

Not so biocentric – Environmental benefits and harm associated with the acceptance of forest management objectives by future environmental professionals

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Highlights

- Environmental concerns were clustered by two factors: anthropocentric and biospheric.
- Positive consequences were more important than negative in determining acceptance.
- Consequences to humans were more important than to the environment.
- Gender influenced the endorsement of forest management objectives.

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4 1 **Not so biocentric – An evaluation of benefits and harm associated with acceptance of forest**
5 2 **management objectives among future environmental professionals in Finland.**
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8 4 **Abstract**

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10 5 It is not yet completely clear how individuals weigh positive and negative consequences of specific
11 6 environmental actions to the self, others and nature, and how these evaluations are associated with
12 7 the acceptance of such environmental actions. We explored how the acceptance of ecosystem
13 8 service-related forest management objectives were associated with perceived positive and negative
14 9 consequences, perceived knowledge of these objectives, and gender among future professionals. We
15 10 analysed a survey collected among Finnish university students majoring in agriculture and forestry,
16 11 and biological and environmental sciences (N=159). We found that environmental concerns
17 12 followed a two-factor structure: concerns for humans and concerns for the environment. Perceived
18 13 harm to nature and humans reduced the acceptance of timber and bioenergy objectives, but only the
19 14 effect of perceived harm to humans remained when they were considered together with perceived
20 15 benefits. Perceived knowledge of the objectives had little effect on acceptance of the objectives.
21 16 Females endorsed the biodiversity and climate objectives more than males, whereas males endorsed
22 17 timber objectives more than females. These results show that in the context of ecosystem service
23 18 management, positive consequences are more important than negative in evaluating bioeconomy
24 19 objectives, and that consequences to humans are more important than consequences to the
25 20 environment.
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38 22 **1. Introduction**

39 23 The bioeconomy is currently being promoted as an important sustainability avenue in the
40 24 Nordic countries and globally (Bioeconomy, 2012; USA, 2012). The main idea is to replace non-
41 25 renewable materials with bio-based solutions, including bio-fuels and bio-energy, bio-material and
42 26 bio-chemicals (Hetemäki, 2014; Ollikainen, 2014; De Besi and McCormick, 2015). Forest
43 27 ecosystems and the forest sector play a fundamental role in this context as an important
44 28 provisioning source.

45 29 A renewal of forest management objectives under the Finnish Bioeconomy Strategy (Biotalous
46 30 in Finnish) could affect the availability and trade-offs of ecosystem services to different societal
47 31 actors. This discussion thus requires an assessment of the level at which sustainable bio-based value
48 32 chains suit the motivations behind pro-environmental or ‘green’ value creation by value chain
49 33 actors (e.g., Birch and Tyfield 2013; Jing and Jiang, 2013). In the value-basis theory, attitudes can

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62 34 act to guide behaviour that is linked to the mitigation of negative environmental impacts (i.e.,
63 environmental externalities) based on the relative importance placed on that impact (Stern and
64 35 Dietz, 1994). On that basis, actions by value chain actors to mitigate negative environmental
65 36 impacts at different points in the value chain could be motivated by their concern for the potential
66 37 impacts.
67 38 impacts.

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71 39 Value-basis theory can be considered a form of non-monetary approach to ecosystem services
72 40 valuation to inform and enable sustainable ecosystem management. Despite the growing interest in
73 41 non-monetary techniques in ecosystem service research, so far there have been very few direct
74 42 applications of the approach to specific ecosystem service-oriented management objectives (for
75 43 exceptions see e.g., Lamarque et al., 2014). Non-monetary valuation is important for addressing
76 44 some of the limitations of monetary valuation; especially of non-market valuation approaches (e.g.,
77 45 willingness-to-pay) that tend to not account for differences in value orientations between
78 46 independent outcomes (i.e., two differing ecosystem service offerings – which are the basis of
79 47 exchange whereby firms and individuals co-create value with natural ecosystems (Matthies et al.,
80 48 2016a), an outcome can lead to trade-offs or conflicts within the cognitive space.

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88 49 In environmental psychology, pro-environmental behaviour has been defined as behaviour that
89 50 aims at minimizing the negative impacts on the environment (Kollmuss and Agyeman, 2002). Since
90 51 pro-environmental behaviour of individuals is driven by a complex set of underlying factors that are
91 52 uniquely and phenomenologically determined, clarifying an entire set of factors behind pro-
92 53 environmental behaviour by individual actors is challenging and potentially infeasible (Kollmuss
93 54 and Agyeman, 2002). Still, the pro-environmental concerns of economic actors have previously
94 55 been shown to be important predictors of pro-environmental behaviour (e.g., Schwartz, 1973;
95 56 Schwartz and Howard, 1981; Stern et al., 1993, 1995; Schultz, 2001; Snelgar, 2006). Additionally,
96 57 Fietkau and Kessel (1981) have demonstrated that knowledge and attitudes are also important for
97 58 understanding pro-environmental behavior. To better understand the role of concerns in determining
98 59 behavior, Schultz (2001) has presented a survey method for eliciting the attitudes of environmental
99 60 concerns of individuals. He suggested that egoism (i.e, personal well-being), altruism (i.e., social
100 61 well-being), and biospherism (i.e., environmental health) form a tripartite characterizing of the pro-
101 62 environmental concerns of individuals following Stern et al. (1993). Other authors, such as Snelgar
102 63 (2006), have demonstrated that this method is both robust and provides replicable results.

