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What Works? Learning and Social Inclusion Initiatives at Norwegian Community Supported Farms

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Acknowledgements

I grew up on a busy livestock and Green Care farm in the west of Norway, but spent much of my adult life studying, interning, and travelling abroad. Through the years, I recognised a contrast between the grounded and pragmatic action I grew up surrounded by; and the reality I often faced elsewhere, where *knowing* and *doing* were a long way apart.

I entered this thesis project familiar with Green Care, new to Community Supported Agriculture, and wanting to connect international goals with everyday life.

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Abstract

Community Supported Agriculture (CSA) integrates consumers in farm responsibility, risk, and harvest. In Norway, some Community Supported Farms (CSFs) also provide learning and social inclusion initiatives (LIIs), comparable to the Green Care welfare services offered by traditionally organised farms. To inform establishment and advancement of LIIs and better understand their benefits, I conducted a study of four Norwegian cases. I selected the four CSFs with the longest relevant experience, interviewed providers (CSA farmers and a CSA board leader) and explored local and national contexts. I carried out and drew my conclusions from a *cross-case synthesis* of interview and contextual data. To help establishment and advancement of LIIs, I identified four general elements modifiable to different contexts: CSFs should (1) take stock of human resources, (2) prioritise planning and communication, (3) expect to change and adapt, and (4) define and secure appropriate funding. Furthermore, to inspire and legitimise LIIs, I summarised providers' perceptions of the initiatives' benefits, spanning from personal to global. The perceived benefits indicate that LIIs can further CSA's mission to empower consumers, are in line with an agroecological approach to improved agri-food systems, and ultimately contribute to all 17 of the United Nations Sustainable Development Goals. My findings highlight opportunities within the CSA model and reasons to promote farms as arenas for learning and social inclusion.

Samandrag

Andelslandbruk er ei omsetjingsform for mat, der bønder og forbrukarar går saman om ansvar, risiko, og avling i matproduksjonen. I denne settinga har nokre norske andelsgardar starta initiativ for læring og sosial inkludering, som kan samanliknast med Inn på tunet: etablerte velferdstenester på gardsbruk. For å bygge kunnskap om korleis andelsgardar kan etablere og vidareutvikle initiativ for læring og sosial inkludering, samt om kva fordelar initiativa har, gjorde eg ei studie av fire norske casar. Eg valde dei fire andelsgardane med lengst relevant erfaring, intervjuar dei ansvarlege tilbydarane, og utforska lokal og nasjonal kontekst. Eg analyserte og drog konklusjonane mine frå intervju- og kontekstdata på tvers av casane. For å hjelpe etablering og vidareutvikling av lærings- og inkluderingsinitiativ, identifiserte eg fire generelle element som kan tilpassast ulike kontekstar: Andelsgardar flest bør (1) tenke gjennom kva menneskelege ressursar dei disponerer, (2) prioritere planlegging og kommunikasjon, (3) forvente kontinuerleg endring og tilpassing, og (4) definere og sikre passande finansiering. I tillegg, for å inspirere og grunnje, utforska eg tilbydarane sine oppfatningar av kva *gevinstar* slike initiativ kan gi. Eg oppsummerte gevinstar på fleire nivå, frå personleg til globalt. Gevinstane tyder på at lærings- og inkluderingsinitiativ kan hjelpe andelslandbruk med å bevisstgjere forbrukarar, at initiativa samsvarer med ei agroøkologisk tilnærming til betre matsystem, og at dei kan bidra til alle 17 av FN sine bærekraftsmål. Funna mine framhevar moglegheiter innan andelslandbruksmodellen og grunnar til å fremje gardsbruk som arenaer for læring og sosial inkludering.

Table of contents

Acknowledgements	iii
Abstract	iv
Samandrag	v
Table of contents	vi
Key abbreviations.....	vii
1 INTRODUCTION.....	1
2 METHOD.....	6
3 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION	10
3.1 Four elements to help CSFs establish and advance LIIs	10
3.1.1 Take stock of human resources	10
3.1.2 Prioritise planning and communication	12
3.1.3 Expect to change and adapt.....	14
3.1.4 Define and secure appropriate funding	16
3.2 Benefits Norwegian CSFs could reap and generate from LIIs.....	19
3.2.1 Personal and on-farm benefits.....	19
3.2.2 Local benefits.....	21
3.2.3 National benefits	23
3.2.4 Global benefits	24
3.3 Implications	25
4 CONCLUSION	27
References	28
Appendix A: Plans for a provider-oriented summary in Norwegian	36
Appendix B: How LIIs can contribute to the SDGs.....	37
Appendix C: Interviewees	39
Appendix D: Case study protocol	40
Appendix E: Interview guide	46
Appendix F: Informed consent form	48

Key abbreviations

CSA	– Community Supported Agriculture
CSF	– Community Supported Farm
FAO	– Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations
GC	– Green Care
KMD	– Ministry of Local Government and Modernisation (Norway)
LII	– Learning and Social Inclusion Initiative
LMD	– Ministry of Agriculture and Food (Norway)
SDGs	– Sustainable Development Goals

1 INTRODUCTION

In 2015, The United Nations General Assembly agreed on 17 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) to achieve by 2030. The SDGs reflect the most pressing challenges of our time, and according to Chaudhary, Gustafson, and Mathys (2018), agri-food systems are central to achieving at least 12 of the 17. Accordingly, academia, civil society, the Food and Agriculture Organisation of the United Nations (FAO, 2018b), and others propose approaches to transforming agri-food systems to achieve the SDGs. One such approach is agroecology (Francis et al., 2003; Méndez, Bacon, Cohen, & Gliessman, 2015; The International Panel of Experts on Sustainable Food Systems, 2018).

Agroecology is an integrative approach to studying and improving broadly defined food systems. Its roots are in ecology and ecological processes,¹ and it focuses on interconnections between organisms and their environments across time and spatial levels (from micro to global) (Altieri, 1999; Francis et al., 2003; Gliessman, 2000; Lieblein, Østergaard, & Francis, 2004; Merriam-Webster Dictionary, 2019). The agroecological approach applies knowledge about ecology to agri-food systems and encompasses human, “ecological, economic and social dimensions” (Francis et al., 2003, p. 100) . Thus, agroecology integrates all food system parts and interactions, across natural and social sciences (Francis et al., 2003). In sum, the agroecological approach is systems-oriented, transdisciplinary, sensitive to context, often participatory, and oriented towards action (Méndez et al., 2015).

In an attempt to operationalise the agroecological approach, FAO (2018a) defined ten “elements”, understood as goals or norms for sustainable agroecosystems. The elements result from scientific literature on agroecology (notably Altieri, 1995; Gliessman, 2014), discussions at FAO’s multi-stakeholder regional seminars on agroecology (in 2015-2017), and experts’ revision. According to FAO (2018a), the ten elements are integral parts of a whole and contribute to agri-food system sustainability only when considered in sum. Furthermore, how the elements manifest in practice depends on contextual factors such as culture, landscape, soil type, climate, relevant policy, and market demands. Nevertheless, the elements provide a framework that stakeholders can adapt to their given context, thus facilitating informed action to improve agri-food systems. Summarised, FAO (2018a)’s elements describe diverse and resilient, synergy-building and knowledge-centred food systems; striving for resource-use

¹ Including cycles and flows of water, nutrients, and energy; and diversity and succession.

efficiency and recycling; emphasising human and social values; supporting culture and food traditions; and calling for responsible governance, and circular and solidarity economy. All actors in the agri-food system can apply the elements; for example, farms can take an agroecological approach by involving consumers in their day-to-day activities or providing welfare services to society.

Norwegian farms offer welfare services under the umbrella term Green Care (GC).² GC services are *provided* by farms, bought by a *buyer*, and have one or more *participants* (Ministry of Local Government and Modernisation [KMD] & Ministry of Agriculture and Food [LMD], 2013). Participants visit the farm to partake in farm-related activities, and experience mastery, development, and well-being (Inn på tunet Norge, n.d.). They often come in smaller groups or alone, and sometimes in large groups such as full school classes (Knutsen & Milford, 2015; Prestvik, Nebell, & Pettersen, 2013). Common participants are children and youth, unemployed, school dropouts, criminals, people with mental illness, substance abusers, people with disabilities, elderly, people who have dementia, immigrants, and refugees. Buyers are often the local municipalities, and providers include farmers, farmers' spouses, and farm employees.

Providers and the agricultural sector have actively forwarded GC, while municipalities have sometimes been described as positive but passive (Prestvik et al., 2013; Stene, 2013). The agricultural sector helped promote a quality approval system for GC farms, implemented in 2012, and farms have increasingly organised in regional and national provider networks (Hummelvoll, Hopfenbeck, & Kogstad, 2012; Inn på tunet Norge, n.d.; LMD & KMD, 2012). Overall, GC providers are increasingly professional, for example investing in standardised agreements, wardrobe and meeting room facilities, and marketing (Stene, 2015, 2016). Norway currently has circa 400 *approved* GC farms and over 150 *up for approval* (B. A. Hvaleby, personal communication, May 9, 2019). The approved GC farms are spread throughout all of Norway's 18 counties (Matmerk, n.d.). Additionally, an unknown number of GC farms operate without the trademarked approval, though this does not mean they offer "bad quality". Reasons

² In Norwegian, *Inn på tunet* (IPT, "into the farmyard") is the commonest term. Others include *Grønn omsorg*, *Grønt arbeid*, *Grønn pedagogikk*, and *Levande skule*. In English, other terms for GC activities include Care Farming, Social Farming, Living School, and Farming for Health.

to operate without approval are diverse; including not taking the time for the approval process and having been well-established before the quality standard came to be. Regardless, approval can sometimes increase providers' appeal to potential buyers of GC services (LMD & KMD, 2012; KMD & LMD, 2013).

GC has a strong foothold in Norway and helps strengthen the legitimacy of Norwegian agriculture. Many Norwegian farms are small, rugged, and unable to compete with other countries' high and intensive production. Diverse activities such as GC can help sustain farm economy and farming lifestyles, and highlight that farms' contributions to society extend beyond mere *food production* (Haugan, Nyland, Fjeldavli, Meistad, & Braastad, 2006; Meistad, 2004; Vik & McElwee, 2011). The latter was a familiar concept a few generations ago, when farms were inherent arenas for learning and skill development, and more "social" than is the average case today (Parow, 2007; Tiller & Tiller, 2002). GC itself has developed since the 1990s, and gained political momentum especially in the 2000s (Parow, 2000; Sørbrøden & Gjønnnes, 1998). In several whitepapers, Norwegian Ministries recognised GC farms as providers of increasingly demanded, individually adapted, high-quality welfare services, with significant and broad usefulness for society (LMD, 2007; LMD & KMD, 2012; Ministry of Health and Care Services, 2018; KMD & LMD, 2013). GC's foothold in Norway is thus nature-given, historical, *and* political.

