, economic loss in forest value was regarded as a major concern, when establishing a relationship with a nature-based entrepreneur. At the worst scenario, major economic losses for the forest owners could be caused e.g. related to forest fire. Therefore, the forest owners did not feel very conformable with the idea of allowing any camp-fires in their forests. Especially, when they did not know the entrepreneur beforehand, the permission was usually not granted, but it would require an established and trustful relationship between a forest owner and an entrepreneur. Similarly, the damage to the sapling stand was one of the most often mentioned threats related to the business activities in the forest. Most of the forest owners did not see that hiking, riding or even snowmobile safaris could damage the forest, if carefully planned. They nevertheless emphasized that it is always a major risk to allow business activities to take place near to a sapling stand.

"Ja kyllä mä pelkään sitä vähän, että jos joku safariyrittäjä tulis tänne ja järjestäis niitä retkiä niin just tämä tulenkäsittely ja muu, että se on sellainen vähän peikko, että sen takia mä en välttämättä halua mitään yöpyjiä ainakaan tänne oikein paljon, tänne metsiin." (Int. F6)

"And I'm a little bit afraid that if an entrepreneur organized here the excursions, so handling of fire and everything, it is such a threat that because of that I don't necessarily want any people to stay overnight in my forest, at least not many people." (Int. F6)

"...ainaki et pysy tuossa reitillä, että ne ei lähe siitä mihinkää, sehän on tuossa se ehton, että jos siellä on taimikoita, ne ei niitä pole. Se kait se tärkein on siinä." (Int. F12)

"... at least they should stay on the path, so that they won't diverge from it. It is an absolute that if there is a sapling stand, it will not be damaged. I think that is the most important thing." (Int. F12)

In addition, damage to the landscape could cause concern to the forest owners. These are not necessary any major economic losses but merely damage to the aesthetic or ecological values of the forest area, like leaving some rubbish, or damage to the animals in the forest. These kinds of damages were considered to offend values appreciated by the forest owner and therefore violated their identities as forest owners. Thus, in addition to the economic values attached to the forest, most of the forest owners appreciated the ecological aspects of the forests to the certain level. The forest owners also in a way seemed to feel responsible on "protecting" the nature on their responsibility e.g. by prohibiting too damaging activity, even though the damage was not focused e.g. on timber production. It should be mentioned though that offence towards the flora and fauna were first and foremost regarded here as an offence towards the psychological ownership, not towards natural biodiversity per se.

"Niin kunnioittaen toisen omaisuutta, että jos toisen mailla kulkee niin silloin jättää sen samaan kuntoon lähtiessään kun tullessaan niin ei siinä mitään". (Int. F6)

"There needs to be respect for other people's property. So if you are wandering in someone's forest, you should leave it at the same state as it was when you came. That way it is all right." (Int. F6)

"Niin sitä ei me sitten sallittu kun sieltä irtooo sammaltakin niin isolta alalta." (Int. F4)

"So we didn't allow it because there's even moss detaching from such a big area." (Int. F4)

Each forest owner had their own criteria on what respecting of nature meant for them and which activities would in their opinion harm the nature too much, and therefore be against their personal values. It was very important to them that the nature-based entrepreneurs and people using their forest areas for recreation based on Everyman's Rights shared the same respect towards the nature. As part of appreciating their ownership, the forest owners expected that the entrepreneurs or recreational forest users would not act against their values. Also as one potential problem by the forest owners, it was seen that the entrepreneurial use might get "out of the hands". Even if in current, small scale use of forests, the damages were not likely to happen, the permit was not granted in the fear of expenditure of the use in the future.

"Kyllä se luonto on mulle kuitenkin niin tärkeä homma siinä mielessä, että ei se luonto saisi kärsiä siitä. Että se pysyis luonnon näköisenä, että sinne ei rakennettais mitään puihin eikä mitään muutakaan vastaavaa." (Int. F8)

"The nature is so important thing for me in the sense that it must not be harmed from the business activities. So nature should remain as nature, there shouldn't be anything build to the trees or any such things." (Int. F8)

In theory, any activity threatening to diminish the total value of the forest was considered as a legitimate reason to break off the existing relationship, as it was considered as a breach of the contract. In practice, the damage caused to the forest did not always lead to the end of the collaboration. In case of some minor damage, the social pressure to continue the relationship and maintain the good relationship with the entrepreneur prevented the forest owners from forbidding the usage of the area.

Although damaging and littering other peoples' property, is legally forbidden, the forest owners did not emphasize the legal aspects here. For them, damaging the forests and causing value losses was regarded as an indication of indifference towards the ownership from the entrepreneurs' part. Indeed, the avoidance of causing any economic or other damage to the forest was considered as an important gesture of respect for the ownership. Therefore, any damage to the forest, no matter how small, was regarded as a major infringement on the target of ownership, which may engage protective territoriality in forest owners in order to maintain the sense of ownership (see also Avey & Avolio, 2009). In other words, as a result of economic infringements, the forest owners feel their identity as owners of the forest threatened, which can easily lead to the end of the relationship between the forest owner and the entrepreneur, even if the economic damage would be compensated.

Proper compensation

Despite the existence of different voluntary financial compensatory programs (landscape renting model (*maisemanvuokrausmalli*) and recreational value trading (*virkestysarvokauppa*), none of the interviewed forest owners had any experience on them. The current relationships with nature-based entrepreneurs were based merely on the goodwill of the forest owner rather than any monetary compensation. In most cases, the monetary compensation was not discussed at all and it has therefore not played any major role in the establishment of the relationship. Indeed, the forest owners regarded the idea of monetary compensation as inappropriate, when describing the current relationships, as the following citation show:

"Ei oo tullut mieleenkään, että sillä [yhteistyösuhhteella] ruvettais rahastamaan." (Int. F2)
"It has never even occurred to my mind that I would start to make money [with the collaboration]." (Int. F2)

This does not mean, however, that the very idea of the monetary compensation would be strange to them. According to the majority of the interviewees, if the usage of the forest brought some economic value added to the entrepreneur, then it would only be reasonable, if the forest owners themselves also benefit from the relationship.

"No kyllä tämä järjestäjäkin saa siitä taloudellista hyötyä, niin kyllä siitä täytyis metsänomistajankin silloin saada." (Int. F4)
"Well, the entrepreneur gets some economic benefits [from the collaboration], so the forest owner should also get some." (Int. F4)

The level of familiarity between a forest owner and nature-based entrepreneurs, as well as the extent and intensity of the usage of the forests greatly affect the forest owners' willingness to require any monetary compensation. In case of established relationships, many of the forest owners considered it, however, rather difficult to change the existing way of doing things. According to them, a demand for a monetary compensation can be seen as a gesture of damaging someone's business activities. Thus, only a major change in the conditions of the collaboration, like a drastic increase in the usage of the area, would legitimise the requirement for this kind of compensation without compromising the existing good social relationship. In case of establishing any new collaboration relationship, especially with an entrepreneur they are not familiar with, the most of the forest owners stated, that it would be much easier ask for some monetary compensation. Similarly, the line of business clearly affects the willingness to require a monetary compensation, i.e. the bigger the risks of damage in the business activity, the greater is the willingness to require economic compensation.

"Ainakin jos nyt vielä suurempaa kun mitä täs nyt on tämä touhu. Jos vaikka joka päivä käytettäis, tai arkipäivinäkin joka päivä, niin kyllä se silloin melkein pitäis jonkinlainen korvaus olla." (Int. F7)

"If the business activities became more extensive than they are at the moment, if they would use the forest area every day or even every working day, then there should be a some kind of compensation." (Int. F7)

"Mutta kyllä varmaan jos joku ulkopuolinen tulis niin mä tekisin nyt ilman muuta sopimuksen paperille ja varmaan mä vähän rahastaisin siitä." (Int. F6)

"But sure, if it were a stranger, I would absolutely make a written contract and I guess that I would try to make a little money with it too." (Int. F6)

"Riippuu että minkälaista liiketoimintaa siellä ruvettais tekemään, että tulisko siitä mulle rahallista hyötyä vai onko se vain ainoastaan, että mä annan käyttöön maani. Hyvin todennäköistä olis, että en antaisi jos ei siitä mitään hyötyä olisi." (Int. F8)

"It all depends on the nature of the business activity, whether I ask for some economic benefits or just give the permission to use the land for free. But it would be most likely that I wouldn't give any permission if it wasn't any good for me." (Int. F8)

It is important to notice that a monetary compensation was not considered as the only possible means of financial compensation. Thus, although there is no money exchange between the two parties, the relationship may have been very advantageous for the forest owner too. In the exchange of the permission to use the forest, the forest owners may be able to use the services and the equipment of the entrepreneur free of charge. The entrepreneurs can also, for example, assist the forest owners to take care of the forest roads by maintaining them. Similarly, in the case of a forest owner with a farm, the entrepreneur may provide some help with the farm work. Also proving the forest owner some social events every now and then, like a dinner, was mentioned as an example of proper compensation.

"Sehän on ihan tämän uuden lain mukaan niin periaatteessa vois olla velvoitekin, että pitäis maksaa siitä. Mutta sanotaanko ny, että täs meidän tapauksessa niin maksu ehkä tulee jostain toista kautta. Että kyllä ne mielellään siitä maksaa mutta ne ehkä tarjoaa joskus ruokaa meille ja pitää illanviettoja, koska me ollaan maanomistajia. [...] Kyllä ne tietää itekin, että ne on velollisuudentunnossa siinä mielessä, mutta sitä ei oo tehty vain sellaista kirjallista." (Int. F8)

"According to this new law, basically, it could be an injunction that they should pay for it. However, it is supposed that in this our case payment comes via some other way. They are willing to pay for it but they might offer us food and evening gatherings because we're landowners. [...] Of course they know that they owe us in that sense, we just haven't done any written contracts." (Int. F8)

In some cases, the non-monetary compensation was indeed the condition for the permission to use the forest. More often, it was however, something was suggested by the entrepreneur as a gesture of goodwill. Furthermore, the precise essence of these kinds of compensation forms was usually not clearly discussed and agreed on, but the compensation could take place rather irregular ways. Nevertheless, some kind of compensation was really considered to contribute to the quality and success of the relationship.