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112 64 To better account for the trade-offs associated with the utilization of ecosystem service offerings
113 65 by different value chain/network actors, we have proposed using the survey method that was

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121 66 developed by Shultz to elicit general environmental concerns related to self, other humans and
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123 67 nature, to elicit the pro-environmental concerns of actors for different forestry-related ecosystem
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125 68 service categories. The aim of this approach is to determine if there are differences in the
126 69 environmental concerns among individuals towards different ecosystem service offerings in the
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128 70 context of the bioeconomy. This will be important, as previous research has indicated that there are
129 71 important underlying factors related to concerns about bioenergy and timber production within the
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131 72 broader range of ecosystem services (e.g., in relation to the regulation of genetic diversity and
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133 73 climate change) (Karppinen 1998; Halder et al. 2010; 2011).

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135 74 Moreover, much of the pro-environmental concern literature only considers environmental
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137 75 impacts at the general level focusing on negative impacts. Nevertheless, risk perception literature
138 76 suggests that people evaluate both negative and positive consequences, which both influence the
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140 77 acceptance of a risk and that positive consequences can be even more important than negative ones
141 78 (Siegrist, 1999; 2000; Siegrist et al., 2007; Visschers et al., 2011). Impacts act to constrain
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143 79 ecosystem service provisioning to the economy and society, and are phenomenologically
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145 80 determined by individuals along the value chain or in the network of chains. This includes both
146 81 positive and negative environmental impacts, which influence the total potential value available
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148 82 along a value chain or throughout a network of chains (Jing and Jiang, 2013; Matthies et al., 2016a).

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150 83 The aim of this study is thus to apply value-basis theory methods to elicit pro-environmental
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152 84 concern and acceptance of specific management objectives under a bioeconomy in Finnish forests.
153 85 The four selected forest management objectives include: biomass for bioenergy production, timber
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155 86 for long-term storage of carbon, genetic and structural diversity to support ecosystem diversity, and
156 87 conservation of forest to support carbon sequestration and storage. Forest management objectives
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158 88 were used in the survey, as these are terms that all students surveyed are familiar with whereas the
159 89 concept of ecosystem services was considered unfamiliar to a minority of students. We have
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161 90 adapted the Schultz (2001) method to evaluate the pro-environmental concern and applied it
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163 91 separately to each of these four ecosystem service-related categories in the context of boreal forest
164 92 management objectives in Finland. These four categories coincide with the categorizing according
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166 93 to the CICES (2013) classification framework. A survey, adapted following Schultz (2001) and
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168 94 Snelgar (2006) was developed for eliciting how individuals' concern for each ecosystem service
169 95 objective, including both positive and negative concerns, is structured (See Supplementary
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171 96 Materials). The survey was administered to students of natural resource management at the
172 97 University of Helsinki in Helsinki, Finland between January and May 2016. The surveyed students
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174 98 represented future professionals who will make decisions about forest ecosystem services as part of

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180 99 their career work in the future, and therefore it was considered important to understand better how
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182 100 they perceive environmental concerns associated with forest management issues.
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184 101 **2. Pro-environmental concerns for ecosystem services in the bioeconomy**

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186 102 The ecosystem service concept emphasizes the benefits derived from natural and semi-natural
187 103 ecosystems. It is an anthropocentric approach for determining the service value flows (i.e.,
188 103 quantity/quality over time) from ecological processes for the benefit of human beings (de Groot et
189 104 al., 2002; MEA, 2005; Turner and Daily, 2008; Fisher et al., 2009; Matthies, 2016).
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193 106 Lusch and Vargo (2014), Matthies et al. (2016a) and Vargo and Lusch (2016) all have proposed
194 107 that the ecosystem service approach is actually a part of the service-dominant logic of value co-
195 107 creation. Based on that logic, the interaction (e.g., management) with natural ecosystems by human
196 108 actors results in decisions that impact ecosystem service provisioning over the entire chain or
197 109 network of actors and value interactions. Actions that increase or decrease ecosystem service
199 110 provisioning have co-current impacts on or trade-offs with the provisioning of other ecosystem
200 110 service offerings. These impacts, which Matthies et al. (2016a) have termed *value-in-impact*, are
201 111 part of the total potential value available to subsequent actors or beneficiaries in the chain or
202 112 network. According to the same theory, an individual's environmental concerns can have an
203 112 important role in determining the value creation opportunities that result from utilizing a given set
204 113 of ecosystem service offerings relative to alternative sets of offerings.
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211 117 In the context of environmental psychology, Schwartz's (1973, 1977) norm-activation theory
212 117 states that pro-environmental behaviour is carried out in response to the personal moral norms
213 118 related to those actions when the individual believes that certain actions lead to negative impacts on
214 119 the environment, and thus on individuals or society. It follows that the individual also believes that
215 119 their actions will help to avert the negative impacts on the environment. Following the norm-
216 120 activation theory, the value-belief-norm (VBN) theory was further refined by Stern et al. (1999),
217 121 also drawing from the New Ecological Paradigm (Dunlap and Van Liere, 1978, 1984). According to
218 121 the VBN theory, held values shape individuals' worldviews and beliefs about environmental
219 122 problems. When the individual believes that adverse consequences are threatening the valued
220 122 object(s), personal norms take place in triggering response behaviours. The VBN theory suggests
221 123 that there are three types of environmental concerns: egoism, social-altruism, and biospherism
222 124 (Stern, 1995; Rhead et al., 2015). This three-factor model was postulated to be sufficient to fully
223 124 capture individuals' concerns related to environmental issues, based on both theoretical and
224 125 empirical research (Stern et al., 1993; Schultz, 2001; Snelgar, 2006). Environmental concerns are
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131 thus shown to be based on values (e.g., Stern and Dietz, 1994). It is important to note that, in this
132 study, we apply the concept of environmental concern as it was defined and operationalized by
133 Schultz (2001) and we do not explore the association between values and environmental concerns.

134 Much of the pro-environmental concern literature, only considers environmental impacts at the
135 general level with a focus on negative impacts. Risk perception literature, instead, suggests that
136 people evaluate both negative and positive consequences, which both influence the acceptance of
137 risks associated with environmental actions; positive consequences can be even more important
138 than negative ones (Siegrist, 1999; 2000; Siegrist et al. 2007; Visschers et al., 2011).