Furthermore, research from Norway and abroad documents that GC benefits both participants and communities. For example, GC can: improve children and youth's learning and development (Jolly & Krogh, 2010). Better people's mental health, including through animal-assisted therapy and therapeutic horticulture (Pedersen, Patil, Berget, Ihlebæk, & Gonzalez, 2015). Increase the life quality of people who are unemployed or who dropped out of school, have mental illness, or drug addiction (Steigen, Kogstad, & Hummelvoll, 2016). And strengthen farming and local communities; as it cares for both people and for land at the same time (García-Llorente, Rubio-Oliver, & Gutierrez-Briceño, 2018). Social and beneficial aspects of GC share similarities with school gardens, urban and peri-urban agriculture, and other outdoors-based community-building and educational activities (Krogh & Jolly, 2012; Nørtoft & Wistoft, 2014; Zasada, 2011). Moreover, GC generates many of the same benefits in different countries, including Sweden, Denmark, the Netherlands, the UK, and Italy (García-Llorente et al., 2018). GC is an international phenomenon that takes different forms depending on countries' institutional context (Gallis, 2013).

Similarly, Community Supported Agriculture (CSA) is an international movement, appearing in different forms across countries. CSA is a consumer-involved farming model with roots in Japan, North America, and some parts of Europe (Devik, 2018). The core idea for Norwegian CSA is that farmers and consumers share responsibility, risk, and harvest (Devik, 2018). Norway was relatively late to join the CSA movement, its first Community Supported Farm (CSF) established in 2006 (Bjune, 2003; Bjune & Torjusen, 2005). But the CSA movement grew fast – especially in 2015, when 31 new CSFs established – and in 2018, Norway had 77 active CSFs (Devik & Warren, 2019; Økologisk Norge, 2018b). Vegetable production in market gardens is the commonest form of production, but some CSFs also offer meat, eggs, or other agriculture products (Devik, 2018). Norwegian CSFs are either consumer-driven, non-profit cooperatives or part of a farm; often the farmer’s sole proprietorship (*enkeltpersonforetak*) (Devik, 2018). In 2018, the 77 CSFs were spread throughout all of Norway’s 18 counties, and engaged and fed up to 9 500 people (Devik & Warren, 2019).

The CSFs are different but coordinated in a national network and sharing five basic principles. Økologisk Norge’s “CSA project” (Andelslandbruksprosjektet) coordinates Norwegian CSA,³ and has also compiled a comprehensive handbook for starting and managing CSFs in Norway (Devik, 2018). In 2017, CSFs nationally helped define five principles for Norwegian CSA, based on the international CSA principles (Økologisk Norge, 2018a). Freely translated, the Norwegian CSA principles are: (1) dialogue about the farming, (2) transparent economy, (3) shared harvest and shared risk, (4) shareholder involvement, and (5) sustainable farming (Økologisk Norge, 2018a).

Norwegian CSA focuses on cross-cutting ecological, economic, and social sustainability. According to Hvitsand (2016), CSFs’ production systems were based on agroecology; in that they reallocated power to producers, consumers, and locals, and strove to produce sustainably. Hvitsand (2014) elaborated that many CSFs focused on diversity, soil health, nutrient cycles, reduced food waste, and local trade. Moreover, Hvitsand (2014) explained that farmers and consumers saw the CSA model as an alternative way to produce, consume, and communicate around food; caring for environment, health, social justice, and animal welfare; and *acting* on their values and beliefs. Accordingly, some describe CSA as a counter-reaction to industrialised

³ Økologisk Norge (Organic Norway) is a member organisation that promotes organic food and agriculture.

and globalised food systems, and understand CSA participation as an identity project (Bugge, 2015; Hvitsand, 2014; Storstad, 2016).

People who participate in CSFs (shareholders) often have a moral motivation. In a comprehensive report on food and meal morale in Norway, Bugge (2015) found that Norwegian consumers' food taste was increasingly politicised, and that consumers evaluated food quality based on production and distribution method as well as taste, smell, and look. Bugge (2015) explained that many consumers wanted food they perceived as clean, fresh, local, seasonal, organic, healthy, or real: true for many CSF members, according to Hvitsand (2014)'s report on characteristics of Norwegian CSA. Accordingly, CSFs are arenas for likeminded people to meet and partake in productive activities, learn and generate knowledge, and let children develop a healthy relationship with food (Bugge, 2015; Hvitsand, 2014). Parallel, Hvitsand (2014) found that most CSA members were highly educated and resourceful.

Norwegian CSFs are increasingly diversifying to engage more, new, and different groups of people. Diversification could spread awareness about CSA and build an inclusive CSF culture, while also strengthening CSF economy through additional income streams and a broader member recruitment base (Devik, 2018). Common forms of CSF diversification include tourism, restaurant collaboration, and various learning and social inclusion initiatives (LIIs) (Devik, 2018). LIIs are essentially varieties of GC and can likely cultivate some of the same benefits I mention above. CSA's mission for consumer-awareness and sustainability, and GC's proven benefits infer, in sum, that LIIs can benefit society in multiple ways. However, research has not explored *how* CSFs can establish and advance LIIs, or *what* benefits LIIs can provide.

I approached this research gap aiming (1) to provide a general framework that providers can use to prompt their establishment or advancement of LIIs, and (2) to describe LIIs' benefits, as perceived by providers. Further, I aimed to understand how LIIs might take an agroecological approach to food systems improvement and achieving the SDGs. I defined my research questions as follows. **From the perspective of providers:**

(1) What are key elements Norwegian CSFs should consider to establish and advance LIIs?

(2) What benefits can Norwegian CSFs reap and generate from LIIs?

I conducted my research as a qualitative study of four cases, which allowed me to study providers' perspectives on LIIs in depth and within their real-life contexts (Yin, 2009).

2 METHOD

Specifically, I conducted what Yin (2009) called a multiple-case study. My cases were the four CSFs with the longest relevant experience, and I collected most of my data through semi-structured interviews with providers. Since good researcher craftmanship is key to qualitative research, I planned my study rigorously (Brinkmann & Kvale, 2015; Nygaard, 2017; Yin, 2009). In planning, I reflected on my strengths and weaknesses as a researcher and interviewer and wrote a detailed case study protocol detailing the whole research process (Appendix D). The protocol was inspired by Yin (2009), and helped me maintain a transparent and replicable approach to the case study.

Økologisk Norge's CSA project coordinators and website (www.andelslandbruk.no) aided my case selection. In a population of 77 Norwegian CSFs (January 2019), the website and project coordinators helped me *identify* eight that had tried LII activities and *choose* the four with most relevant experience. The four selected cases located in different parts of Norway, were of different size, and included one consumer-led and three farmer-led CSFs. In all four cases, providers had experience with two or more types of LIIs. CSFs' participants included immigrants and refugees, kindergartens and schools, people living in municipal or assisted housing, and elderly participating in day care activities. One farm had experience with GC activities from before adopting CSA. As CSFs, the providers had offered LIIs for roughly 3 or 4 years.

Since I conducted research in winter, LIIs were out of season and I could not experience them at work. However, being the quieter season, providers had more time to talk about their views on and experiences with the initiatives. The timing allowed me to explore providers' perspectives in depth, despite the time and resource constraints of the present research.

The interviewed providers had been central to their respective CSF and LIIs from the start. For the farmer-led cases, I interviewed two farmers and one *duo* of farmers. For the consumer-led CSF, I interviewed the board leader, who was also a co-founder of the CSF. I include a list of interviewees and their associated CSFs in Appendix C. I reached the providers through the CSFs' online contact information, and all responded positively to my requests for interviews. I conducted the interviews at the respective farms: a setting familiar to interviewees and topic-appropriate, which strengthened the validity of my data (Brinkmann & Kvale, 2015).

I wrote an interview guide with key topics and suggested questions to guide the interviews, as proposed by Brinkmann and Kvale (2015). The interview guide is included in Appendix E. In the interview guide, I also included some general guidelines for the interviews' formats, including key information points at the start and end of interviews and a reminder to approach the interviews with reflexivity, and an open and empathetic mind (Brinkmann & Kvale, 2015; Fog, 1995). As detailed in the interview guide, the interviews focused on the CSFs' and LIIs' establishment, development over time, and usefulness. I ended each interview with a dialogue about how LIIs can contribute to the SDGs. The interviews were 60-90 minutes long and conducted in Norwegian.

I recorded the interviews using an audio recording device and took hand-written notes along the way. After each interview, I also took some field notes about the farm and local context. I wrote *edited transcripts* of the interviews, not word-by-word, but true to the meaning of what was said (Brinkmann & Kvale, 2015). I transcribed my interviews using standard word-processing software (Microsoft Office Word). Interviewees spoke very freely, so their responses were long and my questions few. I structured the transcripts in paragraphs and sentences that logically reflected topic changes and natural pauses in interviewees' responses.

In addition to semi-structured interviews, I explored cases' local and national contexts. Conducting interviews on-farm meant that I got to see the CSFs and their local areas. Furthermore, my understanding of the cases' local and national contexts was aided by: (1) background reading, listed in the case study protocol (Appendix D) and summarised in the above thesis introduction. (2) Brief Google research on CSFs' local contexts. (3) Conversations with the national CSA coordinators at Økologisk Norge about the status and future of CSA diversification. (4) Participation in two workshops about challenges and opportunities in the Norwegian CSA model; one targeted at CSFs in Buskerud county, another for CSF stakeholders in the west of Norway. Except for the workshops, I completed all the above before visiting respective cases, and revisited the notes when needed before interviews and data analysis. Prior and contextual knowledge strengthened the quality of my interviews and case analysis (Brinkmann & Kvale, 2015; Yin, 2009).

I analysed my transcripts and field notes first for individual cases, and then across cases. First, I coded the transcripts, ultimately using the codes "establishment", "support", "challenge", "benefits", "future", and "other". I adjusted the codes after reviewing the transcripts, to make sure codes and data material corresponded to effectively answer my research questions

(Brinkmann & Kvale, 2015; Yin, 2009). I added the codes in **bold** at the end of relevant sentences or paragraphs. “Establishment”, “support”, “challenge”, and “future” referred mostly to research question 1; information that helped me understand what elements were important for the CSFs in establishing and advancing their LIIs. “Benefits” referred mostly to research question 2; information on LII benefits the providers perceived, from personal to global. Information labelled “other” could be less relevant to my research questions, or difficult to specifically code. Inspired by Yin (2009), I sorted the coded transcripts into tables, using the codes as headings (Table 1). When possible, I condensed the meaning of the coded information points to make the tables more readable. When relevant, I also added to the tables from my case visit field notes.