Most of the forest owners in this study appreciated and even assumed some kind of compensation to take place. As indicated above, the compensation does not necessarily need to be any monetary fee but it is more a question of courtesy. In other words, the compensation is clearly regarded as a material indication that the entrepreneurs do not take the collaboration for granted but acknowledge the ownership issues in the relationship. The forest owners saw the compensation as an expression of gratitude and its' monetary value was not an essential issue. Because the compensation was not usually monetary, but more often merely a complaisance in nature, it was not considered to restrict the controlling aspects

of the ownership either. In other words, the monetary compensation and the rights “bought” by the entrepreneur was sometimes considered to limit the controlling power of the forest owner by giving the entrepreneur too broad rights over the forest.

A clear contract and commitment to it

The clear contract and commitment to it was mentioned as one main method in order to maintain the forest owners’ feeling of control in co-operation process. It was very important that the forest owners felt that the contracts were made based on their voluntary decisions and that they had a feeling of being in control over their forests areas in the negotiation process, without experiencing a pressure to be “forced” to the co-operation. In this study, the collaboration between a forest owner and a nature-based entrepreneur was typically based on an oral contract and trust. The contracts were usually very informal in nature, i.e. they did not involve any details on the extent or intensity of the usage of the forest area or any deliberations of the liabilities of the entrepreneur in case of potential damage. This does not mean, however, that there would not be any conditions or limits for the business activities at all. Thus, in this study, the oral contracts included a forest owner’s permission to use the forest area only for certain business activities taking place in a certain forest area. In other words, although given a permission to do business in the forest, the entrepreneurs were not allowed to engage in any other business activities except those particularly agreed on. Similarly, the business activities could also take place only in certain parts of the forest, which were defined by the forest owner. The oral contract was regarded as valid as the written one, and according to the forest owners, an essential condition to the successful collaboration is that the entrepreneurs act in the spirit of the contract.

“Siitä [metsän käytöstä] on tehty jämpä sopimus ja molemmat puolet sitä noudattaa.”
(Int. F4)

“We have made a clear contract concerning it [the usage of the forest] and both parties stick to it.” (Int. F4)

“No kyllähän ne pelisäännöt mitkä rakennetaan niin miten niitä noudatetaan, niin se hän siinä nyt tärkeintä on.” (Int. F8)

“Well one thing is the common rules that are developed, how they will be complied with, that is the most important thing in it [in the collaboration].” (Int. F8)

The form of the contract, whether an oral or a written one, is not necessarily a critical issue for the establishment of the collaboration. What is more important is that both parties understand the content and conditions of the contract in the similar way and the forest owners felt they were in control of the use of their forests. In retrospect, however, most of the interviewed forest owners would have preferred a written contract over an oral one, since it is considered as more secure and accurate.

“Ei, se on liian avoimeksi jäänyt. Että kyllä suosittelen, että jos tälläisiä, niinku kaikes hommas vaikka teet sitten kenenkä kanssa mitä kauppoja, niin kyllä se mustaa valkoisella kannattaa aina laittaa.” (Int. F6)

“No, the contract has been left too open. I recommend everybody who has the similar situation, just like in every business no matter with whom you are dealing with, the contract should always be written in black and white.” (Int. F6)

“Joo, se on aika vaikea asia se sopimuksen teko alkuun siinä, jotta siitä tehdään niin mahdollisimman tämmönen yksiselitteinen, että ei käy näin, että se antaa luvan melkein mihinkä vaan.” (Int. F5)

“Yes, it is rather difficult to make the contract at the beginning, so that it would be as unambiguous as possible and not to give permission to do almost everything.” (Int. F5)

One form of undermining the forest owners as the highest authority was seen overstepping the agreed rights stipulated in the agreements. Expanding the agreed rights by taking some of the forest owners' control of their forests out of their hands was seen without an exception causing conflicts in some degree to the co-operation between the forest owner and entrepreneur. For example the entrepreneur could start to set his/her own limits or regulations for the other users of the forest, which were not negotiated with the forest owner beforehand. In these cases the entrepreneurs acted as the final decision makers for the utilisation of forest and took the control aspect into their own hands.

"Että ihmiset on vähän semmosia, että mitä kauemman aikaa ne on saanu sitte metsästää niin sitä enemmän niillä alkaa oleen siihen hommaan vähän niinku sitä isännän otetta, että tuntuu, että he määrää nyt sitten täällä ja he ajaa sitten naapurimetsästäjät pois. Vaikka eihän se sitten niille kuulu, nehän on vaan saanu oikeuden metsästää mun mailla eikä oikeutta ajaa muita pois." (Int. F3)

"People are a bit of that kind, that the longer they have been allowed to hunt the more they are starting to act like forest owners. They begin to think that they are in charge now and then they just drive all the other hunters away. Although it's not even their business, they have only got rights to hunt on my land but no right to drive away others." (Int. F3)

"Niin kyllä se täytyy näin kans ymmärtää, että kun niitä tiettyjä oikeuksia on sinne annettu niin käytetään vain niitä oikeuksia eikä oteta omia oikeuksia. Silloinhan se rupiaa tökkimään se yhteistyö jos tulee tämmösiä." (Int. F2)

"It has to be understood that when one has got certain rights, one can only use those rights and not take the law into one's own hands. The cooperation starts to stumble if something like that comes up." (Int. F2)

According to the interviewed forest owners, a breach of contract was the most important reason leading to mistrust and decrease of the quality of the relationship between the two parties. In this study, there were some examples of the breaches of contracts, where entrepreneurs had extended their business activities to those parts of the forest, which they were not allowed to use. This could have caused some economic damage, like damage on the sapling stand, or more subjective damage, like noise. Even though all these incidents usually caused some friction and mistrust, and were considered as legitimate reasons to break off the collaboration, they had seldom led to the end of the relationship in practise. Especially, if the forest owner and the entrepreneur knew each other well, for example lived in the same community, breaking off the relationship was not considered an easy task, as it can cause major economic hardship for the entrepreneur. In contrast, in case of those entrepreneurs with no previous common history with the forest owner, ending of the relationship because of the breach of contract is much more likely.

"Kyllä sitä on luotettu hyvin. Kyllä siinä menee sukset ristiin, jos siellä ruvetaan muuta tekemään [...] jos ei sopimuksen mukaan toimita, niin sitten mennee sukset ristiin." (Int. F1)

"There has been a great confidence. If something else begins to be done there, it will cause disharmony. [...]. If you don't operate as agreed then there will be disharmony." (Int. F1)

"Suullisesti sovittihin, ei siitä mitään paperille laitettu, mutta sovittihin, että vanhoja polkuja käytetään. [...] Se on ainut miinus mitä siinä on ollut. Ne teki vähän omia polkuja sinne. Se on ainut ristiriita mitä on tullu mutta en mä ny oo sitä kieltämään lähtenyt kumminkaan." (Int. F7)

"We made an oral contract, nothing was written down, but we agreed that the old paths will be used. [...] The only negative thing that has occurred is that they made some paths of their own there. That is the only conflict that there has been between us but yet I haven't forbid the use of the forest." (Int. F7)

According to the forest owners, sticking to the contract and keeping one's promises is an essential indication of respect for the ownership. Furthermore, the way the contract was made is also considered important from ownership aspect, i.e. it should be made on the forest owner's terms and be flexible enough for changes. The forest owners did not appreciate very long-term contracts with no option to make any changes to the conditions of the contract. On the contrary, according to the interviewed forest owners, in the optimal case, the conditions of the contract would be checked every now and then so that the potential changes in the forest ownership could be taken into consideration. A fixed-term contract would thus make sure that there would be some kind of communication between the forest owner and the entrepreneur concerning the usage of the forest.

"No kyllä mun mielestä määräaikainen sopimus] olis, vaikka mitään ongelmia ei oliskaan niin se takais sen, että määrätyin väliajoin kokoonnuttais saman pöydän ääreen ja käytäis läpi puolin ja toisin asiat." (Int. F6)

"Well I think that a fixed-term contract would, although there wouldn't be any problems, it would still guarantee that there would be some meetings in regular basis and all the things would be discussed." (Int. F6)

"...ja sitte aina se oma käyttö voi muuttua, jos keksii jotain muuta tehdä, niin [pitkä sopimus] sitoo vähän liian paljon." (Int. F14)

"... and then the own forest usage can be changed, if you figure something else to do, then it [a long-term contract] will bind you a little too much." (Int. F14)

Asking for permission

According to the interviewed forest owners, asking for a permission to use the forest for business activities is self-evidently a fundamental indication of the respect for the ownership. Although in some cases the business activities can take place within the limits of the Everyman's Right, it is considered as a well advised strategy to always consult the forest owners, when planning to do business in private forests. The extent of the application of Everyman's Rights can be sometimes unclear and bring about different interpretations among the forest owners and entrepreneurs. For this reason, discussing with the forest owner and avoiding any one-sided interpretations concerning the right to use the forest for business activities, is regarded as a good basis for a successful relationship.

"Kyllä minusta se olis niinku, se on vähintä mitä voi tehdä, että se kysytään se lupa. Hyvin herkästi sitte tulee sitä sanomista jos... Vaikka olis jonkunlaisia oikeuksiakin mutta on se fiksua kysyä. Kyllä minä haluaisin, että näin toimittais. [...] No se marjastushan kuuluu niihin jokamiehen oikeuksiin mutta tietysti siinä tulee ne, että kun se kumminkin olis sitten yritystoimintaa, niin täytyishän näistä asioista sitten sopia maanomistajan kanssa, yksistään jo näitten, kun pitäähän sinne metsään kulkea, että kaikki nämä tieoikeudet ja nämä, niin kyllä se menee jo sille puolelle, että ne on niitä sovittavia asioita." (Int. F2)

"I think that the least that could be done is to ask the permission. There would be very easily something to say if... Although there were some kind of rights, it's very wise to ask. I certainly would like this kind of proceedings. [...] Well, berry picking is a part of Everyman's Rights, but of course there is this thing that when it will be business, so in that case you should make an agreement on these things with the forest owner. There are many things that need to be agreed on, for example, you have to have an access to the forest, including the rights of using the road, so these things should be agreed on." (Int. F2)

The process of asking the permission is more difficult for those entrepreneurs with no previous contact with the forest owner when compared with those already familiar with the forest owner. Using a familiar middle man, when consulting first time the forest owner, is considered one way of establishing trust between the two parties and ease thus the negotiation process.