139 Furthermore, the acceptance of different environmental actions is also associated with
140 individuals' knowledge of these in a complex way. For example in forest sciences literature, Halder
141 et al. (2011) found that most knowledgeable students in bioenergy were also the most critical in
142 their attitudes towards the use of forest-based bioenergy. Uliczka et al. (2004) found that private
143 forest owners who perceived themselves as being knowledgeable about nature conservation also
144 had most positive attitudes toward conservation. There has also been growing evidence that gender
145 can also be an important determinant of acceptance of bioenergy management: females have been
146 shown to have more negative attitude towards bioenergy production than males (Halder 2011).
147 Moreover, females are likely to express more biocentric value orientations toward nature than men
148 (Fortmann and Kusel, 1990).

149 Based on the above-mentioned literature, we tested five hypotheses in conducting the survey in
150 this study. We expected to find that environmental concerns, as defined by Schultz (2001),
151 exhibited a three-factor structure, including biospheric, altruistic and egoistic concerns (e.g., Stern
152 et al., 1999) (H1). Moreover, we expected to find female participants to express more negative
153 attitude towards bioenergy production than males (Halder et al., 2011) (H2). We also expected to
154 find that both positive and negative consequences are important in evaluating the acceptance of
155 forest management objectives (H3) and that the positive consequences are more important than
156 negative consequences (Siegrist, 1999; 2000; Siegrist et al., 2007; Visschers et al., 2011) (H4).
157 Finally, we expected that perceived knowledge would affect acceptance of forest management
158 objectives (Halder et al., 2011) (H5). In testing these hypotheses, we also considered forest
159 ownership and age as demographic variables.

3. Data and Methods

3.1. The Sample

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162 Respondents were Bachelors and Masters level students from various major subject areas in the
163 Faculties of Agriculture and Forestry, and Biological and Environmental Sciences at the University
164 of Helsinki in Finland. A total of 165 questionnaires were collected between January and April
165 2016 during classroom hours. All the courses that were running in that period were invited to
166 participate and all students who we present during the classroom hours were invited to participate.
167 The questionnaire was administered in Finnish. The questionnaire took between 10–15 minutes for
168 respondents to fill out. Six questionnaires were removed from the sample because two or more
169 sections were unfilled.

170 The mean age was 25 years (SD = 5.63) and 40 percent of the participants were female, and 56
171 percent were forest owners; this is expected in Finland where there are high levels of private forest
172 ownership; about 12 per cent of Finns own forests; Leppänen and Sevola, 2013). In Finland, it is
173 common for families to own about 30 ha of forest and for owners to carry out the management of
174 that forest (Natural Resources Institute Finland, 2013).

3.1. Survey design and analysis

176 The survey was designed to assess perceived consequences of pursuing four different forest
177 management objectives, as well as participants’ perceived knowledge, and acceptance of these
178 objectives. These objectives were:

- Biomass for bioenergy production,
- Timber for long-term storage of carbon,
- Genetic and structural diversity to support ecosystem diversity, and
- Conservation of forest to support carbon sequestration and storage.

182 This article focuses on analysing the association between perceived positive and negative
183 consequences and acceptance of the first two objectives. The trade-offs between four different
184 objectives were also examined including perceived knowledge and acceptance of all four objectives
185 in the analysis.

187 *Perceived benefits and harm.* We wanted to explore individuals’ environmental concerns in the
188 specific contexts of forest management practices. Therefore, we used Schultz (2001)’s survey
189 format to measure environmental concern where respondents were asked to rank the 12 objects
190 organized around self, other people and biosphere using a 7-point scale (see Supplementary
191 Materials). However, we made two key modifications to the scale. First, the original method only
192 evaluated participants’ concerns of environmental problems at a general level. This lack of
193 specificity is in contrast with the wide variation in environmental problems and their varied effects

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357 194 on people and biosphere. Research applying Ajzen's theory of planned behaviour (TPB) shows that
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359 195 psychological constructs that are specific to the same context as the outcome variable are stronger
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361 196 predictors of behavioural intentions than general constructs (Bamberg, 2003). Thus, we modified
362 197 the method to account for these effects. We measured environmental concerns in the specific
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364 198 contexts of four different forest management objectives emphasizing the provisioning of the
365 199 following ecosystem service categories: climate mitigation through the storage of carbon in long-
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367 200 live wood products, provisioning of energy through woody biomass, regulation of the climate and
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369 201 conservation of genetic diversity. For the sake of this analysis, only the results of the first two are
370 202 reported in this study.
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372 203 Second, since the original method only measures negative consequences for valued objects, we
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374 204 modified the survey to assess measured both perceived benefit and harm, in alignment with risk
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376 205 perception literature (Siegrist, 2000; Visschers et al., 2011) as well as previous research providing a
377 206 reinterpretation of the findings about environmental consequences (Ryan et al., 2012), which both
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379 207 indicate that individuals make a distinction between positive and negative consequences. Concern
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381 208 about the positive and negative (i.e. benefits and harm) impacts were elicited separately for each of
382 209 the forest management objectives. In this way, it was possible to evaluate the environmental
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384 210 concerns (i.e. biocentrism, altruism, egoism) towards management objective (i.e. bioenergy
385 211 provisioning) in terms of both positive and negative impacts. These distinctions were made to
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387 212 determine if there were differences between the perceived positive and negative impacts of
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389 213 managing for different objectives, and if each of the ecosystem service-related categories followed a
390 214 three-factor model when they were separated into individual concern categories.
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392 215 In practice, the participants were requested to evaluate the importance of consequences of each
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394 216 forest management objective for the following 12 items: plants, birds, animals and climate
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396 217 (representing biocentric concerns); to oneself, own lifestyle, own health and own future
397 218 (representing egoistic concerns); and to people living in Finland; all people; children; and future
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399 219 generations (representing altruistic concerns).
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401 220 *Perceived knowledge and acceptance of forest management objectives.* The respondents were
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403 221 also asked to indicate their perceived knowledge about the four forest management objectives of
404 222 from 1 (no knowledge) to 5 (a very high level of knowledge) and to do the same for their level of
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406 223 acceptance for pursuing these management objectives in Finnish forestry, on a scale ranging from 1
407 224 (does not accept at all) to 5 (fully accept).
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416 225 Demographic data were collected about respondents' age, gender, major university subject, and
417 whether their family owned forest land.
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420 227 **3.2. Statistical Analysis**