Table 1: Fictive excerpt of an interview transcript; coded, condensed, and organised in a table with the transcript codes as headings.

Establishment	Support	Challenge	Benefits	Future	Other
In 2014, a friend suggested that we start a CSA. We invited a nearby kindergarten to visit the farm and help eat surplus vegetables. They wanted to keep coming back.	A lady who works in the municipality was very enthusiastic and spread the word. My education as a teacher generated trust.	Already working full time, it was difficult to find the time we needed to follow up the visitors. We weren't sure if we wanted to invest in this.	I love seeing the smiles on children's faces when they taste a carrot they helped plant. The teachers tell me the group became more harmonious after they started visiting the farm.	I want to build a greenhouse, so we can prolong the growth season and offer more activities to the kids. We need to finish the bathroom in the barn.	We collaborate with a local restaurant.

I displayed the exact same information in mind maps, to help myself process it. I then listed key findings about each case, including (1) what directly answered to my research questions, (2) what the interviewee(s) had emphasised, and (3) what I found surprising given my background reading (Appendix D, Table D1).

Having addressed each case individually, I started what Yin (2009) called a *cross-case synthesis* (an analysis across cases). I split the respective tables for each case to view all the “establishment” columns together, all the “support” columns together, and so on. I listed key findings for each column heading, including (1) information that directly answered to my

research questions, (2) similarities and differences that stood out, and (3) what I found surprising given my background reading (Appendix D, Table D1).

I listed all the key findings from single case and cross-case analysis together. Then, I highlighted findings I found relevant for research question 1 in red, for research question 2 in blue, and for both research questions in purple. Next, I organised the findings into groups. For research question 1, I made the groups based on my understanding of which findings “went together” and gave them a relevant heading. The labelled groups contained logical sub-groups of findings. Sub-sections and paragraphs in section 3.1 below reflect the groups and sub-groups I identified for research question 1. For research question 2, I made the groups of benefits according to spatial level, from farm to global. I wrote the below report of my results according to an *across-cases* approach inspired by Yin (2009) and in line with data protection regulations.

Due to data protection concerns, I could not disclose comprehensive data about each individual case or store it beyond the scope of this research. However, as mentioned, I name each interviewee and their respective CSF in Appendix C. This compromise retains some transparency, while aligning with my project approval from the National Data Protection Official (NSD) and interviewees’ informed consent. I obtained informed consent before every interview using the form in Appendix F (based on an NSD template; NSD, 2019). I include further details on how I followed NSD’s ethical guidelines in the case study protocol (Appendix D).

3 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

My results and discussion section has three parts. One for each of my research questions, then one discussing implications of the present research.

3.1 Four elements to help CSFs establish and advance LIIs

I found that CSFs wanting to establish or advance LIIs should, as a general framework, (1) take stock of human resources, (2) prioritise planning and communication, (3) expect to change and adapt, and (4) define and secure appropriate funding. Aspects of the four elements challenged or supported CSFs' establishment and advancement of LIIs in various ways and to a variable extent.

3.1.1 Take stock of human resources

All interviewees emphasised the importance of specific people for the LII activities. Often, LIIs required a specific set of knowledge and skills, which few people had. Accordingly, some LIIs depended on a specific person to facilitate. This could be the only person who had the required formal qualifications; an overview of the tasks that needed doing; where the right tools were; or the knowledge of how to keep all participants happy. Largely depending on personal eligibility, common hands-on-deck for LIIs included farmers and spouses, CSA managers, and CSA gardeners. Experiences from GC projects elaborate on individuals' importance and fit well with what I understood about LIIs: Sørbrøden and Gjønnnes (1998), studying projects in Vestfold county, found that providers' personal qualities were key to successful GC initiatives. Stokke and Rye (2007) interviewed and conducted a survey among Norwegian GC farmers, who rated the provider (provider's qualities) as the top factor for GC success. Furthermore, based on focus group interviews with providers, Lund, Granerud, and Eriksson (2015, p. 1) stated that the role of a GC provider in "shaping a therapeutic environment and being a role model" required "genuine interest and belief in the idea of Green Care, and ability to think creatively and innovatively". The specific provider being so important makes LII work difficult to delegate and infers that LIIs depended on the follow-through of key people.

A couple of providers accordingly felt that the LIIs "bound them up". This could be challenging to balance with other commitments such as off-farm jobs and holidays. Hence, some providers were changing their LIIs to be less facilitation-heavy or fit their schedule better, or they were hiring someone to manage the LII(s). However, CSFs found it challenging to find the "right

extra people”. LII providers could need knowledge about vegetable production and organic growing techniques; patience with beginners in the field; steady planning and communication; solid work facilitation; and pedagogy, all at the same time. The combination might be difficult to find in one person. This applies to CSA in general, but even more to LIIs, according to my interviewees. Still, a couple of my cases had hired one or more people to take responsibility for *parts* of the CSA or LII operation, to lighten the burden on individual providers.

My interviewees found that shareholders, volunteers and some LII participants could provide valuable work power. Shareholders and volunteers sometimes helped with LIIs, including by sharing their knowledge or helping to carry out activities, provide transport or translation. CSA core groups or boards were important support in developing the LIIs and securing funding, for example writing grant applications, identifying future opportunities for the CSF and LIIs, and engaging other shareholders. Building on Hvitsand (2014)’s findings that an active core group is important for CSF success, I found that an active core group can strengthen LIIs as well. Furthermore, some CSFs had extra work power such as via NAV or WWOOF,⁴ who could support the LIIs with practical preparation, but not necessarily join the LIIs directly. Some LII participants also provided valuable work power; for example, all interviewees had experienced the highly qualified, quick and independent work of some immigrants with a farming background. Interviewees perhaps referred more to participants’ work power contribution than I had expected from background literature on GC but given that CSFs often rely on shareholders’ work effort, the emphasis on work power is less surprising. That said, my understanding was not that CSFs offered LIIs *because* they needed more hands; if shareholders stepped up and volunteers came to, or participants contributed valuable work, that was an appreciated side-effect.

However, interviewees shared that extra, voluntary engagement might be required, especially in the early phase of developing LIIs. Mostly, the interviewees seemed very conscious about the resources at their disposal, for example in knowledgeable, retired shareholders, or immigrant shareholders who spoke good Norwegian and could translate for new participants. Providers may want to identify who they can engage to help establish or develop LIIs to the next level. Volunteer or employed; but engaged primarily because they find the LII work

⁴ NAV is the Norwegian Labour and Welfare Administration. WWOOF is an international organisation, World Wide Opportunities on Organic Farms.

meaningful and important and are enthusiastic about it. The latter statement plays on a key finding in reports on GC, where stakeholders on the buyers' side rated enthusiasts (*ildsjeler*); in agriculture, among participants and participants' next of kin, and in social pedagogical work; as important both in taking the initiative for and developing GC services (Dvergsdal, Båtevik, & Aarset, 2012; Prestvik et al., 2013). The reports and my interview data both indicate that enthusiasts can be a great support for GC and LII activities, but also a sign of vulnerability. Depending on enthusiasts can be risky, as enthusiasm can be liable to change and enthusiasts' priorities are likely to vary over time (Prestvik et al., 2013). Generally, the safest approach for CSFs is to consider enthusiasts an addition, not a replacement, for employed LII providers. Overall, providers could start taking stock of human resources by asking themselves what LIIs they have the people to provide; including find customers and set up agreements for, and skilfully plan, execute, and communicate about.

3.1.2 Prioritise planning and communication

Some interviewees found it challenging to schedule multiple parallel farm and CSF activities. For example, a gardener could end up having a scheduled school visit on the same day as a time-sensitive task needed doing in the field. My interviewees' CSFs all produced vegetables by organic principles, and often used a small area of land intensively; which was work demanding and required much logistics in the field. In other words, the gardening itself required much planning, and adding LIIs on top of that made planning even more vital and challenging; to avoid one activity compromising the other. Some participants were also difficult to plan for, for example if different individuals, with different facilitators would visit at unpredictable times. Lund et al. (2015) found something similar in their focus groups with GC providers; cooperation with and predictability from the relevant parties were key challenges faced by GC providers. Solid planning and clear communication with the parties involved are necessary to offer LIIs without compromising CSF activities, and to facilitate good experiences for all.

Interviewees spoke little about buyers' experience. Perhaps because buyers were positive, and grants funded several of the LIIs, making buyers' experience a less relevant concern. However, GC research substantiates that LIIs may want to prioritise good communication with buyers (Dvergsdal et al., 2012; Giskeødegård et al., 2016; Prestvik et al., 2013). Egset, Strauma, and Giskeødegård (2015) recommended that providers of GC "dementia day care" prioritise marketing and public visibility, to increase the likelihood that GC would be prioritised in municipal budgets. Marketing could also improve shared understanding of what the LIIs offer;

between providers, buyers, and next of kin; which some GC literature describes as key to success (Egset et al., 2015; Gjerstad, 2010). This could include sharing clear and well-organised concepts and developing standardised agreements, but more generally, good cooperation and open dialogue (Giskeødegård et al., 2016; Prestvik et al., 2013). Perhaps even more essentially, however, happy buyers depend on happy participants.

Interviewees emphasised that participants should always leave the farm with positive experiences, which took planning. Positive experiences for all required, for example, facilitating appropriate and meaningful tasks for all, or giving reminders that “today is farm day, be ready then and there”. Well-planned facilities on the farm could also be important, such as securing easy field access, strategically placed benches, bathrooms, drinking water and coffee. Many LII participants were in vulnerable life situations, and interviewees emphasised the importance of careful communication for LIIs to benefit the participants. Interviewees found that communication with participants could sometimes be challenging, for example because of language barriers and different levels of skill and experience with farming. An interviewee also emphasised that poor communication the first time around means much time spent answering questions or rectifying mistakes. Good planning and good communication came across from interviewees as key to happy participants, and key for themselves, as providers, to have a positive experience as well.

Providers preferred taking time to communicate effectively the first time around, whether in person or online. Some chose to engage interpreters (volunteer or paid) at the start of their refugee or immigrant integration initiative to make sure that essential information about CSA came across. Some were also improving their communication with LII participants largely along the same lines as they improved communication with members; for example, by improving field signage and giving clearer instructions for work in the fields and for harvest. Interviewees all told fun stories about communication somehow gone wrong; for example, leaving a neat strip of weeds in place of carrots. In addition to interpersonal communication, all interviewees highlighted the importance of social and traditional media for communication with participants and the general public. Some found media use challenging, others were confidently and actively using various media channels to support their LIIs.