“Että tämmönen vieras niin se tekee virheen, jos se kylmiltään tulee kysyyn, että sen täytyis yrittää täältä löytää joku puolestapuhuja, niin se olis helpompi sitten päättää. Ja tuskin ihan ventovieraalle mitään lupaa, eihän niistä koskaan tiedä, että mitä ne on.” (Int. F4)

“So a stranger makes a mistake if he will come to ask the permission without any preparations. He should try to look for a local spokesman, so it would be easier to make the decision. You hardly give any permission to strangers since you will never know what they are like.” (Int. F4)

Despite the existence of Everyman's Rights, asking for the permission to use the forest is, nevertheless often also required by law. Everyman's Rights do not allow the use of any motor vehicles, including snowmobiles, in the forests. Similarly hunting, collecting branches, and lighting open fires are also not permitted and these activities require the permission from the forest owner. Thus, respect for the ownership includes that the existing laws are taken into consideration, which links directly to the objective ownership and has also elements of psychological ownership.

Communication

Communication can be regarded as human activity that links people together and creates relationships. It can be seen as formal and informal sharing of information, which facilitates collaboration and makes beneficial outcomes possible. In this study, communication between the forest owner and entrepreneur was clearly recognised as an important element contributing to the success and sustainability of the collaboration. Similarly, the lack of collaboration was often seen to lead misunderstandings and mistrust. Thus communication can be regarded as the main element of stakeholder management. According to Kaptein and Van Tulder (2003), for example, stakeholder trust can be achieved successfully by informing stakeholders and by communicating with each other. In the stakeholder dialogue opinions are exchanged, interests and expectations are discussed and standards are developed with respect to business practice. Ultimately, a proper dialogue simultaneously enhances a company's sensitivity to its stakeholders as well as increases the stakeholders' understanding of the dilemmas facing the organization (ibid.)

As it best the communication between the two parties was described as open and informal. This means that the entrepreneur informs the forest owner concerning all the business related issues which have some effect on the forest owner. This could include, for example, any damages or any exceptional business activities planned. Furthermore, the forest owners also highly appreciated, or even expected, that the entrepreneurs would tell them all the changes, like windfalls, that they have noticed while visiting the forest. This was considered to be a certain compensation for the permission to use the forest for business activities. Similarly, the forest owners expected the entrepreneurs to consult with them any business activity they planned that was not particularly agreed on when making the contract. In many cases communication was thus strongly related to the forest owners' expectation that the entrepreneurs would ask the permission, whenever there are to be any changes to the status quo.

“Ei mulla oo mitään valittamista ollut ja kyllä ne tosiaan, jos ne jotain radikaalia siellä tekee, jotain esteitä tai muuta, niin silloin ne on aina kysynyt luvan, että saako tähän tehdä tällaisen.” (Int. F8)

“I have nothing to complain about and they do really, if they are going to do something radical in the forest, like build some fences or something, they have always asked a permission to do it.” (Int. F8)

It should be noticed though, that most of the forest owners did prefer informal communication instead of formal one when interacting with the entrepreneurs. Thus, the forest owners did not consider any official annual meetings with the entrepreneurs as a proper means for communication. Naturally, the

geographical proximity between the forest owner and entrepreneur did have some effect on the nature of communication, i.e. the geographical closeness often enabled more informal collaboration to take place.

“Jos siinä jotaki ongelmaa tuloo niin kyllä mä voin mennä vaikka sinne puhumahan tai soittaa, että kyllä se pelaa. Se menöö sitten vähän kaavamaiseksi jos sitä määräpäivänä joku kokoontumiset sovitaan. Tuntuis vähän jäykältä se.” (Int. F7)

“If there will be some problems, I can just visit them and talk or phone them, so I think that the communication is working well. In my opinion, it would be a little bit too formal if we agreed to meet on regular basis. It would feel a little bit inflexible.” (Int. F7)

“Silloin kun nähdään niin aina tahtoo tulla siitä (yhteistyöstä) jotakin juttua.” (Int. F2)

“Whenever we see each other, there is always some discussion concerning [the collaboration].” (Int. F2)

Similarly, the forest owners appreciated timely communication. For example, if the permission to use the forest area is asked separately each time, this should be done well in advance so that the forest owner would have time to make any necessary arrangements. Proper and timely communication on the activities on forest owners' land gives them a possibility to influence to unwanted activities beforehand and thus provided them a tool to exercise control over their forests utilized by the entrepreneur. Typically this possibility was respected by the forest owners and was a very important aspect in creating a trustful relationship.

“Kyllä siinä täytyy olla sellainen, että sen maanomistajan kanssa ajoissa keskustellaan.” (Int. F4)

“It is necessary that the entrepreneur discusses with the forest owner in time.” (Int. F4)

“Ja se, että minä oon sinne laavulle, jos ryhmiä on ollu, [...], että se on sit heti ku tulee ilmoitus niin se pidetään edellisenä päivänä, että se on liian nopee.” (Int. F11)

“And if there has been any tourist groups, I have guided them to the hut, [...] and I think that when the information concerning the group is given in the previous day, it is a too tight schedule.” (Int. F11)

The interviewees further produced communication as an important antecedent of trust. This does not mean, however, that trustful business relations necessary increase the frequency of communication. On the contrary, in the collaboration relationships with long history and positive experiences, the existence of mutual trust may indeed decrease the need to communication as the decisions of the partner become more predictable. In the following citation, the forest owner describes the frequency of communication between himself and the entrepreneur in a collaboration relationship, which has continued over twenty years.

“En mä oo kiinnostunut mitä siellä tehdään. Mä tiedän, että se hoitaa sen asian kun se on hänen bisnestään, että en mä halua sekaantua siihen.” (Int. F6)

“I'm not so interested in what they are doing there [in the forest]. I know that he will take a proper care of all things because that is his business. So I don't want to get involved in that.” (Int. F6)

Pierce et al. (2001) have argued that the more information is possessed about the target of ownership, the more things are felt thoroughly and deeply, and the more one becomes attached to the object. In line with this argument, it is presented here that the forest owners' need to get information concerning the business stems from their feelings of psychological ownership. Indeed, it can be suggested that for those forest owners with strong feelings of psychological ownership, communication and information sharing are very important prerequisites for good collaboration with the nature-based entrepreneurs. Similarly, those with lower feelings of ownership do not consider communication such a fundamental issue.

Professionalism of the entrepreneur

The forest owners in this study saw very unanimously, that forest owners do not have any kind of responsibility to offer their land areas to the use of nature-based entrepreneurs, even though in some of the interview cases the co-operation had started from the activity of the forest owner. Primarily as part of respecting the ownership, it was seen as entrepreneurs' duty to approach the forest owners.

"Ei, kyllä se joka on yrittäjäksi alkanut niin sieltä puolelta täytyis ottaa sitä yhteyttä." (Int. F4)
"I think that the one who has started the entrepreneurship should also be the one to take the contact." (Int. F4)

The forest owners also indicated that the entrepreneurs or parties creating recreational facilities, like long distance trails for entrepreneurs' use, should contact the forest owners in very early stage of the planning and the forest owners should have a possibility to influence these plans, for example, where the trails go and what kind of benefits the forest owners might have from them. The negative experiences and critique against "dictated orders" -approach was mainly targeted to public organizations like Regional Environment Centres and municipality officers organizing the trails for the entrepreneurs and for recreational use. This kind of critique was not so much targeted to individual entrepreneurs. However, too inflexible approach was seen by forest owners as one main factor, why the forest owners reacted negatively to the co-operation suggestions and was seen in a way as an insult against their ownership rights. On the other hand, by approaching the forest owners with a negotiative tactic and providing them alternative solutions, even forest owners firstly having negative view were able to be convinced for co-operation.

"Että olis pelisäännöt semmosia, että neuvoteltais ja katottais, että mikä alue tässä nyt voisi olla semmosta, että ei vaan tulis tyly ilmoitus, että olemme päättäneet. [...] Kun tää yhteiskunta tämmösiä erilaisia suojelualueita suunnittelee, niin täytyis olla enempi yhteistyössä maanomistajan kanssa." (Int. F5)

"... the rules should be such that there would be discussion and consideration concerning what forest area could be suitable for the activities, so that there wouldn't just be a rude announcement that we have decided. Since the society is planning to establish all kind of conservation areas, there should be more collaboration with the land owners too." (Int. F5)

"Joo perisuomalainen rupee heti vastustamaan.. Mut jos se on semmonen niin kuin avoin neuvottelu, että jos se tulee esimerkiksi aikasessa vaiheessa, että on tää alustavasti suunniteltu tai ollaan suunnittelemassa että kartoitetaan niitä vaihtoehtoja, niin siinä niinkun tavallaan se on niin kuin parempi vaihtoehto. Että lähestytään aikasessa vaiheessa eikä sitte kun se on jo niinku että nyt menee jo." (Int. F16)

"Archetypical Finn begins to resist right away. But if it's like an open negotiation, like if it comes in such an early stage that there is a tentative plan or possibilities are being charted, that would be like a better alternative. So if you approach at an early stage instead of a later point when it's already going on." (Int. F16)

The forest owners also highlighted the important role of trust in the relationship between the entrepreneur and the forest owner. The forest owner had to be sure that the entrepreneurs "know what they are professionally doing" and therefore can be sure that they will not cause any additional damage in the forest and will respect the agreed contracts and forest owners' values. The forest owners did not want to face any surprises like for example the planned use of their forests would later on suddenly change when the activities would be already partly implemented. Forbidding them in that point would put the forest owner socially in a difficult position. In many cases, when permitting the use of their forests for

the nature-based tourism, the forest owners expected that the entrepreneur will take care also for the monitoring and controlling the use of forest area in question so, that it will be used only as agreed. They also expected that the entrepreneurs would be aware of and would take care of fixing the potential damages e.g. to the forest roads. The forest owners did not want to get themselves in the position, in which they needed to oversee all the time the entrepreneurs' activities or the other use the created facilities might attract.