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422 228 Three statistical methods were used to analyze the data. First, a principal component analysis
423 (PCA) was carried out to determine if the data fit better with a two or three factor model (H1).
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425 230 Thompson (2004) provides a detailed explanation of the method and its use in similar research. We
426 do not describe it in greater detail here, as the method is well-established in scientific research.
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429 232 Second, an evaluation of the differences in acceptance between genders was carried out using a
430 Mann-Whitney U test for not normally distributed samples. The Independent Samples Mann-
431 233 Whitney U Test is a rank-based non-parametric test to determine differences between groups on a
432 234 continuous or ordinal dependent variable. This method was used given that the data for acceptance
433 of the four different management objectives was not normally distributed.
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438 237 Third, to test whether the effect of perceived benefits may override perceived harm (H3 and 4)
439 238 and whether perceived knowledge of objectives influenced acceptance (H5) we used hierarchical
440 linear regression analysis where variables are gradually included in the model. Hierarchical linear
441 239 regression is often used for testing the effects of certain predictors independently of the influence of
442 240 others. In practice, this method enables the researcher to analyse changes in the effects of predictor
443 variables on dependent variables when new variables are added to the model. Tabachnick and Fidell
444 241 (2012) provide a detailed description of this method and its applications to different research
445 contexts.
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451 245 **4. Results**

452 453 246 **4.1. Descriptive statistics and a two-factor model**

454 247 Table 1 shows that egoistic benefits were evaluated as most relevant, followed by altruistic and
455 biocentric benefits. This indicates that the benefits to nature are perceived to be less relevant than
456 248 those for one's self and society. This trend was inversed when the harm from carrying out those
457 management objectives were considered. The standard deviations followed a similar trend, with
458 249 higher deviation for biocentric orientation under benefits and lower under harm. The inverse was
459 250 observed for egoistic and altruistic orientations. Both acceptance of and knowledge about
460 biodiversity conservation and climate change mitigation objectives were higher than for timber and
461 251 bioenergy.
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468 255 **Table 1**

Descriptive statistics for all four ecosystem service-related management objectives: associated benefits and harm from undertaking them, perceived knowledge, and acceptance.

			Mean	Standard Deviation
Perceived relevance of consequences ¹				
Timber	Benefits	Biocentric	16.10	7.02
		Altruistic	19.22	5.66
		Egoistic	21.61	5.17
	Harm	Biocentric	18.77	6.51
		Altruistic	13.96	6.77
		Egoistic	15.87	7.13
Bioenergy	Benefits	Biocentric	15.48	7.10
		Altruistic	18.01	6.19
		Egoistic	20.11	6.04
	Harm	Biocentric	17.90	6.94
		Altruistic	13.80	6.76
		Egoistic	15.58	7.20
Biodiversity	Benefits	Biocentric	24.97	3.80
		Altruistic	21.95	5.23
		Egoistic	20.61	5.69
	Harm	Biocentric	11.17	8.56
		Altruistic	11.86	6.94
		Egoistic	10.05	6.59
Climate	Benefits	Biocentric	21.48	5.77
		Altruistic	22.80	5.09
		Egoistic	20.99	6.41
	Harm	Biocentric	12.01	7.82
		Altruistic	12.61	7.23
		Egoistic	10.97	6.81
Perceived knowledge of forest management objectives ²				
	timber		2.78	1.01
	bioenergy		2.78	0.99
	biodiversity		3.35	1.00
	climate		3.02	0.99
Acceptance of forest management objectives ²				
	timber		3.69	1.04
	bioenergy		3.29	1.08
	biodiversity		4.37	0.97
	climate		4.20	1.03

¹ Range of the scale: 4–28 (totally insignificant – extremely important), ² Range of the scale: 1–5

A PCA was run to determine if the data fit better with a two- or three-factor model. Schultz (2001) and Snelgar (2006) suggested that a three-factor model was better than a two-factor model for explaining the perceived awareness of consequences of behaviors. The correlation matrix was inspected to determine if there was an appropriate level of correlation. All variables had correlations for all questions greater than 0.5. For Timber-Benefit (1), Timber-Harm (2), Bioenergy-Benefit (3)

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and Bioenergy-Harm (4) questions, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure was determined to be (1) 0.689, (2) 0.715, (3) 0.702 and (4) 0.727. Bartlett's test of sphericity was statistically significant ($p < .0005$) for all the outcomes noted in Table 1, which indicates that it was possible to carry out a PCA.

The PCA revealed that only one component had an eigenvalue greater than one. However, a visual inspection of the scree plots indicated that two components were appropriate to be retained for all questions. Given that both the Kaiser criterion (i.e., retain factors greater than one) and scree method have been shown to be conflicting, retaining too many or too few factors, we have proceeded with retaining two factors. This corresponded to eigenvalues greater than 0.5 in all cases. Furthermore, two-component solutions met the interpretability criterion. Varimax orthogonal rotations were used to aid interpretability of the solutions. Therefore, H1 (i.e., three-factor model) was not confirmed.