LII presence in media could enrich participants’ experiences. CSFs were present in different media channels to varying extents. All had a Facebook site and a profile at the national CSA project’s website (www.andelslandbruk.no). Most also had a website. Furthermore, some had

appeared in local newspapers or even on TV. Media presence served purposes beyond recruitment to the CSF. One interviewee explained that building a brand and becoming known to the local community could help participants to proudly associate themselves with the farm. Through a visible brand, the farm could become a stronger part of participants' identity. Two of my interviewees especially emphasised the power of media use, and the corresponding challenge of identifying and correctly using the "right" media channels. All interviewees wanted to build an online presence, and those less confident were gradually learning how.

3.1.3 Expect to change and adapt

Providers were gradually figuring out what worked for them in their given contexts. LIIs had started due to providers' or buyers' initiative. My interviewees' start-up stories seemed in line with the GC experience, which Prestvik et al. (2013) described as largely provider-driven and provider-initiated. In developing their LIIs, providers depended on their own experience, feedback from participants and customers, other CSFs' experiences, advice from key individuals in the Norwegian Agricultural Extension Service (NLR⁵), and principles from related activities such as school gardens and permaculture. One interviewee had attended the further education course "the farm as a pedagogical resource" and built on that as a knowledge base. LIIs continuously adapted, especially to customer demands and funding, to the development of the CSF and farm, and to learn from past years' experiences. This is in line with criteria for success identified in GC literature that mentions *flexibility* and *adaptation* to individual participants among the services' major strengths from a buyer's perspective (Dvergsdal et al., 2012; Prestvik et al., 2013). Furthermore, LIIs continuous adaptation is in line with Sørbrøden and Gjønnnes (1998)'s findings, based on 8-9 years of experience with work training and mental health projects in Vestfold, that farms with versatile offers and resources held a key to success. Either way, desire and ability to change and adapt seemed prerequisites for LIIs to establish and advance.

Meanwhile, providers were increasingly confident about the type and form of LIIs they wanted to offer or host, and some were specialising and professionalising accordingly. Providers were, for example, investing in facilities such as toilets, wardrobes, kitchens, and meeting rooms; improving field access roads, building a better website, or stronger media presence; developing

⁵ Umbrella organisation for ten knowledge-centred and member-owned regional advisory units (www.nlr.no).

standard contracts, plans, and routines; investing in more employees or further education for themselves; or wanting to certify as a GC farm. In other words, becoming more professional LII providers, hopefully improving their own, participants', and buyers experience. GC literature mentions that municipalities find non-standard contracts and reporting procedures challenging about GC services; supporting interviewees' impression that buyers' experience improves with standard contracts, applications, and reporting procedures (Knutsen & Milford, 2015). That said, types and forms of LIIs varied from highly CSF-facilitated, to lower-threshold activities where the CSF offered an arena for participants and buyers to carry out their own activities. Regardless, interviewees spoke of specialisation and professionalisation, largely to develop economically sustainable LIIs, that served both providers, participants, and buyers.

According to some GC literature, the market for alternative service provisioning is likely to professionalise. If so, LIIs like GC may need to focus on developing business models and promoting their comparative advantage to survive as service providers, and even expect to give bids (*anbud*) (Prestvik et al., 2013; Stene, 2015, 2016). Stene (2015) also stated that developing profitable and sustainable business models for GC can be challenging; since growth is rarely an alternative, quality is often anchored in producing few services, and capacity is limited. Based on my case interviews and visits, the same applies to many LIIs, and LII providers might benefit from taking time to understand their market. For example, in terms of their municipality's history with GC and similarly non-standard or nature-based welfare services. This knowledge can be important to understand how easy or hard it will be to recruit the municipality as a buyer of LII services; if that is a goal. LIIs do not necessarily have to cater to municipalities, as I will discuss more in section 3.1.4 on funding. However, if providers are wanting to recruit municipalities, they can benefit from knowing that the market for welfare services is segmented into multiple areas. So, for example, even if a municipality has a long history of using GC for education, municipal employees working with health, crime, or work training may be unfamiliar with the concept (Stene, 2015). Clear communication about what the provider can offer, well-defined roles and thought-through agreements can help recruit buyers, according to findings about GC (Kogstad, Hopfenbeck, & Hummelvoll, 2012; Prestvik et al., 2013). CSFs, being even newer service providers than GC farms, can maybe learn from GC's experience selling welfare services to municipalities.

A need for innovation in service provisioning has been a key argument for GC, and one LIIs can build on. Dvergsdal et al. (2012) stated that municipalities need innovation and innovation

partners to offer alternatives for participants who do not benefit from, or have no, standardised services provided to them. Stene (2015) found that the market for alternative service provisioning was not only professionalising, but also becoming more inclusive of diverse approaches to therapy and pedagogy; strengthening the legitimacy of GC and opening for more innovation. Dvergsdal et al. (2012) and Prestvik et al. (2013) suggested that GC had paved way for more innovation in welfare provision and had transfer-value to other public-private partnerships. If so, LIIs can capitalise from the innovation done with GC. Furthermore, according to Prestvik et al. (2013)'s national survey, most municipal employees thought that GC would be needed in the future. LIIs can supplement GC in meeting the demand.

Interviewees identified several opportunities for future development of their LIIs. Such opportunities included building a greenhouse, developing a herb garden, acquiring more land for participants to farm, and keeping animals such as sheep or hens. Some CSFs already kept sheep or hens and mentioned that this was partly for the enjoyment of participants. Animal keeping could be difficult for a cooperative-organised CSA to introduce, but many farmer-led CSFs keep animals anyway. CSFs can also cooperate with other farms that have animals, to diversify their LII activities. Either way, the providers I interviewed seemed well prepared to meet a professionalising and more inclusive market: they were learning, adapting, diversifying, and some were starting to specialise. Presently, all were offering two or more LIIs, experiencing different forms and niches of welfare service provisioning. Providers also seemed content offering more than one LII at the same time. Knutsen and Milford (2015), in their survey of all approved or undergoing-approval Norwegian GC farms, found something similar. Keeping a low (39%) response rate in mind, their results state that 72% of GC providers offered more than one service, indicating that offering more than one welfare service is a common strategy among GC and LII farms? In my understanding from the cases, perhaps because diverse activities help tap farm resources and use relevant investments maximally; or are a strategy for added resilience to market fluctuations.

3.1.4 Define and secure appropriate funding

Among the providers I interviewed, funding was a key driver of change and adaptation, partly because of its often-short-term nature. The LIIs were funded by buyers or various grants.⁶

⁶ Relevant grants in Norway included from Sparebankstiftelsen, Gjensidigestiftelsen, Naturfagsenteret, Integrerings- og mangfoldsdirektoratet (IMDi), Barne-, ungdoms- og

Funding size and form (earmarking) often varied from year to year, since contracts with municipalities were often up to 12 months, and grants were often project-based. Most GC contracts with municipalities, too, according to Knutsen and Milford (2015)'s survey, were shorter than one year. So this is a common practice, and one commonly mentioned as a key challenge for GC (Dvergsdal et al., 2012; Egset et al., 2015; Prestvik et al., 2013). The LII providers I interviewed considered some level of funding necessary, partly depending on the nature (costliness) of the LII. But all interviewees expressed that funding was only one element of the LIIs' bottom line. Many emphasised LIIs' various benefits, which I return to in section 3.2, as the most important "payment" for LIIs. Meanwhile, some interviewees did consider the commonly short-term funding a challenge, and desired guarantees for longer-term funding, for example through framework agreements. Longer-term funding would allow longer-term planning and larger-scale investments to develop and accommodate for the LIIs, including the opportunity to safely leave other work to focus on the LIIs: which some providers desired.

However, contrary to my belief, about half the interviewees found short-term funding unproblematic and even beneficial. I understand this as follows: Many farmers are accustomed to year-by-year planning and unpredictable income – especially vegetable producers, given the Norwegian system. If, on top of that, a customers' demand, willingness, and ability to pay for LIIs seems unlikely to change, providers will consider funding relatively reliable even if they have no long-term guarantee. I base this reasoning partly on an interviewee's explanation of how pre-paid of LIIs enable timely investments throughout the growth season, like pre-paid CSF membership fees, and contrary to traditionally organised vegetable production and sale. In conclusion, my point is that LIIs should consider what funding suits them best. Is year-by-year planning enough? Do they perhaps enjoy the flexibility of short-term contracts? Or do they want and need longer-term funding to allow larger investments and longer-term planning?

Providers and their respective CSFs' economies relied on LIIs to varying extents. Some, at least with time, needed to secure an amount of money for the LIIs to continue to provide – whether they liked it or not. Others relied less on the LII income, their income and the CSF's existence only one part of and perhaps backed by a larger farm economy. I further understood that having a farm economy backing could also give liquidity to the LIIs, enabling timely adjustments and

familiedirektoratet (Bufdir), and Miljødirektoratet. The grants are typically allowed for "doing something good for the community".

giving the LIIs leeway before making even (covering their own costs). Meanwhile, LIIs were never the only source of farm income, and all interviewees had off-farm employment of some kind.

From interviews, I understood that providers channelled LII funding either directly into the CSF or parallel to the CSF. “Directly into the CSF” would mean, for example, in the form of subsidised shares or special “group” shares for participants. “Parallel to the CSF” refers to funding channelled to the farm or cooperative more generally: At some of the farmer-led CSFs I visited, LIIs seemed to be somewhere between “part of the farm” and “part of the CSF”, so the CSF and LII appeared as parallel *farm activities*. However, details of financial and organisational arrangements are outside the scope of my study. I mention them to help explain that different kinds of funding may be appropriate for different LIIs and CSFs.

The topic of work hours was key to all my interviews, including because of its importance to defining appropriate funding. All interviewees were busy people, often with multiple employment and voluntary engagements, both on and off farm. Busyness was a challenge for all interviewees, including because of workload and scheduling conflicts. On the other hand, LIIs could be more or less labour intensive; some LIIs requiring little extra work, others much, and some participants contributing more work than it took to host them. As discussed in section 3.1.1, about human resources, and section 3.1.2, about communication and logistics, some LIIs required specific and detailed facilitation. Most interviewees had at least one LII experience like that, and agreed that work hours were, or should be, a major concern when designing LIIs and securing funding. This is in line with Stokke and Rye (2007)’s finding that workload was a key concern for GC profitability. One of my interviewees mentioned wanting to redirect more funding to LII work hours, another said that the buyer could never afford to pay for the actual number of work hours the providers put into the LII. Some interviewees said that work hours must be relative to funding, for the LIIs to survive long-term. Otherwise, providers would have to keep up more off-farm work, and a tiring level of business. As also mentioned in section 3.1.1, I understood that interviewees were fine with extra, voluntary work effort in a start-up phase, but wanted to reduce it over time.