"No en oikestaan kun mä en oo kiinnostunut siitä mitä siellä tehdään vaan lähinnä mä haluaisin, että olis selvä vastuuhenkilö, joka hoitais ja vastais siitä, että mitä siellä tehdään." (Int. F6)

"Well, I'm not that interested in what is done there but mostly what I'd want, is that it had a defined person in charge who would take care of it and is responsible for things that are done there." (Int. F6)

At the beginning of the relationship, when there are not yet experiences of the co-operation, the familiarity of the entrepreneur or the good image of the company's activities and their professionalism were seen very important. If the plans of activities presented to the forest owner were very incomplete, the negative response from the forest owners was more likely.

"Jos lähtee sieltä valmistelusta, niin kyllä se ilman muuta täytyis paperilla olla ne suunnitelmatkin. Yleensä ne yrittäjien suunnitelmat on varmaan hyvin siellä sen päässä mutta ei ne osaa oikein tuoda niitä sillai julki. Ja monesti voi käydä niin, että se yrittäjä puhuu siitä asiastaan mutta se metsänomistaja kuvittelee, että se on ihan eri lailla menee kuitenkin." (Int. F3)

"If you begin from the preparation, so without question should also the plans be in black and white. Entrepreneurs' plans are usually well in the head but they can't express themselves. And often it can happen that the entrepreneur is talking about his or her own subject but the forest owner thinks that it goes totally different anyway." (Int. F3)

"Kyllä nämä tiedot täytyis olla yrittäjästä, että onko hän toiminut alalla jo vuosia." (Int. F4)

"There should be this information about an entrepreneur that has he/ she worked at this preserve for years." (Int. F4)

"Kyllä se riippuu henkilöstäki ja mitenkä luotettavasti, miten hän esittää sen." (Int. F9)

"It depends on a person as well and how reliably he or she represents it." (Int. F9)

Avoiding disadvantages to forest owner

One of the main criteria the forest owners raised as part of respecting their ownership was that the nature-based activities should not cause any kind of disadvantages or inconveniences to the forest owner. In case these occurred, they were strongly seen as ignoring forest owners' ownership rights, especially the control over their own property.

"Se on kyllä vähän sitte aika hankalaks tehty se oma käyttö. Se on huonempi vaihtoehto melkein kuin ihan ilmaseks luovuttoo, lahjottoo jollekkin kaikki maansa, ihan yhtä paljon on sitte niitä oikeuksia siinä. [...] No kyllä se ois sama suhtautuminen ollut että se ois sitten sama luovuttoo jo ihan ilmannii ne maat. Että siinä ei oo sitte enää omistajalla mitään merkitystä. [...] Että ei sitte pysty niin kuin.. tai ei oikeestaan sitten sen jälkeen ite omista sitä enää." (Int. F14)

"Your own personal usage has also been done quite difficult. It's almost a worse option than hand it over to someone for free; you have just as much rights after that. [...] Well, the attitude would have been the same to hand over the lands for free. So the owner doesn't have any meaning after that. [...] So you can't like... Or after that you don't actually own it yourself anymore." (Int. F14)

The forest owners typically justified allowing the nature-based activities in their forests by mentioning that the activities do not cause any major disadvantages to them. Therefore, the foreseen or experienced disadvantages for the forest owners' own use were the main reason for not agreeing on the co-operation or for terminating the existing co-operation. The experienced disadvantages can occur in various forms. They can cause limitations to the forest owners own use of the forests, cause other inconveniences, like noise or extensive traffic in their immediate neighborhood or even put the forest owner socially in a difficult position in the eyes of neighbours or the village. The forest owners defined themselves, what kinds of activities cause them the experience of disadvantages or inconveniences, and therefore, the limits for their tolerance for these are very individual. As the owners of the forest areas, the forest owners felt that these limits should be respected and they have the final authority to set the limits. In this sense the experience of inconveniences is very closely connected to the respecting the owners' identity and values. Some of the experienced disadvantages were explained by economic losses, but some were based on individual territorial or social aspects.

The main reasons for the experiences of disadvantages related to the forest owner's own use of the forest areas were based on the forest owners desire for leave the resources nature-based entrepreneurs wanted to use (like game) for their own use or anticipated problems for the main economic source of the forests, timber production. As other inconveniences were mentioned e.g. damages to the forest roads, noise and limitations to forest owner's other activities like farming in the form of blocking field roads.

"Oma käyttö rajottuu sitte hirveen paljon, että sitte se menee että ei saa mennä puuta ajamaan ja talvella ei saa traktorilla mennä." (Int. F14)

"Your own personal usage limits strictly to that, that you can't drive timber and you mustn't go there by tractor in the winter." (Int. F14)

Putting the forest owner in difficult social position in the community was also mentioned as one type of inconvenience. These could include e.g. cases where the entrepreneurs' activities would raise critique or cause problems with the neighbours or village, even though the forest owners themselves himself did not experience any disadvantages. The forest owners did not want to be blamed by allowing activities that might not be socially sustainable in the area.

"Siinä on sekin, että täytyy ottaa kyläläisiäkin huomioon, että eihän täälläkään varmaan ihan kaikki jos tää hevospaljous menis heidän läheltä vaikka meidän maalla menis..." (Int. F4)

"And then you have to take into account the villagers too. Everyone here wouldn't [approve] if this amount of horses would pass near their land, even if the track would in our land..." (Int. F4)

One of the main inconveniences the forest owners brought to the discussion was disrespectfulness towards their own farm, house or summer cottage neighborhood. This highlights the control aspect of psychological ownership and became also evident when studying the control in general. The critique towards disrespectful of the forest owners own territory was more targeted to recreational forest users, like berry pickers and hikers than towards entrepreneurs. However, in some cases the long distance trails were seen to infringe these boundaries. The concept of garden or own neighborhood varied a lot between the forest owners. Some saw that respecting the immediate fenced garden was enough, when for other forest owners all the area that can be seen or heard from the corner of their house up to 300-400 meters should be respected as private territory.

Psychological ownership through stakeholder management strategies of nature-based entrepreneurs

The forest owners have in their hold one of the key resources, nature environment, related to the business activities of nature-based tourism companies. When studying the nature-based entrepreneurs' methods to manage forest owners as their stakeholder group, four different strategies were found. These are named proactive, accommodative and defensive strategies (see Carroll 1979; Clarkson 1995) and community strategy. By taking the psychological ownership into consideration via these strategies, the nature-based entrepreneurs aim to balance the co-operation relationship and minimise the risks in long term activities based on privately owned forests. Although these strategies are constructed on the basis of the empirical data, they do not necessarily represent any particular business per se, but each interviewed business may reflect more or less the essence of a strategy and they should not necessarily be assigned to one of them. Through these typologies it is, however, possible to analyze the risks and benefits of nature-based tourism stakeholder strategies and find practical guidelines the co-operation with private forest owners.

Proactive strategy

In the proactive strategy, the entrepreneurs regarded the forest owners as one key stakeholder group concerning their business, and the forest owners were considered like normal business partners. Typical for this strategy is that the forest owners' expectations and concerns are actively addressed in the decision-making of the business. This requires active stakeholder dialogue between the nature-based entrepreneur and the forest owner, the entrepreneur being the initiator of the interaction. Furthermore, according to the proactive strategy (see Clarkson 1995) anticipation is in the key role of implementing successful stakeholder management. In this study, companies representing the proactive strategy were typically very professional, operating year around and employing staff for the season as well as year around. One typical characteristic was also the high percentage of business customers among their clientele.

The starting point for the co-operation negotiations were mutual benefits and the co-operation practices were very much like the ones in any business-to-business relationships with written agreements and contractual rights. The entrepreneurs using this strategy co-operated with several private landowners. The forest owners were primarily selected based on the suitability of their forests to the nature tourism activities of the company, not so much on the familiarity of the forest owner. The co-operation with private forest owners was seen very important to the fluent business operations and opportunities, even though alternatively forest areas existed, if needed. In this case the activities would become significantly more complicated. The following citations exemplify the business attitude of the entrepreneurs.

"Elikkä ollaan vastuussa tietysti omasta toiminnasta ja ollaan periaatteessa korvausvelvollisia täydestä summasta, mikäli aiheutetaan sinne jotakin tuhoa." (Int. E2)

"We are, of course, responsible for our own activity and in principle we are obliged to fully compensate if we cause any damage." (Int. E2)

"...toiminnassa on kuitenkin kaikista tärkein asia se kaupallisuus. Se ratkaisee suurimmaksi osaksi niitä asioita." (Int. E3)

"...the most important thing in the business is the commerciality. It will mostly solve the things." (Int. E3)

"Jos me tietään, minne on helppo mennä, totta kai se toiminta pyritään sinne päin suuntaamaan. Mutta kyllä se loppujen lopuksi on se toiminnallinen asia joka painaa." (Int. E3)

"If we know places that are easily accessed, then of course we try to direct our activities there. But in the end, it is the operational things that count." (Int. E3)

The entrepreneurs typically preferred clear, long term or continuous written agreements. Nevertheless, the entrepreneurs adopting the proactive strategy were very flexible in using different kinds of negotiation strategies with the forest owners. They "played the game" skillfully according to the forest owners' attitudes and preferences. For instance, written agreements were not imposed, if the forest owner seemed to be reluctant towards bureaucratic approaches. Local people were also used in negotiations, if not for anything else, but for preparing the right negotiation approach for each forest owner.