Factor loadings, explained variance of the factors and the communalities of the rotated solution are all presented in Table 2. In all cases, the aggregated altruistic and egoistic objects loaded on the first factor (later we refer to this factor as the anthropocentric factor), and the aggregated biocentric objects loaded on the second factor. Loadings below 0.5 were suppressed, although most suppressed loadings were below 0.3. The two factors explained a high level of variance for all the questions. The factors were then converted to logarithmic scale to be used in the subsequent regression analysis.

Table 2

Factor loadings based on the two-factor model for perceived harm and benefits from pursuing timber and bioenergy management objectives.

Variable			Loading on Factor 1	Loading on Factor 2	Variance Explained	Commonalities
Timber	Benefits	Biocentric		.952	36%	1.000
		Altruistic	.877			.853
		Egoistic	.884		55%	.858
	Total Variance Explained					91%
Harm	Biocentric			.925	12%	.997
		Altruistic	.909			.928
		Egoistic	.844		82%	.901
	Total Variance Explained					94%
Bioenergy	Benefits	Biocentric		.939	15%	.997
		Altruistic	.854			.877
		Egoistic	.908		78%	.903
	Total Variance Explained					93%

Harm	Biocentric	.913	10%	1.000
	Altruistic	.871		.927
	Egoistic	.889	84%	.933
Total Variance Explained			94%	

4.2. Gender and acceptance of environmental impacts

The Independent Samples Mann-Whitney U test (Table 3) revealed the distribution of acceptance towards different management objectives among male and female students. The median acceptance scores for timber, biodiversity, and climate mitigation were found to be different between males and females. In the case of timber males found the objective to be significantly more acceptable than females did, but females found management for biodiversity and climate mitigation to be more acceptable. For bioenergy, there was no gender difference. H2 was thus only partly accepted.

Table 3

Differences between males and females in the acceptance of four different management objectives. The Independent Samples Mann-Whitney U Test results.

Management objective	Median values		Mann-Whitney U	Z-score	Significance*
	Male	Female			
Timber	4.0	3.5	3523.5	2.782	0.005
Bioenergy	3.0	3.0	2888.0	0.319	0.750
Biodiversity	4.0	5.0	2014.0	-3.439	0.001
Climate	4.0	5.0	2061.0	-3.040	0.002

*significance level is 0.05

4.3. Regression models for forest management objectives

4.3.1. Timber

In the first step of the hierarchical regression analysis, perceived relevance of both types of harm – biocentric and anthropocentric (i.e., altruistic and egoistic combined) objects – were associated with reduced acceptance of forest management practices aimed at pursuing timber production objectives (Table 4). However, when perceived benefits were included in the model, only perceived harm to biosphere remained significant suggesting that perceived benefits were more important than perceived harm in explaining acceptance. Both types of benefit were associated with increased acceptance of timber production objectives.

The perceived knowledge of timber production and climate change mitigation objectives were associated with increased acceptance of timber production objectives. Conversely, perceived knowledge of bioenergy objectives was associated with reduced acceptance of forest management for meeting timber objectives. Of the three background variables included in the model, only gender

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315 was associated with the acceptance of timber objectives. Males had a higher level of acceptance of
316 timber production objectives than females. This also corresponds to the results noted in Section 4.2
317 (Table 3).

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Table 4

Hierarchical linear regression predicting acceptance of forest management that focuses on maximizing timber objectives.

		Step 1			Step 2			Step 3			Step 4		
		<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β
Harm:	Anthropocentric	-.20	.07	-.22**	-.16	.06	-.18*	-.15	.06	-.16*	-.16	.06	-.17**
	Biocentric	-.21	.08	-.21**	-.11	.07	-.11	-.08	.07	-.08	-.05	.07	-.05
Benefit:	Anthropocentric				.42	.07	.43***	.38	.07	.38***	.40	.07	.38***
	Biocentric				.16	.06	.19**	.16	.06	.19**	.17	.06	.20**
Knowledge:	Timber							.28	.08	.37***	.25	.08	.33**
	Bioenergy							-.14	.08	-.17	-.14	.08	-.18
	Biodiversity							-.31	.08	-.35***	-.30	.08	-.34***
	Climate							.20	.08	.23*	.19	.08	.22*
	Age										-.11	.11	-.07
	Gender (0=female, 1=male)										.10	.05	.16*
	Forest ownership (0=no, 1=yes)										.00	.04	.01
Adjusted <i>R</i> ²		.08**			.27***			.38***			.39***		

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

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Table 5

Hierarchical linear regression predicting acceptance of forest management that focuses on maximizing bioenergy objectives.

		Step 1			Step 2			Step 3			Step 4		
		<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β
Harm	Anthropocentric	-.20	.08	-.19*	-.23	.07	-.22**	-.21	.07	-.20**	-.22	.07	-.21**
	Biocentric	-.36	.11	-.25**	-.12	.10	-.08	-.10	.10	-.07	-.11	.10	-.08
Benefit	Anthropocentric				.48	.08	.42***	.49	.08	.43***	.50	.08	.44***
	Biocentric				.44	.08	.37***	.41	.08	.34***	.41	.08	.34***
Knowledge	Timber							.02	.09	.03	.01	.10	.01
	Bioenergy							-.04	.10	-.04	-.03	.10	-.04
	Biodiversity							-.22	.10	-.21*	-.20	.10	-.19*
	Climate							.17	.09	.17	.17	.10	.17
Age											.08	.13	.04
Gender (0=female, 1=male)											.01	.05	.01
Forest ownership (0=no, 1=yes)											-.03	.05	-.04
Adjusted <i>R</i> ²		.09***			.35***			.36***			.36***		

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

4.3.2. *Bioenergy*

Perceived biocentric and anthropocentric harm were associated with reduced acceptance of forest management with bioenergy objectives (Table 5). However, when perceived benefits were included in the model, only perceived harm to biosphere remained significant. This trend is the same as in the timber model. Both biocentric and anthropocentric benefits were associated with increased acceptance of bioenergy objectives.