In addition to work hours, LII pricing could depend on a several factors. Such as, how much and what type of facilitation the provider would be responsible for, what or if participants harvested from the fields, how often participants came, and how many they were. Furthermore, LIIs could include an activity program, work assignments, tools and equipment, transport,

produce, meals, planning, facilitators, and a well-maintained outdoor or indoor location with many or few facilities (simple or full kitchen, bathroom, meeting area). As appropriate, providers should calculate all the above into LII prices.

Some of GC providers' experience selling welfare services can apply to LIIs. Many GC initiatives are *salutogenic* (health-promoting) in nature and generate benefits that we have no way of measuring (Berget, 2013; Dessen & Bock, 2010). This has sometimes made GC difficult for municipalities to prioritise; having to pay for acute services first (Haugan et al., 2006). However, according to Prestvik et al. (2013)'s survey, most municipal employees found GC competitive both in price and quality and thought it worth paying extra for. Dvergsdal et al. (2012) nuanced that economy weighed in favour of using GC preventatively. Prestvik et al. (2013)'s findings supported this, also by referring to the costliness of using specialised institutions and of people dropping out of school. This refers back to GC's documented benefits, as referred in this thesis' introduction. The GC experience, likely to apply to LIIs as well, is that the services can keep people happy and healthy, and away from more desperate situations.

3.2 Benefits Norwegian CSFs could reap and generate from LIIs

I found that Norwegian CSFs could reap and generate a range of benefits from LIIs. The benefits spanned from personal to global.

3.2.1 Personal and on-farm benefits

Providers perceived the LIIs as beneficial, which was central to their motivation for the LII work. For example, stakeholders enjoyed that LIIs made the farm more social and diverse; and for some the LII activity brought with a clear sense of community. Providers often enjoyed good company, good conversations, and reciprocal care and gratitude with LII participants. They enjoyed eating food dishes from all around the world and learning about different cultures and food traditions. Some types of LIIs were less explicitly enjoyable for the provider, for example because the provider rarely met the participants in person. However, providers still found the LIIs meaningful. For example, providers found great motivation and personal benefit in positive feedback received from facilitators and buyers, participants themselves, and participants' families and friends. LIIs also made providers more aware the value of their own knowledge and skills, through the chance to share with others.

LIIs used farm resources, including human, ecological, and material, even better than CSA alone. Some providers and volunteers used their knowledge and skills in a new way when addressing LII participants. Participants sometimes improved providers' agronomical knowledge, by asking difficult questions or requesting novel vegetable types. Extra hands and different dietary demands warranted greater in-field diversity; and made better use of the produce, reducing food waste. LIIs brought extra mouths to eat from surplus cultures, or food cultures accustomed to different types and parts of vegetables, herbs, and "weeds" (which some might know to use as food or tea). LIIs also prompted farm development, such as restoration of old buildings to provide indoors space or toilets for the participants; or introducing greenhouses or herb beds to enrich participants' experience. Such benefits not only benefited LIIs, but the CSF and farm overall; inspiring further development. The diversified activities also meant diversified income, strengthening the economic robustness of the CSF or farm. All providers saw LIIs as one branch of their activities, that could work in synergy with other activities.

The cases I studied all had or were hoping to branch into tourism or restaurant/café collaboration. In some of the cases, stakeholders found that investments warranted by the LII made the CSF more attractive or accessible for tourists (for example, a kitchen and place to serve food) and restaurants (for example, easy access to the fields for harvest). Some providers considered that this further diversification would make the farm more robust and generate more employment, thus becoming less dependent on enthusiasts and more likely to survive long-term. Many providers emphasised how LIIs helped build their CSF's identity and culture, which they wanted to be inclusive, tolerant, and sustainability focused.

GC shares many of LIIs' on-farm benefits. Summarising GC research, Berget and Braastad (2008) found that farmers' main motives for GC were to increase income and to develop and offer quality activities that bring mastery and engagement. Another important motivation for GC providers was to use farm resources effectively, bridge a gap between countryside values and the greater society, meet a need in society, and use one's own competence (Knutsen & Milford, 2015). Knutsen and Milford (2015) also found that many GC farms operated with a synergy of different activities and agricultural production. Also in line with my interviewees' descriptions of LII benefits, Sørbrøden and Gjønnnes (1998) found that GC improved farmers' self-reported life quality and employment; 70% of the farmers in their survey said GC had given them a better life. Based on what I understood during interviews, I would not be surprised if some of my interviewees said the same about CSA and LIIs.

Community and belonging are key words for the personal benefits of GC and LIIs. Through GC and LIIs, increasingly individualised farms again become community-oriented, simultaneously creating an arena where people can reconnect with physical and spiritual nourishment from local resources (Jolly & Krogh, n.d.; Krogh & Jolly, 2011). The latter applies to CSA in general as well as LII in specific. According to Hvitsand (2014), many farmers' and gardeners' motivations for CSA derived from wanting to create a meeting place, and engage with and be near agriculture and food. LIIs reflect benefits of GC and build on motivations for and benefits of CSA; extending the benefits to more and different people.

3.2.2 Local benefits

Many interviewees perceived that participants' life quality improved through the LIIs. Time at the farm was often a welcome alternative to other activities offered (or not offered) to participants. Providers had often witnessed participants' learning, mastery, enjoyment, and enthusiasm. The CSF activities required physical activity, adapted to participants' level, and provided time in nature, rich sensory impressions, and space to play; all of which the providers described as beneficial for participants. Furthermore, LII participants often received quality vegetables for free, and some LIIs taught cooking skills. Thus, participants got a chance to improve the quality of their diet, and many likely did. Providers knew that most participants harvested and ate their share of vegetables. The improvements to participants' life quality were perceived as salutogenic, preventative, and sometimes necessary.

All the CSFs I visited promoted inclusiveness and equality in society. For example, by cultivating belonging and community, and facilitating meetings between different "kinds" of people. All interviewees found the field to be a great place for social integration. Providers explained how social barriers disintegrate when people of different ages, with different challenges, from different socioeconomic groups, and from different cultures, come together in the field. Knowledge and skill level in the field is independent of "social status", and everyone is in work clothes, or at least getting dirty together, working towards a common goal. Language was sometimes described a challenge to making this happen in practice.

But overall, providers believed that LII participation gave a sense of belonging. Providers wanted participants to enjoy the CSF as part of their identity, both in terms of the values the CSFs promoted and roots to the historical grounds where some LIIs took place. Some providers emphasised upholding their cultural heritage. Furthermore, sharing the belonging and community wider, some CSFs opened for participants to bring their families to visit. Others

again experienced that LII participants became more engaged in the local community – and hypothesised that this was because the LII gave participants a new attachment to place and local community. Krogh and Jolly (2011) described something related; place-based learning strengthening children’s anchoring to the place they come from. Hvitsand (2014) found the opposite connection, that people engaged in voluntary work in the local community are among the most persevering and engaged CSF shareholders. Maybe belonging and engagement work both ways.

All interviewees agreed that CSFs are inherent arenas for learning and considered experiential learning an important element of most LIIs. Interviewees and I spoke of LII-based learning as in learning about *people* (experiencing equality in the field); learning *language*; and learning about *food, biological processes, and sustainability*. Interviewees experienced that the field could be an excellent classroom for children, but also for adult participants (and shareholders). Two interviewees highlighted that the field is a great place to learn language through informal conversation. Furthermore, providers described how participants learn by taking part in interdisciplinary activities often highly relevant to their lives, and how participants’ experiences reach their friends and relatives as well: as they tell stories about the farm and perhaps visit the CSF. Children who were learning through practical work in the field went through an interdisciplinary range of learning goals, and maybe brought what they learnt back to school, to work with before and after each visit. All interviewees found that participants and others who engaged in the activities often left with new realisations or reflections.

LIIs extend the benefits of CSA to a larger section of the local community. In that sense, they fill a gap identified by Hvitsand (2014), who stated that CSA must reach out to the greater society to scale up and strengthen its mission for aware consumers and improved food systems. LIIs are one way that CSFs can reach more and other groups of people, applying what Hvitsand (2014) described as the CSA framework for community, learning, and experiences around food and food production; providing social cohesion, joy, and public health; and contributes to more sustainable local communities. Another community benefit of CSA that LIIs extend is strengthened connection between humans and nature; which can strengthen concern both for the environment and human wellbeing (Ives et al., 2017; Pretty, 2004; Soga & Gaston, 2016). In other words, LIIs can contribute to consumers’ health and engagement for sustainability. Finally, LIIs can lead to what some interviewees described as “bridging countryside realism and city ideals” around food. Another benefit of CSA that LIIs share and scale up.

3.2.3 National benefits

Many of the local benefits described above can scale to the national level. Often by extension of the CSA's benefits, LIIs answer to many Norwegian policy goals. Such policy goals include recruitment to farming and people-scarce rural areas; rural entrepreneurship; sustainable agricultural practices; and public health (LMD, 2015, 2016; KMD, 2018; Zahl-Thanem, Fuglestad, & Vik, 2018). Of more specific benefits CSFs can contribute to Norwegian political goals, Hvitsand (2014, 2016) mentioned many: strengthened food security based on domestic production, preserved of food resources, being an alternative to land use change, contributing to increased consumption of organic food, representing innovative and sustainable agriculture, supporting local business, bio-economy, more vegetables in peoples' diets, increased interaction between producer and consumer, more physical activity, and public health through community, joy and enjoyment. According to Heggem (2014), farm-based welfare services can also counter-balance the male dominance in rural areas, by attracting more female succession to farms. CSA's value generation in agriculture is broad, and in line with environmental, economic, social, and cultural sustainability, Hvitsand (2014) summarised. The challenge, she stated, is to scale up, and she asked governance what role they could have in stimulating the scale-up of CSA's experiences to benefit greater society.

LIIs can help Norway overcome their identified challenges in achieving the SDGs. According to the Ministry of Foreign Affairs (2015), Norway's key challenges are to reduce lifestyle diseases and promote mental health, increase rates of upper secondary school completion, reduce the share of young people who are not employed, in education or training, halve food waste and reducing waste generation, reduce types of violence and related death rates and fight organised crime, and reduce emissions by at least 40% by 2030 compared to 1990. In the perspective of providers, LIIs can contribute to all the above.