"Mutta sitten jos on muualla päin Suomessa niin sitten mä yleensä toimin sitten paikallisen jonkun yrittäjän kanssa, jolla on sitten taas suhteet kunnossa. On turha lähtee silleen ite ettimään niin sanotusti maita." (Int. E10)

"If I'm somewhere else in Finland, I usually co-operate with some local entrepreneur who has good networks. It's wasting of time to try to find land areas, so to speak." (Int. E10)

"Pitää mennä varovasti ovelle koputtamaan...Miettiä, mikä se on se pointti ja takataskussa olla monta eri vaihtoehtoo, monta eri keissii, miten sitä asioita voisi viedä eteenpäin." (Int. E3)

"You have to go and gingerly knock on the door. You have to think what is your point and you have to have many alternatives, many different cases, in your back pocket, how to follow through your subjects." (Int. E3)

"Sinänsä pitäis ehkä olla kaikki [sopimukset] kirjallisina mutta sitten toisaalta taas on luottoa sille, että se ehkä saattaa maanomistaja miettiä, että mihinkähän papereihin sitä nimensä laittaa." (Int. E10)

"As such, you should have all [the contracts] in black and white, but on the other hand you need to have confidence in it because the land owner might wonder what he's going to sign." (Int. E10)

The entrepreneurs clearly recognized the forest owners' psychological ownership toward their forests and were ready to compensate the use of the forests either by using money or some other benefits, like offering snowmobiles, canoes, or other equipment for the forest owners' use for free. The entrepreneurs had made some investments to the forests by building fire places and huts as operative bases for their products. Especially for these land areas clear financial compensation was paid. The entrepreneurs would have been eager to use the forest owners for wider sub-contracting as well e.g. concerning attending the facilities and trails.

In the proactive strategy, the value of pre-work was highly recognized and the companies valued their good image among the forest owners. The fluent co-operation was seen as part of the quality guarantees of the products: the satisfied forest owners were not likely to cause problems with their own forest use for the activities of the enterprise. The entrepreneurs aimed to anticipate the forest owners' attitudes and potential problems already in their product development. They e.g. explained very much in detail, what kind of nature tourism activities were planned to implement and even demonstrated them in practice for the forest owners. Also, in cases the forest owner did express the interest to utilize some of the facilities outside the business activities, they were warmly welcomed. The communication between the forest owner and entrepreneur was vivid, at least at the beginning of the activities, even though the forest owners were not notified for each individual group. In some cases also the forest owner notified the

entrepreneurs of cuttings beforehand to let them have time to adapt their activities. The entrepreneurs appreciated this, but did not necessarily expect it from forest owners, though.

“Koska se on kauhuskenaario, että me ollaan asiakkaiden kanssa siellä [...] ja sitten sieltä tulee maanomistaja ja räyhää, että mitäs te teette. Vaikka meillä ois siihen lain mukainen oikeus, niin se asiakastilaisuus on mennyt pilalle siinä vaiheessa.” (Int. E2)

“Because it’s the worst case scenario, that we are with our customers there [...] and then there comes this obstreperous land owner to ask what we’re doing there. Even if we had the right to be there according to law, the customer event is ruined at that point.” (Int. E2)

“Mut sanotaan, et siellä on kaikkein tärkein kilpailuvaltti se, et jos ne on yrityksestä kuulleet joskus, et olisivat kuulleet hyvää. Se on se lähtökohta. Silloin on asiat hyvin paljon paremmin.” (Int. E3)

“However, if you say that the most important competitive advantage is that if they have ever heard about the enterprise, they had heard something good. That’s the baseline. Then things are good.” (Int. E3)

“Jotkut maanomistajat on sen verran epäileväisiä, että heidän kanssaan tarvii ottaa esimerkiksi maastopyörät ja lähteä pyöräilemään, niin he näkee, mitä se touhu on.” (Int. E2)

“Some land owners are so skeptical, that you need to take, for example, mountain bikes with them and cycle, so they can see what this exercise really is about.” (Int. E2)

On the other hand, the entrepreneurs using the proactive strategy were expecting that their contractual rights to use the agreed forest areas were not challenged. If the agreement of the use of some facilities was made, the entrepreneurs expected e.g. the potential recreational users to yield. They also partly criticized the Everyman’s Rights in jeopardizing the quality of their products by allowing the access to the forest areas for all without limitations. In addition, the entrepreneurs required stronger public recognition of nature-based tourism as a proper business activity and had hopes that public authorities would develop legislation and tools for safeguarding the operational environment of the companies concerning the forest resources. The entrepreneurs realized the asymmetrical nature of the business relationship between the resource holder (forest owner) and the enterprise and understood its potential risks for long term operations. For instance, if operating in more guaranteed basis, like in own land, the enterprises would invest significantly more to the facilities. They also demanded legislative tools for balancing the situation, e.g. public tools for persuade the forest owners to co-operate with the entrepreneurs, when the general public interest would require it.

“Periaatteessa esim. taukopaikalta... jos meillä on taukopaikkaan sopimus, kyllä me häiritään yksiselitteisesti, jos siellä on joku...[...] Tää on meidän paikka ja sillä selvä.” (Int. E3)

“Basically for example from a break site... if we had an agreement on a break site, we would disturb if there was someone... [...] This is like our please and that’s it.” (Int. E3)

“Jotenki, jos luontomatkailu ymmärrettäisi jossain vaiheessa, että se on elinkeino... Luontomatkailu tulisi rinnastaa enemmän näihin porotalouteen ja kalastukseen ja tämmöseen.. niillä eri vapauksia liikkua maastossa.” (Int. E9)

“Somehow if nature tourism would be understood as a source of livelihood... Nature tourism should be compared more with these reindeer farming and fishing and things like these, they have exemptions considering moving in the wild.” (Int. E9)

“Suomelle haetaan koko ajan ihan selkeesti matkailusta elinkeinoo...pitäis ne elinkeinomaahdollisuudet ottaa sieltä, et okei, jos se tuo rahaa, pitää myös järjestää mahdollisuuksia.[...] Meillä lainsäätäjät liian pahasti jälessä.” (Int. E3)

“There are attempts to make tourism a source of livelihood in Finland... Business possibilities should be taken from there, like ok, if it brings money, you also need to organize possibilities. [...] Our legislator is too much behind.” (Int. E3)

As a summary, those entrepreneurs executing the proactive strategy clearly acknowledged the power of the forest owners as stakeholders. As the owner of the main resource, the forest owners were seen to have great utilitarian power to influence the operation of nature-based businesses. Similarly, the entrepreneurs also recognized the legitimacy of expectations and needs of the forest owners. Characteristic of this strategy was the entrepreneurs' aim to anticipate these expectations and needs as they are regarded them to have great urgency.

Accommodation strategy

The accommodation strategy can be considered as a less active approach of dealing with the forest owners as the stakeholders of the business when compared with the proactive strategy. Although the forest owners are regarded as an essential primary stakeholder group that contributes to the survival and success of the business, the level of anticipation to their expectations and needs is not very high (see e.g. Jawahar & McLaughlin 2001). On the contrary, typical for this strategy is an effort to satisfy the forest owners by conforming to their claims. Thus, the collaboration takes place entirely on the forest owner's terms. The relationship between the entrepreneur and the forest owner is asymmetrical, the entrepreneur clearly being the adaptable party. It should be mentioned though that this was not regarded as an unfair situation by the entrepreneurs, but more likely it was considered as a natural state of affairs. The following citations exemplify the cautious attitude the entrepreneurs had towards the collaboration with the forest owners:

"Me ollaan varovaisia ja me ei mennä kenenkään pihapiiriin eikä sillä tavalla, että siitä olis häiriötä näille ihmisille. [...] On pidettävä kiinni siitä, että ei tule sitä negatiivista ajatusta." (Int. E8)

"We are careful and never go to someone's yard area or do anything that might disturb these people. [...] You must stick on it so that there won't be any negative thoughts." (Int. E8)

"Kyllä tää valitettavasti on sillä lailla, että meidän pitää niin kuin aika nöyränä ottaa mitä saadaan, että me toimitaan sen mukaan mitä meille annetaan". (Int. E1)

"I say, that unfortunately this is so that we should be quite humble and take what we get. So we are operating according to what we are given." (Int. E1)

The businesses activities within this strategy were often unregular and rather small scale in their nature. The number of private forest owners with whom the entrepreneur collaborates was not very high. Typical for this strategy was, that the forest areas that are used for the business activities belong to family members, friends or other people living in the same community and locate usually rather close to the business. Because of the good location of the forests and their suitability for the business activity in question, good collaboration with the forest owner was regarded to be very important for the success of the businesses. The collaboration between the entrepreneur and the forest owner was based on the existing personal relationships. Therefore, asking the permission to use forest for business activities was usually an easy process for the entrepreneur. In fact, the entrepreneurs took the personal characteristics of the forest owner into account, when planning to negotiate about the collaboration and only approach those forest owners they considered to have a positive attitude towards the idea of collaboration.

Although the initiative for the collaboration usually came from the entrepreneur, it might also be the other way around. Despite the actual initiator of the relationship, characteristics of the entrepreneurs who had adopted the accommodation strategy was great reliance on the goodwill of the forest owners to get permission to use the forest land. Thus, the entrepreneurs did not pay any rent or any other financial

compensation when using the forest areas. In some cases, the entrepreneurs provided some compensation (e.g. a possibility to take part in the activities of the business) for the forest owners, though this was usually not a proactive strategy, but merely a reaction to the forest owners requests.

In the general level, the entrepreneurs, however, acknowledged that they have responsibilities towards the forest owners. Thus, they emphasized the importance of respecting the nature and ownership by not causing any harm to the forest through their business activities. They also considered that despite the existence of the Everyman's Rights, which they sometimes interpreted to include their business activities, it is still their moral responsibility to ask the forest owner a permission to use the forest area.