Of the four forest management objectives, only knowledge of biodiversity conservation objectives were significant: it was associated with reduced acceptance of bioenergy objectives. These findings suggest that both perceived harm and benefits were important in evaluations of forest management objectives. Moreover, they suggest that some types of perceived benefits are more important than some types of perceived harm. For anthropocentric harm and benefits, they are equally important. In the context of biocentric benefits, they supersede the effect of perceived harm.

Of our hypotheses tested considering the hierarchical linear regressions, the hypothesis three (H3), testing the assumption that both positive and negative effects are important in evaluating the acceptance of forest management objectives, was fully confirmed. The hypothesis testing the assumption that the positive consequences are more important than negative consequences was partially confirmed (H4). The hypothesis testing the assumption that knowledge of forest management objectives is associated with acceptance of these objectives was fully confirmed (H5).

5. Discussion

In this study, we explored how environmental concerns, separated as perceived risks and perceived benefits, were associated with the acceptance of forest management objectives, and ultimately the levels of ecosystem service provisioning, in Finnish forests. The sampling utilized university students, who represent future environmental and forestry professionals.

We found that environmental concerns followed a two-factor structure: anthropocentric concerns (i.e. concerns for humans) and biospheric concerns (i.e., concerns for the environment). Most studies applying the method by Schultz (2001) to general environmental concerns have confirmed a three-factor structure. However, the close association between altruistic and egoistic concerns have also been reported previously. For example, using a sample of university students in UK, Snelgar (2006) found that anthropocentric concerns (i.e., altruistic and egoistic) were more closely associated with each other than they were to biospheric concerns. Moreover, Rhead et al. (2015) used a different set of survey questions on a nationally representative UK sample, and found a three-factor structure including ecocentric and anthropocentric factors, and a “denial” factor

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350 representing scepticism. The studies applying other theoretical frameworks suggest that
351 environmental concerns may likely follow a two-factor structure, as our study suggests: biocentric
352 (i.e., nature valued for its own sake) and anthropocentric (i.e., nature valued for its contribution to
353 humanity) (Steel et al., 1994; Thompson and Barton, 1994; Vaske and Donnelly, 1999). The
354 adapted method in our study, looking at specific environmental problems / management objectives
355 and the associated specific environmental concerns for a set of ecosystem services, suggests that
356 comparison of results between studies looking at general perceptions and those looking at specific
357 perceptions of environmental problems will require more testing and analysis.

358 Both perceived benefits and harm were important determinants of the acceptance of timber and
359 bioenergy objectives, and only the effect of perceived harm to humans remained when perceived
360 benefits to humans and biosphere were considered. These findings are aligned with existing risk
361 management literature (Siegrist, 1999; 2000; Siegrist et al., 2007; Visschers et al., 2011) suggesting
362 that perceived benefits are more important determinants of acceptance than perceived harm, and
363 that the perceived consequences to humans (i.e., anthropocentric concerns) are considered as more
364 important than the perceived consequences to nature (i.e., biocentric concerns) in the context of
365 forest management objectives. These findings suggest that there is a need to reformulation of the
366 concept of pro-environmental behaviour from being defined in terms of minimizing the negative
367 impacts on the environment (Kollmuss and Agyeman, 2002) to also including considerations for the
368 positive impacts. Methods that measure both the perceived negative and positive impacts are
369 important for guiding decision-making around ecosystem service provisioning. Our method
370 analysing perceived benefits and harm to humans and nature appears to be useful for researchers
371 and policy-makers to better understand individuals' acceptance of different objectives. However,
372 further research is needed to understand different stakeholders' perceptions and clarify how these
373 perceptions are linked to value orientations

374 Perceived knowledge had little effect on acceptance of the bioenergy objective, but perceived
375 knowledge of timber increased the acceptance of the timber objective. The perceived knowledge of
376 the climate objective reduced the acceptance of the timber and bioenergy objectives. Risk
377 management literature suggests that the effect of knowledge on the acceptance of risks might be
378 indirect through perceived benefits and harm (see e.g., Martin et al., 2009), and in a similar way,
379 pro-environmental behaviour literature suggests that environmental knowledge is not directly
380 associated with pro-environmental behaviour (Kollmus and Agyeman, 2002).

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381 Knowledge and acceptance of different management objectives were both positively or
382 negatively associated, which suggests that perceived knowledge of different types of forest
383 management objectives may be aligned with respondents' environmental values. In Finland, there is
384 an inherent trade-off between these two objectives regarding the length of the forest rotation
385 required under economically-derived decision-making, where the economically optimal forest
386 rotation is approximately 70 years. This has resulted in an ongoing debate, in Finnish research and
387 media, around the perceived benefits of bioenergy and timber as 'climate-friendly' forest
388 management objectives due to the shorter rotations needed to grow forest biomass for energy (see
389 e.g. Soimakallio et al., 2016). The result also indicates that knowledge is important for acceptance,
390 and may indicate that there are confirmation biases in terms of the knowledge about these issues
391 among the respondents. Many of the students were from the Faculty of Forestry and Agriculture at
392 the University of Helsinki, which could indicate they are knowledgeable about these management
393 trade-offs. The close links to production forestry and the growing bioenergy industry may also have
394 had an impact on the outcomes of the survey, which is one of the reasons we chose to focus on
395 these two management objectives.