LIIs are timely and useful given recent developments in Norwegian policy. For example, the national learning plans for primary school are currently being revised and will have three core themes: *public health and "life coping"*, *democracy and citizenship*, and *sustainable development* (Ministry of Education and Research, 2018). From what I have read and heard in interviews, LIIs can address all the above in powerful, experiential and transdisciplinary ways. Furthermore, LIIs are timely because, by law, all Norwegian municipalities must facilitate day care activities for people with dementia by 2020 (The Norwegian Directorate of Health, 2018). As mentioned in section 3.1.3 about change and adaptation, LIIs can complement GC as

possible welfare service providers (Egset et al., 2015; Ibsen, Eriksen, & Patil, 2018; Sudmann & Børsheim, 2017). A third note on timeliness; Norway currently also faces increasing attention to climate robustness in agriculture, having experienced a very wet summer in 2017, and a very dry summer in 2018. According to Bardalen (2018)'s report on climate risk and Norwegian food production, farmers and policymakers should embrace measures to mitigate the consequences of extreme and unpredictable weather. LIIs can help build robustness to climate shocks in agriculture by diversifying farm funding and promoting agriculture's importance to the general public.

3.2.4 Global benefits

All my interviewees were aware of the SDGs, and some used the Goals actively in designing, marketing, and getting funding for LII activities. Some used "sustainability in practice" as a slogan, and some were actively working towards a selection of SDGs. All interviewees agreed that LIIs contribute to several SDGs, and to some SDGs more than others. Interviewees who had not considered it before, were enthusiastic about using SDGs to argue the importance of their LII work, for example to buyers and to the CSF annual meeting.

While aspects of the SDGs are controversial, for example that some consider aiming for sustained economic growth *and* environmental sustainability self-contradictory, the SDGs reflect human rights and widely agreed upon approaches to sustainability (Briant Carant, 2017; Cosme, Santos, & O'Neill, 2017; United Nations General Assembly, 1948, 2017). The SDGs are the most integrative global framework for *sustainable development*, both in terms of elements considered and country support.

My conclusion from interview data and from reviewing the official SDG sub-goals, targets, and indicators was that LIIs can contribute to all the 17 SDGs (United Nations General Assembly, 2017). Appendix B contains Table B1, that describes aspects of each SDG where LIIs can contribute. Some of the LIIs' contributions to SDGs build on contributions already made by CSFs themselves, and the strength of LIIs' contributions vary between goals and LIIs. Nonetheless, LIIs can contribute to all 17 Goals.

3.3 Implications

I present four elements to answer research question 1, that derive from context-specific data but are general enough to apply to CSFs in general. Providers can consider the four elements as a starting point for establishing or advancing LIIs; applying the elements to their specific context as appropriate. The elements also have transfer-value to LII-like initiatives in other arenas, like school gardens and urban farms, and even to farm diversification overall. The elements are a framework that stakeholders in Norway and abroad can modify and adapt to their given context. They can also inform stakeholders who wish to *support* the development of LIIs; for example, by offering to train providers in relevant skills.

Research question 2 serves as a database of benefits that can inspire and legitimise LII work. Providers can identify and further research the benefits that are most applicable to them, to use for example in grant applications or proposals to municipalities. Furthermore, policymakers can review the benefits to understand how LIIs can contribute to society and to sustainable development. Many of the benefits I identify for LIIs also apply, more narrowly, to CSFs, and, with a few modifications, to traditional GC farms and other similar endeavours, such as school gardens and some urban agriculture initiatives. Stakeholders must review the benefits I describe with their specific context in mind (some will be relevant, others not) and remember that the benefit descriptions are based on providers' own perceptions.

My findings illustrate how diversified agriculture can be in line with an agroecological approach. Categorising the benefits I described in section 3.2 relative to FAO (2018a)'s ten elements of agroecology gives that the LIIs are all about *diversity*, above and below ground. They represent *synergy* between different types of activities, skills, and productions. *Co-creation and sharing of knowledge*, including theoretical and practical, are often at the heart of the activities. Furthermore, LIIs promote awareness of and knowledge about *resource-use efficiency* and *recycling*. They support *human and social values*, including livelihoods, equality, and well-being. LIIs promote *culture and food traditions*, enabling diets that are healthy, diverse, and appropriate to culture. LIIs also call for *responsible governance* of food and agriculture; transparent to and inclusive of consumers. Finally, LIIs connect producers and a broad array of consumers, supporting local development and a *circular and solidarity economy*. CSFs themselves embody many of FAO's elements already, but LIIs forward them, by reaching a wider section of the population and prompting an even more inclusive farm ecology. Beyond describing LII establishment, advancement, and benefits, my research demonstrates how policy

such as the elements of agroecology and the SDGs can apply to grassroots and small business initiatives.

To share my conclusions with stakeholders, I plan to develop a provider-oriented, practical and actionable summary in Norwegian. The summary will contain my findings, checklists or “questions to ask yourself” to put the findings into practice, and some additional resources for providers. I include a preliminary outline in Appendix A. My intention is for the summary to be a working document; a continuously evolving, action-oriented and experience-based resource that stakeholders can access, modify, and supplement.

The present research provides a general framework for LII establishment, advancement, and benefits, that future research can complement. Many knowledgeable stakeholders have been instrumental to GC and CSA development in Norway, including as advisors, project managers, and volunteers. The general framework I propose would benefit from their views, as well as those of buyers and participants. I recommend future research to explore their views, since limited time and resources kept me from including them. Future research could also explore more providers’ perspectives, as more providers emerge. This would deepen the overall understanding of LII establishment, advancement, and benefits. More research and more provider experience will advance, through substantiation or change, the general mechanisms I have attempted to reveal (by identifying four general elements). Additionally, to further record the *rationale* for LIIs, I recommend studying therapeutic, pedagogical, mental health, and nutritional effects on participants; agronomical effects on the farm, from added labour and stronger knowledge-emphasis; and perhaps – in the longer term – changes in rates of crime, employment, school completion, and rural-urban migration. My research represents a first step towards more, informed and beneficial establishment and advancement of LIIs, that can help transform agri-food systems and achieve the SDGs.

4 CONCLUSION

From a study of four Norwegian cases, I theorise a framework to help CSFs establish and advance LII provisioning. I define the framework in four elements. To establish and advance LIIs, providers should (1) take stock of human resources, (2) dedicate time to logistics and communication, (3) expect to change and adapt, and (4) define and secure appropriate funding. Providers can use the elements as a checklist when starting LIIs, or as prompts for reflection when developing LIIs. The elements are a general starting point, modifiable to CSFs' specific contexts, transferrable to other welfare service providers, and for future research to develop.

Future research can also document LIIs' ability to cultivate benefits at various levels, which I describe from a provider's perspective. The providers I interviewed perceived benefits spanning from personal to global; that cut across economic, ecological, and social dimensions; and are consistent with benefits found in GC research. The perceived benefits indicate that LIIs can improve individual people's life quality, promote local community cohesion, and support national policy goals. Furthermore, the described benefits align with an agroecological approach to improved food systems and can contribute to all the 17 SDGs.

I recommend circulating the present research to support CSFs wanting to provide LIIs; and continue to explore, from various perspectives and in different contexts, *what works*.

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Appendix A: Plans for a provider-oriented summary in Norwegian

I plan to convert my results into a summary for stakeholders, targeted especially to (potential) LII providers in Norway. The summary will be based on my findings from the present research, made concrete and actionable, with some added resources and input from relevant actors. The purpose of the summary is to make the current research accessible for and useful to those who can benefit from it.

A preliminary outline

- (1) Stating the purpose of the summary and its origins in my thesis case study research. Introducing the basic concept and some key terms: learning, social inclusion, CSA, GC...
- (2) Why LIIs? Summarising providers' perceived benefits, relevant GC research, thoughts on agri-food systems improvement and sustainable development.
- (3) How to establish and advance LIIs? A table containing the four elements identified in my research, and concrete "questions to ask yourself" or checklist items to implement each element. How to apply an agroecological approach as a tool for CSF and LII improvement (ex. charting resource flows, visioning and identifying concrete steps for systems improvement). How to "use" the SDGs.
- (4) Resources. Websites, books, key reports; suggestions for contracts, budgets, sources of grants, and activities.

Appendix B: How LIIs can contribute to the SDGs

Table B1: Norwegian LIIs' potential contributions to the SDGs, as defined in the Global Indicator Framework for the SDGs (United Nations General Assembly, 2017).

SDG	Norwegian LIIs can contribute
1 No poverty	Access to natural resources and food for population groups who could not otherwise afford it. Mobilise government spending to social protection, and to benefit vulnerable groups.
2 Zero hunger	Safe and nutritious food. Income to small-scale farmers. Area under productive and sustainable agriculture, with resilient (adaptation-capable) agricultural practices. Maintain genetic diversity. Investment in rural infrastructure.
3 Good health and well-being	Less non-communicable disease through knowledge about and access to healthier diets, and more physical activity (to participants). Better mental health and well-being. Better prevention and treatment of drug and alcohol abuse (work and therapy programs).
4 Quality education	Inclusive and effective, quality education/training. Including to children and youth who struggle with standard schooling and people with disabilities. Disseminate knowledge and skills necessary for sustainable development, including appreciation for cultural diversity.
5 Gender equality	Promote shared responsibility within the household (man joins woman in acquiring groceries/produce). Full and equal participation of women and girls.
6 Clean water and sanitation	(Access to drinking water and sanitation facilities.) Attention to pollution and run-off through chemicals-free production and organic practices. Attention to water recycling and resource use (especially during last year's drought).
7 Affordable and clean energy	Invest in and produce renewable energy (such as solar, biogas). Use clean energy technology.
8 Decent work and economic growth	Economic productivity through diversification and innovation, including in labour-intensive sectors. Promote policies to support entrepreneurship, innovation, small- and medium-sized enterprises. Decouple economic growth from environmental degradation. Provide decent and equitable

	employment. Reduce proportion of youth who are not employed or studying/training. Create jobs in sustainable tourism, including to promote local culture and products.
9 Industry, innovation and infrastructure	Develop universal access infrastructure. Encourage innovation and research spending.
10 Reduced inequalities	Include all people, including of all ages, sexes, disabilities, races, ethnicities, origins, religions, and socioeconomic statuses.
11 Sustainable cities and communities	Attract spending on cultural and natural heritage. Provide access to green spaces that are safe, inclusive, and accessible; including for females and children, elderly, and people with disabilities. Strengthen positive links between urban, peri-urban, and rural areas (economic, social, and environmental).
12 Responsible consumption and production	Contribute to sustainable and efficient management and use of natural resources. Create awareness about and emotional connection to food waste. Facilitate reduce use of agrochemicals. Create awareness about waste reduction, recycling, and reuse, including among consumers and public procurement bodies. Share information and awareness about sustainable development and nature-agreeing lifestyles, including in the school system.
13 Climate action	Develop, put into practice, educate and raise awareness about measures for resilience and adaptation to climate change (extreme weather).
14 Life below water	Practice to reduce and generate awareness about marine pollution, including from waste and nutrient runoff.
15 Life on land	Use and generate awareness about land and soil restoring practices. Mobilise for ecosystem-inspired and biodiversity-preserving agriculture.
16 Peace, justice and strong institutions	Pave way for transparent, accountable, and effective business/cooperatives; with inclusive and participatory decision-making.
17 Partnerships for the goals	Develop partnerships with buyers and funders of LII services; public-private partnerships. Partake in collaboration for CSA, nationally and internationally.