"Kyllä me tietenkin otetaan huomioon, että jos siellä on jotain sivuteitä tai tämmösiä ja ne on vaikka huonossa kunnossa, niin ei me autolla sotketa niitä ja ei tehdä tulia, tulipaikkoja erikseen, että lähinnä tämmöstä, että ei katkota puita." (Int. E10)

"Of course we take into consideration that if there are some byways or suchlike and if they are, for example, in bad condition so we don't mess them up by cars and we don't set up fires, camp-fires, separately. So like this that we don't cut trees." (Int. E10)

"Kyllä mä näkisin, että se on vähän semmonen moraalinen kysymys tuo, että kyllä se täytyy kysyä luvat jos tätä tehdään säännöllisesti ja tätä kautta niinku ansaitaan." (Int. E8)

"I say, as far as I can see that it's a bit like a moral question, you have to ask permissions if you do it regularly and earn money by it." (Int. E8)

The collaboration between the entrepreneurs and forest owners was based on verbal contracts, not written ones. The contracts were very informal and even more, vague in nature since the rights and duties of the entrepreneur were not very clearly defined. Thus, most of the contracts included just the permission to use the area, but not any details concerning, for example, the amount of usage, the liabilities and compensation for possible damages. From the viewpoint of strategic business planning, these kinds of contracts, although based on trust and reliance on the other party, are not regarded reasonable. On the contrary, in order to be able to plan the business activities in the long term, the entrepreneurs would appreciate written contracts for a fixed time period, usually for several years, with the clear definition of the roles and duties of both collaboration partners in order to avoid any misunderstandings. The long-term written contracts might also encourage the entrepreneur to invest to more permanent structures, like huts. The lack of written contracts can sometimes be an obstacle to the business enlargement as well. Thus, as long as the operation of a business is rather small scale and the risks included in the collaboration are small, the lack of written contracts is accepted. The following citations describe the perceptions that the entrepreneurs had towards the written contracts:

"Tää on mulla kuitenkin niin pienimuotoista tää toiminta. Että jos mä veisin bussilastillisen joka päivä sinne maille turistia, niin silloin oikeesti vaadittais varmasti kirjalliset systeemit. Mutta ei se näin pienellä mittakaavalla välttämättä vaadi sitä." (Int. E7)

"These activities of mine are in such a small-scale. If I took a bus full of people there every day, then I would be ask for written systems. However, this kind of small-scale activity doesn't necessitate it." (Int. E7)

"Että olis kirjattuna ne kaikki seikat mahdollisimman laajasti, mitkä siinä tulee ottaa huomioon ja tämä myös tämä maanomistaja näkis siitä, että mitä kaikkea se pitää sitten sisällään. Että kumpikin ymmärtää sopimuksen, että mistä on kyse." (Int. E8)

"All possible matters should be in black and white as extensively as possible, like what needs to be taken into consideration in it. This way also the land owner could see what it includes. So both will understand the contract and what it is about." (Int. E8)

Although the collaboration in this strategy was characterised by close personal relationships, there was not much communication concerning the usage of the forest area. The entrepreneur did not know, what

kind of plans the forest owner has for his/her forest, for example, whether there will be any loggings or clear cuttings. In fact, they did not usually even expect that the forest owners would share their forestry plans with them. Thus, the entrepreneurs clearly acknowledged that their business plans have to be flexible enough to survive any sudden changes in the forest. Therefore, they usually had some substitutive places, where the businesses activities can also be carried out, though replacement of some unique forest areas could be rather laborious (when compared for example with those businesses adopted the defensive strategy). The reactive reaction to the changes in the forest could therefore cause some major economic challenges for the entrepreneur.

"Ei puhuta oikeestaan sellaista. Että sanotaan nyt että jos mä haen sieltä jotain tavallisuudesta poikkeavaa niin ilmoitan siitä." (Int. E7)

"We are not really talking about things like that. Let's say that if I collect something out of line then I'm going to notify them about it." (Int. E7)

"...kyllä on joskus yllätyksiä tullut, että on mettä hakattu pois." (Int. E8)

"... there have been some surprises, like the area has been cut clear." (Int. E8)

As a summary, the entrepreneurs executing this strategy understood the economic value of the forest and acknowledged that their own business activities must give way for the forestry activities. Similar to the proactive strategy, the entrepreneurs recognized the forest owners as essential stakeholders in their business and admitted the forest owners' legitimacy and power to affect the business. One important difference in the stakeholder management between the proactive and accommodation strategies is related to the urgency of the stakeholder claims as the entrepreneurs with accommodation strategy operated in rather reactive manner in their relationships with the forest owners.

Defensive strategy

The defensive strategy adopts a very passive role when dealing with the forest owners as the stakeholders of the business. Therefore it has also some features both from defensive and reactive strategies described by Clarkson (1995). In this strategy, the forest owners were considered to have power to affect the forest management, similar to other strategies described here, but this power was not regarded to be very significant from the business' point of view. This strategy emphasizes the substitutive nature of the forest areas as a factor of production. Therefore, if a forest owner decides to use his/her ultimate power as an owner of the forest area and forbids its usage for business activities, this forest area could always be replaced with another. In this strategy, the forest owners were thus recognized as stakeholders with legitimacy and certain amount of power but the urgency of their claim on the business was not considered to be high (see Mitchell et al. 1997). Characteristic of this strategy was to diminish the dependence between the entrepreneur and the forest owner.

Similar to the accommodation strategy, the business activities in this strategy were small scale in their nature. The number of forest areas used for the business activities may, on the contrary, be rather high because of the idea of easily replaceable areas. Typical for this strategy was that the entrepreneur did not know the owner of all the forest areas he/she used for the business activities and the nature of the relationship between a forest owner and an entrepreneur was not considered to be critical element for the success of the business. In this strategy the responsibility towards the forest owners as stakeholders was at the minimum level, i.e. the entrepreneur acknowledged only his/her legal responsibilities towards the forests owner. For example, if an activity was planned to include a campfire, the forest owner was naturally asked for permission, since it is not allowed to light a camp-fire without a forest owner's authorization. Similarly, the entrepreneurs did not deny the forest owner's right to forbid the usage of the

area. This was not however considered to threaten the sustainability and success of business but it led only to the relocation of the activities, as the following citation exemplifies:

“Mutta kohtuullisesti ja se pitää ainakin itellä olla se asenne kunnossa, että sinne mennään sitten kuitenkin vähän niinku vieraisille, että pitää olla valmis ottaan sitten takapakkia jos joku siitä närkästy.” (Int. E4)

“But moderately and at least your own attitude has to be in order. You go there as like when you go to a visit and you have to be ready to go backwards if some forest owner gets irritated of the activities.” (Int. E4)

Despite those situations especially defined by the law, the entrepreneurs with this strategy did not collaborate with the forest owners but the business activities, like hiking in the forest, were carried out within the “extended Everyman’s rights”. This means that the Everyman’s Rights were extended to apply to the situations of business activities as well. The entrepreneurs recognised that their interpretation of the Everyman’s Rights is not sustainable as it violates the ownership issues, but they were still willing to take the chance and trusted on forest owner’s goodwill as the following citation shows:

“...mä menen siellä ihan luottavaisena tällaisella laajennetulla jokamiehen oikeudella. Mutta jos joku maanomistaja tulis siitä mulle sanomaan, niin en mä alkais sen kanssa riidellä siitä, koska mä tajuan että se ei kuulu jokamiehen oikeuksiin, vaan se on sitten lähdeittävä sitä jotenkin sovittamaan.” (Int. E4)

“... I move there as quite confident with this kind of an extended Everyman’s Rights. However, if some land owner came and remark me on it, I wouldn’t begin to fight about it because I understand that it isn’t a part of Everyman’s Rights and we would need to go and make an agreement on it somewhere.” (Int. E4)

The entrepreneurs further justified the decision not to ask any permission by the fact that their business activities do not harm the forest in any way and the nature is always treated with respect. Thus, it could be said that the respect for nature clearly overcomes the respect for the ownership in this strategy. But more like, in this strategy there is low appreciation of the seven practical themes of psychological ownership. This means that communication between the entrepreneur and the forest owner was almost non-existent, there were no written or oral contracts concerning the usage of the forest areas as well as any financial or other compensation for the forest owner. Indeed, the entrepreneurs did not believe that financial compensation is necessary because the usage of the privately owned forest was not considered as a business relation, meaning renting of a factor of production. On the contrary, in this strategy using forests for business purposes was seen as an utilisation of free natural resource, which will not lose any of its economic value from this kind of business usage.

“Mä ratkais sen niin, että mä monesti menen vaan mutta otan siitä sitten täyden vastuun [...] Mutta yritän, oon onnistunut toimimaan kuitenkin sillä tavalla, että se ei oo mitään närkästystä herättänyt kenessäkään.” (Int. E4)

“I solve it that way that I often just go, but I take the whole responsibility on it, too. [...] But I try, I have succeeded to work in a way that hasn’t risen anyone’s eyebrows.” (Int. E4)

As a summary, the entrepreneurs executing the defensive strategy acknowledged the power that the forest owners have in relation to their business activities. They also thought that the forest owners do have a legitimate right to use this power and express different stakeholder claims. However, they did not consider the forest owners’ power as a major threat to their business activities. On the contrary, the significance of this power to their business activities was regarded to be rather minimal. Furthermore, the entrepreneurs did not usually consider the urgency of the forest owners claims as very important aspect in their stakeholder relationships. The entrepreneurs themselves, however, did feel some psychological ownership towards the forest as they felt that they have a certain right to do business there according to their values.

Community strategy

In the community strategy, the forest owners were seen as stakeholders, but not having an actual key stakeholder role, even though the forest owners hold a critical forest resource relating to the company's business activities. Similar to defensive strategy, the forest owners were considered to have power to affect the business activities, but this power was not regarded to have any great significance for the sustainability of the business. Thus, the entrepreneurs were not worried about the sustainability and continuity of the co-operation, even though the access to private forests was seen critical for the business operations and the business operations were year around activities. They trusted strongly on the social pressure of the village or the area to guarantee the forest owners having positive approach to the "one of the last sources of livelihoods in the remote rural regions". In entrepreneurs' point of view, if the residents want to keep the village alive, they cannot afford to cause too many difficulties to the entrepreneurship in the area. Typically, the entrepreneur had a relatively significant role in the village society, for example as a large landowner and/or native resident, having therefore important social status and strong influence potential in the community. In this strategy, the power of forest owners to affect the business was thus compensated with the social power of the entrepreneurs.