396 Gender was associated with the acceptance of different management objectives: females
397 endorsed the biodiversity and climate objectives more than males, whereas males endorsed timber
398 objectives more than females. This finding is in line with previous research suggesting that females
399 are more biodiversity and conservation oriented than males, whereas males are more timber and
400 bioenergy oriented than females (Fortmann and Kusel, 1990; Halder et al., 2011). Forest
401 management decision-making should therefore take careful consideration of the impacts of the
402 demographics of forest owners, who are the managers of the ecosystem at the primary level but
403 have an impact over the entire value chain through their decisions, having an impact on the availability of
404 ecosystem service value potential over the entire chain or network. Alignment of the concerns of
405 different actors throughout that chain may be challenging, but it is important to consider these
406 impacts and how they constrain value creation for other beneficiaries. If there are majority male
407 forest managers and majority female beneficiaries, then the misalignment may create challenges
408 and, potentially, conflict between different groups of stakeholders in the policy making around how
409 to manage ecosystem service provisioning.

410 Our results also, more generally, provide important considerations for private sector actors who
411 are aiming to co-create value with their suppliers and beneficiaries around pro-environmental
412 behaviour in their value chain or network. This might require an approach that develops differing

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413 messages to ensure that their environmental concerns are addressed through framing of the
414 challenge differently for each group (Matthies et al., 2016b).

415 In the results, being a forest owner was not associated with the endorsement of forest
416 management objectives. This is in line with previous research indicating that in Finland, forest
417 owners' values and management preferences are heterogeneous and similar to those of non-forest
418 owners (Kangas and Niemeläinen, 1996; Karppinen and Korhonen, 2013).

419 The limitations of the study were related to the analysis of cross-sectional data, and for this
420 reason the causal relationships between gender, perceived knowledge, environmental concerns, and
421 acceptance of forest management objectives remain mainly hypothetical. Moreover, the results may
422 have been influenced by some social desirability bias, which is a tendency to present oneself
423 according to socially accepted standards (Chung and Monroe, 2003). The respondents may have
424 presented themselves as more knowledgeable of forest management practices than they were. Our
425 sample included university students in agricultural and environmental sciences and a half of them
426 were forest owners, even if they are not representative of Finnish forest owners as a whole.

427 Moreover, the factor structure may be dependent on the type of scale that is used, and perhaps
428 some other features of the sample that need to be identified in future research. We modified the
429 scale by Schulz (2001) and measured benefits and harms separately, and the participants were
430 requested to evaluate consequences of specific forest management objectives. It is possible that in
431 the context of forest management, altruistic and egoistic concerns may not be as clearly separated as
432 in some other environmental contexts. The result may also be dependent on the sample: the
433 participants of this study were students of forestry, agriculture and environment, to whom
434 environmental issues were personally relevant. The three-factor structure has been verified in
435 nationally representative populations that also include individuals to whom environmental issues
436 are not personally relevant, but not in the context of specific environmental challenges (e.g.
437 biodiversity loss or climate change) nor under consideration for specific environmental
438 management objectives. The lack of specificity in the earlier models may also have contributed
439 towards the differing three-factor model results. In that case, the two-factor model may be more
440 accurate in evaluating specific environmental problem contexts. Given the differing results from
441 using the model in a more focused context, we encourage further research to explore the robustness
442 of two and three-factor models under these varying applications.

6. Conclusions

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1030 444 The results of this study confirm that the acceptance of different types of ecosystem
1031 445 management objectives by individuals is influenced by perceived harms and benefits, as well as
1032 446 perceived knowledge and gender. This study also contributes to the environmental concerns
1033 447 literature adding the dimension of positive consequences that were shown to be more important to
1034 448 respondents than negative consequences in explaining acceptance of management objectives. These
1035 449 findings are useful to guiding the ongoing discussion about how environmental concern influences
1036 450 each actor's behaviour in the value chain or value network. Human actions impact on the flow of
1037 451 value from the biosphere to the economy and society, having important implications for the
1038 452 efficiency and sustainability of natural capital use. Therefore, this study challenges earlier findings
1039 453 relating to the use of these methods concerning less specific environmental problem contexts.
1040 454 Environmental problems and decision-making to address them often involve many stakeholders and
1041 455 multiple trade-offs resulting in both potentially positive and negative impacts. This suggests that
1042 456 research on environmental concern should, at the very least, understand of the concerns for
1043 457 competing environmental management objectives by the professions charged with managing our
1044 458 societies' interactions with the environment. This article supports efforts in gaining a more robust of
1045 459 that. These are critical questions to help guide policy and decision-making around stakeholders to
1046 460 address pressing global change challenges, such as climate change and biodiversity loss.
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Environmental concerns about forest management changes

This survey is about forest management orientations in Finland. Forest management orientations are continuously being re-evaluated based on how society views the associated benefits of management. All benefits and costs from forest management have trade-offs with other benefits and costs. For example, an increase in the amount of harvested timber might decrease recreation opportunities. Here we are looking at how forest benefits should be considered relative to each other based on the orientation of the forest management.

For each of the following 4 management orientations, we cordially ask you to rate each of the 12 items based on your personal concerns for them from 1 (not important) to 7 (extremely important) as they relate to the stated forest management orientation. We provide an example below. After the example, read the bolded statement for each management orientation and answer about your concern of the consequences for the 12 mentioned items.

Example: Forest ecosystems are important for providing **fresh water**. Forest management may aim at maximizing the amount of fresh water in Finland. In my view, the **benefits** of this kind of forest management are 1 (not important) to 7 (extremely important) to

Your personal rating for each item

3	Plants	7	Me	5	People in Finland
5	Birds	2	My Lifestyle	7	All People
7	Animals	7	My Health	1	Children
4	Earth's climate	6	My Future	2	Future Generations

People around the world are generally concerned about how we use and manage forests. However, people differ about which benefits and costs of forest management concern them the most.