Appendix C: Interviewees

- Dun andelslandbruk – Sissel Thorsen and Ola Kai Faksdal
- Nerol økologiske andelshage – Marit Nerol
- Nes andelsgård – Inge Stene Nes
- Porsgrunn andelsgård – Gunn Marit Christenson

Appendix D: Case study protocol

1. Introduction to the case study and purpose of protocol

The purpose of the case study protocol is to allow a transparent and replicable approach to case studies. The protocol provides an overview of the whole research process.

The present project is a thesis project for the Master's in Agroecology at the Norwegian University of Life Sciences (NMBU). For my thesis project, I aim to investigate benefits, start-up and success factors of learning and social inclusion initiatives (LIIs) at Norwegian Community Supported Farms (CSFs). LIIs are new in Norway (less than 5 years) but may be similar to Green Care welfare services offered at traditionally organised farms. Green Care services in Norway emerged in the 1990s. Green Care, especially animal-assisted and horticultural therapy, are well-researched, including in Norway. Some research into Norwegian CSA exists, too. However, little has been written about LIIs.

Table D1: Suggested background reading, according to topic, and in no particular order.

Topic	Suggested literature
Case study research and qualitative interviews	Bernard (2006); Brinkmann & Kvale (2015); Nygaard (2017); Yin (2009, 2014)
SDGs	Chaudhary, Gustafson, & Mathys (2018); IAEG-SDGs (2017); Ministry of Foreign Affairs (2015)
Agroecology	Altieri (1995, 1999); FAO (2018a); Francis et al. (2003); Gliessman (1990, 2000, 2014); IPES-Food (2018); Lieblein, Østergaard, & Francis (2004); Méndez, Bacon, Cohen, & Gliessman (2015)
Diversified Norwegian agriculture	Bjørkhaug & Richards (2008); Haugan, Nyland, Fjeldavli, Meistad, & Braastad (2006); Meistad (2004); Ministry of Agriculture and Food (2015, 2016); Vik & McElwee (2011); Zahl-Thanem, Fuglestad, & Vik (2018)
Green Care	Berget (2013); Berget & Braastad (2008); Dvergsdal, Båtevik, & Aarset (2012); Gallis (ed.) (2013); García-Llorente, Rubio-Oliver, & Gutierrez-Briceño (2018); Hassink, DeBruin, Berget, Elings, & Thodberg (2017); Hassink & Hulsink (2018); Hillestad & Fjellhammer (2017); Hummelvoll, Hopfenbeck, & Kogstad (2012); Ibsen, Eriksen, & Patil (2018); Inn på tunet official websites (www.innpatunet.no , www.matmerk.no/inn-pa-tunet); Jolly (ed.) (2007); Jolly & Krogh (2010, n.d.); Jolly & Sandberg (2018); Knutsen & Milford (2015); Kogstad, Hopfenbeck, & Hummelvoll (2012); Krogh & Jolly (2011, 2012); Krogh &

	Olsen (2005); Ministry of Agriculture and Food (2007a, 2007b); Ministry of Agriculture and Food & Ministry of Local Government and Modernisation (2012a, 2012b); Ministry of Local Government and Modernisation & Ministry of Agriculture and Food (2013); Nergård & Verstad (2004a, 2004b); Parow (2000); Prestvik, Nebell, & Pettersen (2013); Steigen, Kogstad, & Hummelvoll (2016); Steinkjer kommune (2014); Stene (2013, 2015, 2016); Stokke & Rye (2007); Sudmann & Børsheim (2017); Vik & Farstad (2009)
Community Supported Agriculture	Andelslandbruksprosjektet's website (www.andelslandbruk.no); Bjune (2003); Bjune & Torjusen (2005); Bugge (2015); Devik (2018); Hvitsand (2014); Hvitsand (2016); Storstad (2016)

2. Data collection procedures

2.1 Data collection, part A, semi-structured interviews

Semi-structured interviews with providers, to learn about their experiences starting and developing LIIs, and their thoughts on benefits reaped and cultivated by LIIs. Contact information found online via CSFs' Facebook or websites. Interviews guided by interview guide. Interview length 60-90 minutes. Output: audio recordings and hand-written notes.

Preparation:

1. Make a phone call to each key CSF stakeholder to agree on time and place, inform about the purpose of the interview, and ask for contact information of collaborating partners. (Remember that data collection must be complete by mid-March.)
2. Email interviewees an overview of interview questions and the informed consent form, at least one week before the interview, with a recommendation that they review them briefly if they have the time.
3. Review the website and Facebook page of the CSF, as applicable.
4. Conduct a brief internet search to gain insight in local context.
5. Review the sub-goals and indicators of the SDGs knowing what each Goal is about, to facilitate dialogue at the end of the interviews.
6. Bring an audio recording device (that does not have internet connection), extra batteries, a notepad, pens, printed-out copies of the informed consent forms, physical copies of the case study protocol and interview guide, and PC and phone with access to the mentioned documents.
7. Re-review the case study protocol and interview guide shortly before each interview.

8. Test the audio recorder before each interview and change the batteries if running low.

If something unexpected happens:

- Informant needs to reschedule, in case of illness, unfavourable weather or other difficulty in accessing the interviewees: try to make a new appointment by the end of February, if that is impossible, schedule for early March or, as a last resort, do a Skype interview.
- Audio recording device stops functioning: pause the interview to try to fix the recording device. If the device still does not work, take more detailed hand-written notes and be careful in verifying your understanding throughout the interview. Apologise to the interviewee for the inconvenience, ask them to speak slowly and to pause whenever natural.
- If two or more stakeholders wish to be interviewed together: check this beforehand, when scheduling the interviews. Be flexible and accommodating but aware of how the two might influence each other's responses.

2.2 Data collection, part B, learn about context

Unstructured “learning about context” through field visits. In addition, through (1) background reading, (2) online research, (3) conversation with national CSA coordinators, and (4) participation in CSA workshops. Collecting no personal information but taking notes to facilitate my data collection and analysis process and deepen my understanding of information shared in interviews.

3. Ethical considerations

NSD has been notified about and given approval for the project. Follow NSD guidelines:

- Ensure informed consent for interviews: Informed consent form reviewed and signed before starting the interviews.
- Data protection: Personal data (contact details and interview recording/transcripts) are kept on an offline audio recording device or in hard copy, in a locked space. Digital data processing files are anonymised by keeping a code in hard copy in a locked space. Digital files are stored on NMBU's servers. Exclude information about third parties. Delete all raw data at the end of the project.
- Anonymity: Informants may choose to be anonymised in the published work (this is built into the informed consent).
- Caring for informants: Semi-sensitive topics may come up and make the interviewee uncomfortable. Do not “push” these unless at the informant's initiative. Informants may

object to audio taping of interviews. Informants are asked to verify summaries of their answers throughout interview, and any quotes attributed to them in the published work.

- Informants' output: A chance to reflect on their work. A copy of the finished thesis that can hopefully inform their further work.

4. Data processing and analysis

1. Write edited transcripts (true to meaning) as soon as possible after the interview. Use Microsoft Office Word or other text processing software. Give personal information, including names, a code, and store the key in hard copy.
2. Code the transcripts using codes that correspond well between raw data and research questions. For example, codes could be “start”, “success”, “benefits”, and “other”.
3. Format coded transcripts into tables (condense meaning points if possible). Use the codes as headings. Add to the tables from notes on context, if/when relevant.
4. Review tables for each case. List information that directly answers research questions, information emphasised by interviewees, and what you found surprising.
5. Review corresponding columns across cases. List information that directly answers research questions, information emphasised by interviewees, and what you found surprising.
6. Colour-code the lists of information. Red for RQ1, blue for RQ2, purple when information applies to both RQ.
7. Group the information. For RQ1, according to which information points logically go together. Give the groups an appropriate heading. For RQ 2, according to spatial level (personal/farm to global).
8. Report the groups and their sub-points as your results.
9. Re-read original transcripts to cross-check that your results make sense for each case, or any contradictory experiences are addressed in the report.
10. Ask peers, colleagues, interviewees, and other stakeholders, as appropriate, to review the conclusions and point out discrepancies or rival explanations you should address.

5. Reporting

The case study report will be in a master's thesis format, containing the following sections: introduction, method, results and discussion, and conclusion. This protocol will be an appendix to the master's thesis.

6. Case study questions

The case study questions are posed to the investigator and inspire the overall investigation. They are different from questions posed to interviewees, and from the research questions that specify the focus of the research.

Level 1: questions asked of specific interviewees

- How did they come to be involved with CSFs and LIIs?
- What is their motivation for this involvement?
- What are major benefits and challenges they face being involved with LII(s)?
- Have they considered how their work with LIIs affects the local community, and/or contribute towards national and international development goals?
 - Likely sources of evidence: interviews with key CSF stakeholders.

Level 2: questions asked of the individual CSF

- How and when did they start with CSA?
- Why LII(s)? What were and are the benefits for the CSF, and what benefits do they perceive for society?
- What challenges have the CSF and LIIs faced?
- What/who has/have supported the CSF and LIIs?
- Are the providers familiar with GC?
- What is their future vision for the CSF/LIIs?
- What are their next steps, and what do they need to further develop their LII(s)?
 - Likely sources of evidence: interviews with key CSF stakeholders, exploration of local and national context.

Level 3: questions asked of the pattern of findings across the cases

- What/who constrains LIIs?
- What/who promotes LIIs?
- What/who constitutes a successful LII?
- How can LIIs affect the CSF itself and the local community?

- Likely sources of evidence: interviews with key CSF stakeholders, exploration of local and national context, literature about CSA and GC in Norway.

Level 4: questions asked about the entire study

- How can Norwegian CSFs go about starting LIIs?
 - What should Norwegian CSFs do/not do to make their LIIs successful?
 - How can Norwegian CSF LIIs contribute towards international goals for sustainable development?
 - What can Norwegian CSF LIIs use from resources developed for Green Care?
- Likely sources of evidence: interviews with key CSF stakeholders, exploration of local and national context, literature about CSA and GC in Norway, literature on agroecology and SDGs.