"Kyllä siinä sellainen sosiaalinen paine on, että ei [metsänomistajat] viitti kieltää vaikka ei niin innostunu asiasta olisikaan mutta ei sitten kuitenkaan sillä tavalla reagoi." (Int. E10)
"I say, there is this social pressure so [the forest owners] don't bother to deny even if they weren't that thrilled about it, they just don't react that way." (Int. E10)

"No ensinnäkin kun ne tuntee ja tietää ja kun on sitä muuta yhteistyötä ja tämmöstä, niin tämä on periaatteessa yks osa sitä. Tavallaan luo sitten jatkuvuutta muihinkin hommiin sitten." (Int. E10)
"Well, at first, when you know them and there is this other co-operation and everything, this is basically one part of it. In one sense it creates continuity in other business, too." (Int. E10)

The entrepreneurs co-operated with several, even up to hundred of forest owners. Similar to the accommodation strategy, the forest areas that were used for the business activities belong often to family members, friends or other people living in the same community and located usually rather close to the business. Although good relationships with the forest owners were highly appreciated also in this strategy, they were often taken for granted rather than actively maintained. In other words, living in the same community was considered to be a sufficient means to maintain the sustainability of the relationships. Thus, even though the entrepreneur and the forest owner may see each other regularly in several occasions, from the stakeholder management viewpoint the co-operation between these two parties can still be rather minimal after asking the permission for the business activities and based on very random communication.

"No jos ajatellaan, että tällä kylällä toimii niin nehän on ihan elintärkeitä, että ei se muuten [yrittystoiminta] onnistuisi, jos ei ne suhteet olisi kunnossa." (Int. E10)
"Well, when operating in this village, they are essential. If the relationships weren't in good order, it [the business] wouldn't succeed." (Int. E10)

Similar to the accommodation strategy, the entrepreneurs did not compensate the use of land to the forest owners. They expected, however, the reciprocity between the village residents to be normal activity. Thus, in return for the usage of the forests for the business activities, the entrepreneurs were willing to help the forest owners, if needed. Often this neighborhood help was related to different kind of farm work or maintenance of private roads.

“Yleensä sitä [metsänomistajaa] jeesataan jossain kun se tarttee apua vaikka jossain, ihan sanotaan vaikka jos olis vaikka maatila niin esimerkiksi heinähommassa tai jossain tämmösessä. [...] Ne ei hae sitä rahallista arvoa, että sitä kuin pitää ihan normaalia suhdetoimintaa yllä niin se on niinku sitten taas vastapalvelus.” (Int. E10)

“Usually he [the land owner] is given a hand when he needs help in something. Like if he has a farm so we can help him with harvesting or something like that. [...] They are not looking for financial benefit from it but they see it as normal publicity so that it's like a service in return.” (Int. E10)

The collaboration between the entrepreneurs and forest owners was based on informal verbal agreements. The contracts were very informal and similar to the accommodation strategy, the rights and duties of each party were not very clearly defined. But in contrast to the accommodation strategy, the entrepreneurs did not anticipate the vagueness of the contracts to cause any severe problems in the near future, even though some of the forest owners did not live in the village anymore.

The relationship between the forest owner and entrepreneur seemed to be more in balance, if not asymmetrical on the entrepreneurs' benefit, than in the other strategies. Nevertheless, the entrepreneurs adopting the community strategy respected the forest owners' ownership concerning their forests and appreciated the forest owners' rights to make e.g. logging decisions without any notification. They would react immediately by changing their practices, if problems with the forest owners or other interest groups, like summer cottage residents, occurred in order to smooth the situation and fix the problem. The problems were mostly dealt with, when they were acute, not too much anticipated beforehand. It was also very clear to the entrepreneurs where the “limits to use the forests for their business activities were” and they tried not to extend these limits.

As a summary, the entrepreneurs executing the community strategy compensated the power and legitimacy of the forest owners' stakeholder claims with their own social power in the community. They did not consider the forest owners power to influence the business activities as a major threat to their businesses. Instead, they emphasized the responsibility of the community to contribute to the success and sustainability of their businesses as it was considered to increase the well being of the whole community. Furthermore, the entrepreneurs did not usually consider the urgency of the forest owners claims as very important aspect in their stakeholder relationships.

Conclusions

Based on the results of this research, it can be stated that the psychological ownership has an essential role in the relationship between forest owners and nature-based entrepreneurs, and it brings a valuable new viewpoint in implementing this co-operation in practice. Of the three aspects of psychological ownership, control, self-identity and "having a space", especially the control and self-identity were highlighted in the opinions of the forest owners, even though it must be noted that all these three aspects are very much linked together. The control was experienced as an interesting combination of providing public goods and right to control the owned property. It became evident in the forest owner's opinions, that they think that they have the justified right to stipulate the conditions of the use of their forests according to their own values and aspirations, and to control the activities in the forests based on them. The forest holdings were compared with agricultural land or other property and unauthorized utilization of it was compared even with steeling. However, at the same time the forest owners acknowledged that the Everyman's Rights granted public access to their forests and they did not oppose those rights as such, as long as the limitations of them are followed. In other words, the long tradition of free access to nature in Finland was not challenged by the forest owners and they were willing to provide recreational values to other citizens on some extent, as long as it did not cause disadvantages for their own forest use or damages to the forests. Nevertheless, in these cases the forest owners saw that their goodwill should be respected by behaving well and according to the forest owners' values in the forests. Experienced violations against the forest owners control typically had a negative influence to any co-operation relationships suggested in the future. The experience of control varied individually as did the tolerance of the violations against it.

The forest owners also used forests, especially inherited ones, to build their self-identity. Even though most did not describe themselves as forest owners, forests had a significant role in creating identity based on e.g. to the family history and old home region. The owners were not interested to sell their forest areas and saw it important to keep the forests areas within family as a heritage for the future generations. Forests were also considered as sources of (economic) security for their owners, which, in addition to the self-identity, reflected the forest owners' motives for having a space of their own. More generally, owning a forest is also related to the peoples' innate territoriality needs, though this aspect was not surprisingly very clearly emphasized in this data. Due to all this, the emotional aspects were very much highlighted in the co-operation relationships with nature tourism entrepreneurs causing the fact that the relationship with a nature-tourism enterprise cannot directly be compared to typical business relationship, in which the actors are expected to operate on rational basis maximizing their benefits. For this reason it must be recognized that the monetary compensation is necessarily not enough in creating successful co-operation relationship, especially in nature-tourism sector, when the compensation amount are more nominal than competitive. The compensation typically has a positive impact, but if psychological ownership is not respected, alone the compensation does not create or maintain successful co-operation.

The psychological ownership became visible in the ways the forest owners wanted their ownership to be respected. Seven practical themes were found as a result of this study and in most of them more than one aspect of psychological ownership, control, self-identity and 'having a space', are represented. Violations against these themes were considered to jeopardize the forest owners' controlling power and therefore their identity as the owners of the forest areas.

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- *Avoiding any damage*: damaging the forests and causing value losses was regarded as an indication of indifference towards both psychological and legal ownership.
 - *Proper compensation*: some kind of compensation was assumed to indicate that the entrepreneurs do not take the collaboration for granted and acknowledge the ownership issues.
 - *A clear contract and commitment to it*: the contract (often short-term) should be clearly and accurately defined since the issues of control and liability should be discussed. Otherwise violations, against psychological ownership are likely to happen.
 - *Asking for permission*: the permission should always be requested before starting the business or making any major changes to the prevailing business practices in order to respect psychological ownership.
 - *Communication*: should be open and should also include common planning in order to respect the controlling power of the forest owner.
 - *Professionalism of the entrepreneur*: existence of the proper business plans and a negotiative attitude indicate the appreciation of the forest owners' opinions in business planning phase and increases the trust between the forest owner and the entrepreneur.
 - *Avoiding disadvantages to forest owner*: causing disadvantages (e.g. limitations to the forest owners own use of forests) were strongly seen as ignoring forest owners' ownership, especially the control rights over their property.

These practical these were also taken into consideration by the entrepreneurs in their stakeholder management strategies. Four different stakeholder management strategies were found, that were used to establish and maintain the co-operation with the forest owners. The strategies differed from each other based in general on the proactivity of the entrepreneur, interpretation of the forest owner as a key stakeholder and acknowledging the psychological ownership of the forest owner. Of these strategies proactive strategy, accommodation strategy and defensive strategy has been identified also by Clarkson (1995) when studying corporate social performance. In addition to these three strategies also a new strategy, so called community strategy was found. The community strategy has a lot of features from the accommodation strategy, like acknowledging the forest owners right to decide of the use of their forests according to their values and needs, but it differentiates from it based on the strong presence of social aspects influencing to the stakeholder management strategy. The social environment influences on the behavior of both the entrepreneur and forest owners by increasing the forest owners' tolerance towards ownership violations.

The nature-based tourism entrepreneurs operating on the private owned lands are typically in a very asymmetrical co-operation relationship with the forest owners. Based on the legal ownership rights, the forest owners have direct influence possibility to the companies' activities by either providing or withdrawing the access to the one main resource of the production, the forest areas. Even when operating on the basis of the Everyman's Rights, the forest owners can make nature-based tourism activities very difficult to implement on their land, if they set their mind into that. According to Mitchell et al 1997, the forest owners have in theory all of the main characteristics of key stakeholders: disputable legal right to the stake, power to directly influence the companies' activities and their claims need to be addressed with a certain level of urgency. All four stakeholder management strategies found here recognised the legitimacy of the forest owners when the use of the forest areas is concerned. However, there is variation on, how strongly the two other characteristics of the key stakeholder definition have been taken into consideration between the found strategies (Table 4).