1. Forests are a source of **renewable materials** for construction, packaging, and other uses, which can be substitutes or other non-renewable materials like steel and plastic. Renewable material production oriented forest management aims at maximizing the continued supply of materials for different uses in Finland. In my view, the **benefits** of this kind of forest management are 1 (not important) to 7 (extremely important) to

_____ Plants	_____ Me	_____ People in Finland
_____ Birds	_____ My lifestyle	_____ All people
_____ Animals	_____ My health	_____ Children
_____ Earth's climate	_____ My future	_____ Future generations

In my view, the **costs** of this kind of forest management are 1 (not important) to 7 (extremely important) to

<input type="checkbox"/> Plants	<input type="checkbox"/> Me	<input type="checkbox"/> People in Finland
<input type="checkbox"/> Birds	<input type="checkbox"/> My lifestyle	<input type="checkbox"/> All people
<input type="checkbox"/> Animals	<input type="checkbox"/> My health	<input type="checkbox"/> Children
<input type="checkbox"/> Earth's climate	<input type="checkbox"/> My future	<input type="checkbox"/> Future generations

2. Forests are a source of **renewable energy**, which can be a substitute for other sources like wind and coal. Bioenergy oriented forest management aims at maximizing the continued supply of energy from Finnish forests. In my view, the **benefits** of this kind of forest management are 1 (not important) to 7 (extremely important) to

<input type="checkbox"/> Plants	<input type="checkbox"/> Me	<input type="checkbox"/> People in Finland
<input type="checkbox"/> Birds	<input type="checkbox"/> My lifestyle	<input type="checkbox"/> All people
<input type="checkbox"/> Animals	<input type="checkbox"/> My health	<input type="checkbox"/> Children
<input type="checkbox"/> Earth's climate	<input type="checkbox"/> My future	<input type="checkbox"/> Future generations

In my view, the **costs** of this kind of forest management are 1 (not important) to 7 (extremely important) to

<input type="checkbox"/> Plants	<input type="checkbox"/> Me	<input type="checkbox"/> People in Finland
<input type="checkbox"/> Birds	<input type="checkbox"/> My lifestyle	<input type="checkbox"/> All people
<input type="checkbox"/> Animals	<input type="checkbox"/> My health	<input type="checkbox"/> Children
<input type="checkbox"/> Earth's climate	<input type="checkbox"/> My future	<input type="checkbox"/> Future generations

3. Forest ecosystems are one source of **biological diversity**. Biodiversity conservation oriented forest management aims at maximizing the amount of biological diversity that is possible in Finnish forests. In my view, the **benefits** of this kind of forest management are 1 (not important) to 7 (extremely important) to

<input type="checkbox"/> Plants	<input type="checkbox"/> Me	<input type="checkbox"/> People in Finland
<input type="checkbox"/> Birds	<input type="checkbox"/> My lifestyle	<input type="checkbox"/> All people
<input type="checkbox"/> Animals	<input type="checkbox"/> My health	<input type="checkbox"/> Children
<input type="checkbox"/> Earth's climate	<input type="checkbox"/> My future	<input type="checkbox"/> Future generations

In my view, the **costs** of this kind of forest management are 1 (not important) to 7 (extremely important) to

<input type="checkbox"/> Plants	<input type="checkbox"/> Me	<input type="checkbox"/> People in Finland
<input type="checkbox"/> Birds	<input type="checkbox"/> My lifestyle	<input type="checkbox"/> All people
<input type="checkbox"/> Animals	<input type="checkbox"/> My health	<input type="checkbox"/> Children
<input type="checkbox"/> Earth's climate	<input type="checkbox"/> My future	<input type="checkbox"/> Future generations

4. Forests can **limit climate change** by temporarily storing carbon away from the atmosphere. Climate change mitigation oriented forest management aims at maximizing the amount of carbon storage that is possible in Finnish forests. In my view, the **benefits** of this kind of forest management are 1 (not important) to 7 (extremely important) to

<input type="text"/> Plants	<input type="text"/> Me	<input type="text"/> People in Finland
<input type="text"/> Birds	<input type="text"/> My lifestyle	<input type="text"/> All people
<input type="text"/> Animals	<input type="text"/> My health	<input type="text"/> Children
<input type="text"/> Earth's climate	<input type="text"/> My future	<input type="text"/> Future generations

In my view, the **costs** of this kind of forest management are 1 (not important) to 7 (extremely important) to

<input type="text"/> Plants	<input type="text"/> Me	<input type="text"/> People in Finland
<input type="text"/> Birds	<input type="text"/> My lifestyle	<input type="text"/> All people
<input type="text"/> Animals	<input type="text"/> My health	<input type="text"/> Children
<input type="text"/> Earth's climate	<input type="text"/> My future	<input type="text"/> Future generations

5. In your view, how **knowledgeable** you are about different forest management objectives, benefits and costs? Please assess the level of your knowledge using the scale 1 (not at all knowledgeable) – 5 (very knowledgeable):

Renewable material production oriented forest management that aims at maximizing the continued supply of materials for different uses in Finland.

Bioenergy oriented forest management that aims at maximizing the continued supply of energy from Finnish forests.

Biodiversity conservation oriented forest management that aims at maximizing the amount of biological diversity that is possible in Finnish forests.

Climate change mitigation oriented forest management that aims at maximizing the amount of carbon storage that is possible in Finnish forests.

6. **Do you accept different forest management objectives?** Please indicate your acceptance using the scale 1 (don't accept at all) – 5 (fully accept):

Renewable material production oriented forest management that aims at maximizing the continued supply of materials for different uses in Finland.

Bioenergy oriented forest management that aims at maximizing the continued supply of energy from Finnish forests.

Biodiversity conservation oriented forest management that aims at maximizing the amount of biological diversity that is possible in Finnish forests.

Climate change mitigation oriented forest management that aims at maximizing the amount of carbon storage that is possible in Finnish forests.

Personal Information:

Age: __

Gender: Male / Female

Major study subject at the University: _____

Home Country: _____

Does your immediate (grandparents, parents, siblings, yourself) own forestland?
YES / NO