Level 5: normative questions about policy recommendations and conclusions

- Should Norwegian authorities promote LIIs? If so, how?
 - What can CSA movements in other countries learn from the Norwegian LII example?
 - What knowledge can transfer between LIIs, GC, school gardens, urban agriculture and others who farm “socially”, especially focusing on learning and social inclusion?
 - How can LIIs contribute to agroecological food system transformation?
 - How can LIIs contribute to the SGs?
- Likely sources of evidence: interviews with key CSF stakeholders, exploration of local and national context, literature about CSA and GC in Norway, literature on agroecology and SDGs.

Appendix E: Interview guide

Intervjuguide: initiativer for læring og inkludering ved norske andelsgårder

Intervjuguiden er ment som en guide til intervjuprosessen. I tillegg inneholder den viktige temaer vi skal snakke om, og forslag til spørsmål. Intervjuguiden skal ikke følges slavisk, men være et utgangspunkt. Under intervjuet er min viktigste jobb å fokusere på det som blir sagt og de som intervjues. Forskeren bør gå inn i intervjusituasjonen med et empatisk og åpent sinn, og være bevisst sin egen rolle i å produsere intervjukunnskap (hvordan forskeren oppfattes av den som skal intervjues) (Brinkmann & Kvale, 2015; Fog, 1995).

(A) FØR INTERJUET

Uformell samtale, kort omvisning/få et inntrykk av andelsgården. Forteller kort om bakgrunnen for prosjektet, gir litt kontekst til intervjuet. Spør om nøkkelpersonens rolle i andelslandbruket.

Vi finner et stille og komfortabelt sted der intervjuet skal skje. Intervjuer gjør klart utstyr (som spesifisert i protokoll).

Eventuelle spørsmål om og signering av informasjonskriv/samtykkeskjema.

- Er det greit at jeg tar lydopptak av intervjuet?

(B) INTERJUET

Legger opp til en kronologi i intervjuet, vil begynne med begynnelsen, unngå å avbryte men spørre spørsmål ved behov. Gi korte oppsummeringer underveis ettersom det er naturlig, for å sjekke at informasjon er oppfattet riktig.

Tema 1: oppstart

- Vi begynner med begynnelsen. Hvorfor andelslandbruk? Hvorfor etter hvert disse aktivitetene (initiativene)? (Tidslinje, år?)
- Hvordan kom du/dere å i gang med de aktuelle aktivitetene? (Hvem/hva var viktig i denne prosessen?)
- Hvordan opplevde du/dere denne prosessen? (Utfordringer/løsninger/muligheter?)
- Ser du/dere for deg/dere å etablere flere sosiale/pedagogiske initiativer i sammenheng med andelslandbruket? Eventuelt hvilke? Hvorfor/hvorfor ikke?

Tema 2: utvikling

- Hvorfor holder dere fremdeles på, x tid senere? (Hvem/hva har ev. vært viktig for at dere har fortsatt?)
- Har dere hatt utfordringer med å holde det gående?
- Hva har dere gjort for å overkomme eller tåle disse utfordringene?

- Hva skal til for å styrke initiativet? Hvem kan bidra til dette? (Fra andelslandbrukets side, eller partnerinstitusjon, kommune, rådgivning, andre?)
- Kjenner du til Inn på tunet? Evt. på hvilken måte? (Sier evt. litt om bakgrunnen for spørsmålet.)

Oppsummerer faktorer som kan støtte opp om og hindre oppstart og suksess over tid.

Tema 3: nytteverdi (gevinst)

- Hvorfor er du involvert i aktiviteten(e)? (Personlig/profesjonelt? Motivasjon?)
- Hva får andelslandbruket ut av aktiviteten(e)?
- Hvilken nytte har aktiviteten(e) for brukerne/deltakerne?
- Hvilken nytte har aktiviteten(e) for samarbeidspartner(e)?
- Hvilken nytte har aktiviteten(e) for lokalsamfunnet?
- Hvilken nytte har aktiviteten(e) for «bonden»? (Norsk landbruk? Andre andelslandbruk/ andelsbønder?)
- Hvilken nytte har aktiviteten(e) nasjonalt?
- Hvilken nytte har aktiviteten(e) for bærekraftig utvikling globalt? (Tenker du på det?)

Oppsummerer nytten andelslandbruket og samfunnet har hatt/har/kan ha av aktivitetene.

- Noe å legge til?
- Hva vet du om FNs bærekraftsmål? (Sier litt om bakgrunnen for spørsmålet, samt evt. generelt om målenes art og formål. Vi snakker oss gjennom de 17 målene; hvordan kan arbeidet på andelslandbruket bidra til målene?)

(C) ETTER INTERVJUET

Oppsummerer hovedpunkter (de store linjer) fra intervjuet og gir mulighet for å korrigere eventuelle misforståelser.

- Noe du vil legge til?
- Hvordan opplevde du intervjuet?

Minner om rettigheter og hvordan jeg kan kontaktes om det skulle være noe. Informerer om mulighet for «sitatsjekk», og hva som skjer videre med masteroppgaven.

Eventuelt noen ord om aktuelle samarbeidspartnere jeg kan ta kontakt med.

Appendix F: Informed consent form

Vil du delta i forskningsprosjektet

”What works? A study of learning- and social inclusion initiatives at Norwegian community supported farms”?

(«Hva virker? En studie av lærings- og inkluderingsinitiativer ved norske andelsgårder»)

Dette er et spørsmål til deg om å delta i et forskningsprosjekt hvor formålet er å kartlegge og dele erfaringer fra norske andelslandbruk med lærings- og inkluderingsinitiativer. I dette skrivet gir vi deg informasjon om målene for prosjektet og hva deltakelse vil innebære for deg.

Formål

Prosjektets mål er å informere andre som vil komme i gang med lærings- og inkluderingsinitiativer, samt det offentlige, om hvordan man lykkes med slike initiativer og hvilken verdi de kan ha. Jeg vil fokusere på tre punkter: hvordan komme i gang, hvordan lykkes, og fordeler ved initiativene. Oppgaven er en masteroppgave i agroøkologi.

Hvem er ansvarlig for forskningsprosjektet?

Fra Norges miljø- og biovitenskaplige universitet (NMBU), masterstudent i agroøkologi Ingvild Haugen med veiledere. Hovedveileder Linda Jolly fra Senter for læring og lærerutdanning (SLL), bi-veiledere Tor Arvid Breland (agroøkologi) og Erling Krogh (SLL).

Hvorfor får du spørsmål om å delta?

Du har en nøkkelrolle i et norsk andelslandbruk med betydelig erfaring innen lærings- og inkluderingsinitiativer.

Hva innebærer det for deg å delta?

Deltagelse innebærer å ta imot masterstudent på andelslandbruket og bli intervjuet. Intervjuet skal handle om hvordan du kom i gang med lærings- og inkluderingsinitiativer på gården, hva du tenker skal til for å lykkes og hvilken verdi du tenker initiativet/ene har.

Intervjuet beregnes å ta opp til en time, med pause etter behov. Gi beskjed dersom du ikke ønsker lydopptak av intervjuet. Lydopptaket vil bli slettet når prosjektet avsluttes.

Det er frivillig å delta

Det er frivillig å delta i prosjektet. Hvis du velger å delta, kan du når som helst trekke samtykke tilbake uten å oppgi noen grunn. Alle opplysninger om deg vil da bli anonymisert. Det vil ikke ha noen negative konsekvenser for deg hvis du ikke vil delta eller senere velger å trekke deg.

Ditt personvern – hvordan vi oppbevarer og bruker dine opplysninger

Vi vil bare bruke opplysningene om deg til formålene vi har fortalt om i dette skrivet. Vi behandler opplysningene konfidensielt og i samsvar med personvernregelverket. Masterstudent og ved behov veiledere vil ha tilgang til informasjonen.

Dine svar vil bli bearbeidet ved bruk av digitalt utstyr, men lagres separat fra personopplysninger. Det vil si at ditt navn og kontaktopplysninger lagres separat fra det du sier i intervjuet. Informasjonen lagres innelåst (i papirformat) eller anonymisert på NMBU sin server.

Du kan velge om du vil stå fram med navn og/eller rolle i publisert oppgave. Vi vil ikke gjengi sitater fra deg uten at du har fått mulighet til å kvalitetssikre disse.

Hva skjer med opplysningene dine når vi avslutter forskningsprosjektet?

Prosjektet skal etter planen avsluttes 15. mai 2019. Opplysninger om deg, utover de som inngår i den publiserte oppgaven, vil da slettes eller makuleres.

Dine rettigheter

Så lenge du kan identifiseres i datamaterialet, har du rett til:

- innsyn i hvilke personopplysninger som er registrert om deg,
- å få rettet personopplysninger om deg,
- få slettet personopplysninger om deg,
- få utlevert en kopi av dine personopplysninger (dataportabilitet), og
- å sende klage til personvernombudet eller Datatilsynet om behandlingen av dine personopplysninger.

Hva gir oss rett til å behandle personopplysninger om deg?

Vi behandler opplysninger om deg basert på ditt samtykke.

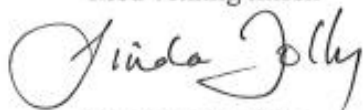
På oppdrag fra Norges miljø- og biovitenskaplige universitet (NMBU) har NSD – Norsk senter for forskningsdata AS vurdert at behandlingen av personopplysninger i dette prosjektet er i samsvar med personvernregelverket.

Hvor kan jeg finne ut mer?

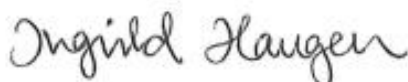
Hvis du har spørsmål til studien, eller ønsker å benytte deg av dine rettigheter, ta kontakt med:

- NMBU ved Ingvild Haugen (student), på telefon 95 07 07 25 eller epost ingvild.haugen0@nmbu.no, eller Linda Jolly (hovedveileder) på epost linda.jolly@nmbu.no.
- NMBU sitt personvernombud: Norsk senter for forskningsdata AS (NSD).
- NSD – Norsk senter for forskningsdata AS, på epost (personverntjenester@nsd.no) eller telefon: 55 58 21 17.

Med vennlig hilsen



Prosjektansvarlig
(Forsker/veileder)



Eventuelt student

Samtykkeerklæring

Jeg har mottatt og forstått informasjon om prosjektet «What works? A study of learning- and social inclusion initiatives at Norwegian Community Supported Farms» og har fått anledning til å stille spørsmål. Jeg samtykker til:

- å delta i intervju,
- at jeg kan gjenkjennes i den publiserte oppgaven, ved
 - o navn, eller
 - o posisjon.

Jeg samtykker til at mine opplysninger behandles frem til prosjektet er avsluttet, ca. 15. mai 2019.

(Signert av prosjektdeltaker, dato)



Norges miljø- og biovitenskapelige universitet
Noregs miljø- og biovitenskapelige universitet
Norwegian University of Life Sciences

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