In the proactive strategy the entrepreneurs have a very active role aiming to anticipate the potential needs and conflict spots in the co-operation with the forest owners beforehand. In the accommodation strategy, on the other hand, there is more reactive approach dealing with the forest owners needs, when they are current. In the defensive strategy there is no proactivity or anticipation at all. The forest owners' needs are not considered to have major importance to the business activities since there is a possibility to choose alternative forest area for business activities, if problems should occur. The entrepreneurs utilizing the community strategy do not either anticipate the potential needs of the forest owner, but rather deal with them when or if they occur. Also they do not typically expect problems with the forest owners, but rely on the social responsibility of the community to contribute to the success of their business as well as their own social position to influence others.

When considering ownership as dual creation according to Rogers and Pierce (2004), it can be stated that legitimacy is foremost related to the objective ownership. Power and urgency elements on the other hand have more connections also to the psychological ownership along with objective ownership. Therefore, it can be stated that according to the results of this study, psychological ownership has central role in co-operation and management strategies, since it seems that the different strategy choices are based especially on the different recognition of the aspects of psychological ownership.

Table 4. *The recognition of the forest owners as key stakeholders in the different stakeholder management strategies*

Characteristics of stakeholder	Proactive strategy	Accommodation strategy	Defensive strategy	Community strategy
Legitimacy concerning the stake	Clearly acknowledged	Clearly acknowledged	Clearly acknowledged	Clearly acknowledged, but compensated with their own social power in the community
Power concerning the stake	Clearly acknowledged	Clearly acknowledged	Acknowledge the power, but not consider it significant concerning business activities	Somewhat acknowledged, but compensated with their own social power in the community; not consider it as a major threat
Urgency in which the claims of the stakeholder should be reacted	Great urgency, anticipation of the forest owners' needs	Medium urgency, rather reactive approach to the forest owners' needs	Do not usually consider the urgency related to the forest owners' needs	Do not usually consider the urgency related to the forest owners' needs as very important

In general it can be stated that the more the factors of psychological ownership are taken into consideration in co-operation relationship, the more secure and balanced the co-operation is, especially on long term. In the table 5, the themes of psychological ownership are presented as well as how they are taken in consideration in each stakeholder management strategy.

Table 5. The recognition of the practical level themes in the stakeholder management strategies

	Proactive strategy	Accommodation strategy	Defensive strategy	Community strategy
Avoiding damage	High respect for the economical and ecologic aspects of the forest	High respect for the economical and ecologic aspects of the forest	Respect for the ecologic aspects of the forest	Respect for the economic aspects of forest
Compensation	Compensation either monetary or otherwise	Occasional compensation, no monetary compensation	Compensation is considered unnecessary	Compensation is considered unnecessary, some reciprocity activities
Contract	Accurate	Inaccurate	No contracts	Inaccurate
Permission	Permission is asked every time	Permission is asked every time	Permission is usually not asked	Casual permission is asked every time
Communication	Active including pr-work and common planning	Occasional, no common planning	No communication	Occasional/minimal, no common planning
Professionalism	Very professional, aims to anticipate the forest owners' attitudes and potential problems	Informality and trust prevailing, lack of anticipation	Lack of anticipation	Based on social pressure
Avoiding disadvantage	Strong avoidance of disadvantages	Strong avoidance of disadvantages	Medium avoidance of disadvantages	Medium avoidance of disadvantages

On the basis of the results, we suggest that from the forest owners' point of view, four factors of psychological ownership, "avoiding damage", "contract", "asking permission" and "avoiding disadvantage" seem to be the critical ones, and neglecting these typically leads to the termination of co-operation. These themes are taken, at least in some extent, into consideration in all strategies, where the relationship actually occurs. Otherwise the co-operation could not continue.

Three other themes, "compensation", "communication" and "professionalism", do not seem to be as vital for the co-operation, and in fact, if the four critical factors are properly taken into consideration, the forest owners seemed to be ready to yield a bit concerning these themes. Nevertheless, we argue that these three themes have a significant role in balancing the relationship and contributing to the success of the collaboration. They are especially used in the proactive business strategy, in which the entrepreneurs actively aim to reduce the risks of asymmetrical relationship. On the other hand, in the accommodative business strategy there is no active endeavour to balance the relationship and lack of attention on these three psychological ownership themes is one main difference between proactive and adoptive business strategies.

In the community strategy, the psychological ownership themes are not generally well considered. However, social pressure clearly lowers the forest owners' sensitivity towards violations against the psychological ownership and actually explains in large part the existence of co-operation in this strategy. It balances the relationship from entrepreneurs' viewpoint, at least on short-term. In the defensive strategy, the relationship between the forest owners and entrepreneurs had been balanced by diminishing it, i.e. when the dependence on the individual forest owner is minimal, the effects of the termination of the relationship are not vital either. (Table 6)

Table 6. Tools used in different strategies for balancing the co-operation relationship

Co-operation strategy	Tools to balance the relationship
Proactive strategy	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ professional documents and agreements ■ pr-work ■ clear compensation ■ public tools, changes to legislation
Accommodation strategy	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ no real attempt to balance the relationship
Defensive strategy	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ the relationship “balanced” by diminishing it
Community strategy	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ social pressure ■ regional occasional reciprocity

The results also show that some of the entrepreneurs clearly express ownership towards the forest areas they use. This transpires as high responsibility towards the ecological sustainability of the forest and also as a feeling of a right to use the forest without the permission of the legal owner. Therefore, it can cause both positive and negative effects on the co-operation. This shows that especially in the forest context, when some degree of public access rights prevails, the psychological ownership is not necessarily connected to legal ownership. This can provide surprising conflicts of interests to the land use activities even when private forest areas are concerned. The people utilising public access to the forests can claim “psychological demands” towards the use of private forest areas, even though they do not have legal bases for this, e.g. a demand for maintaining good areas for berry picking. Even though this phenomenon is much stronger in the public forests, it can still occur in the private forests as well.

When comparing the different stakeholder strategies, it must be noted that all presented strategies have proved to be successful in the practice. The selection of stakeholder management strategy depends a lot on the intensity and form of nature-based tourism activities. However, based on the results, the risks and benefits of each strategy can be evaluated regarding to how well the psychological ownership aspects are acknowledged. The proactive strategy clearly avoids to overlook the forest ownership either objective or psychological. It is, though valued by the forest owners, a bit laborious for the nature-based entrepreneurs, especially if the nature tourism activities are based on random utilisation of the forests. Nevertheless, with clear commitments stipulating also the nature-based tourism entrepreneurs rights, not only the obligations, and aiming to anticipate the potential problems beforehand, the proactive strategy is relatively secure for the long-term business activities.

The accommodation strategy aims also to respect the forest owners’ psychological ownership, however, without any active aspiration to balance the co-operation relationship. Therefore, the entrepreneurs utilising the accommodation strategy are typically “at the mercy of the forest owners”, so to say in a case of disagreements. This creates a clear risk for the business operations. On the other hand the accommodation strategy is less laborious stakeholder management strategy for the entrepreneurs, still maintaining the trustful relationship with the forest owners.

The defensive strategy disregards many of the aspects of the psychological ownership, even though it clearly respects the forest owners’ legal ownership over their forest areas. The strategy can be seen somewhat risky concerning long-term business operations. Even if the activities do not legally violate the forest owners’ property rights, the quality of the tourism products can be jeopardised by the activities of an “insulted forest owner”. However, the entrepreneurs using this strategy accept this risk. On

the other hand, the stakeholder management does not require any resources from the nature-based entrepreneurs and enables utilisation of wide forest areas, which would be otherwise almost impossible. Also in the community strategy many aspects of psychological ownership are disregarded. However, they respect the forest owners' legal ownership over the forests. The potential changes in the forest owning structure, e.g. by heritage, may create major challenges to the business activities since the social control cannot usually be extended to the forest owners living outside the community. This is not always realized by the entrepreneurs. The community strategy is nevertheless very flexible for the entrepreneurs and the relationships can be seen rather balanced.

Impact of the results to the current compensation systems

It must be remembered, that the forest owners have a strong desire to maintain the control of their forests as it influences also their identities as forest owners. These results verify some existing practices and bring some new points of view to the implementation of the current compensation schemes such as recreational value trading or landscape renting model. Both of the existing schemes are based on voluntary activities of the forest owners. Based on this study, this is essential in order to take in consideration the psychological ownership, especially its control effect. If the forest owners would be stipulated, what should be done, the conflicts would entail. This has been the case e.g. on some previous nature conservation schemes. According to our results, the failure in implementation of these schemes has caused forest owners' negative attitude also towards all kind of future co-operation activities, whether initiated by public or private actors. Therefore, it must be highlighted that contacting the forest owners and implementing the schemes should be very carefully considered beforehand in order to avoid the collapse of all kind of co-operation possibilities for a long time, since one forest owner owns the forest usually for decades. Thus, the forest owners must, to the certain extent, maintain the feeling of control during the whole process. This is especially important in the beginning of the co-operation when trust between the partners does not necessarily exist yet.

As one reason for the lack of utilisation of the existing schemes has been presented that the harmonized practices and contracts are missing, since the agreements are based on the interests of the parties in each case (see Temisevä et al. 2008). However, according to the results of this study, the forest owners respect the negotiative attitude and the possibility to influence the agreements. Especially important this is concerning the psychological ownership values. By acknowledging this, also those forest owners, who originally had negative attitudes towards co-operation, could have been persuaded to agree for it. In that sense it could be a mistake to harmonise the system too much.

It must also be remembered that the collaboration between a forest owner and an entrepreneur cannot usually be considered as a typical business relationship. Therefore, it is very important to understand the values of those forest owners, who are approached when implementing the schemes. Similarly, the forest owners are not a homogenous stakeholder group (see Karppinen 2000), therefore there must be a flexible attitude when implementing the compensation schemes in general, which naturally sets challenges to public rules and regulations related to the schemes.

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