Using the Health Belief Model to Understand Farmers’ Intentions to Engage in the On-Farm Food Safety Practices in Iran

R. Rezaei¹* and S. Mianaji¹

ABSTRACT

In the present research, the health belief model was used as a framework for understanding the factors affecting farmers’ intentions to engage in the on-farm food safety practices in Iran. The suggested model was empirically tested using the data collected from a survey of 230 lettuce producers of Alborz Province in northern Iran. The structural equation modeling technique was utilized to test the hypothesized relationships in the research model and confirmatory factor analysis was used to examine the validity and reliability of the measurement model. The results revealed that the perceived barrier was the most reliable predictor of the farmers’ intentions to engage in the on-farm food safety practices. Further, the variables including perceived benefit, self-efficacy, and cues to action were among the main predictors of the intention. Most notably, the threat perception variables, i.e. perceived susceptibility and severity, had no significant effects on the farmers’ intentions to engage in the on-farm food safety practices. Overall, the main components of the health belief model explained about 45.6% of the variance of intention. The findings gave preliminary support for the health belief model as a powerful framework for scrutinizing the intention to engage in food safety behaviors, offering a reasonable explanation for the farmers’ engagement intention in on-farm food safety practices, and providing practical information that can be incorporated into the development of more effective on-farm food safety interventions in Iran.

Keywords: Alborz province, Behavioral evaluation, Structural equation modeling, Threat perception.

INTRODUCTION

In recent years, some programs and guidelines from the World Health Organization (WHO) and the Food and Agricultural Organization (FAO) have been developed in the form of On-Farm Food Safety (OFFS) practices to prevent or control conditions or factors leading to microbial contamination along the farm-to-fork continuum (Ssemanda et al., 2017). In general, the OFFS practices, which typically comprise a manual of Good Agricultural Practices (GAPs) for producers (Young et al., 2011), are a set of measures and standards that help assure the safe production, harvesting, and handling of fresh produce (Food and Drug Administration, 1998). In other words, they are preventive activities that the farmer takes to minimize the risk of contamination as the crop is grown, harvested, and transported to consumers (Tobin et al., 2013). The OFFS practices cover a wide range of management measures, including activities related to water quality, activities specific to worker training and hygiene, controlling animal sources of contamination, use of best practices and auditing tools, implementing pest controls, and implementing proper manure protocols (Parker et al., 2016). In spite of the importance of OFFS practices in contamination prevention, evidence shows that producers are uncertain about the effectiveness of food safety programs.
and hesitate to adopt new standards or practices (Parker et al., 2016). Some are perceived as arbitrary or excessive (Parker et al., 2012) and are inadequately carried out in the farm (Nayak et al., 2015). This problem has been observed in Iran, especially in Alborz Province, which is a major lettuce production region. For example, many lettuce producers in this province use sewage and contaminated wastewater to irrigate crops and the percentage of toxic chemical substances and animal manure is high (Mianaji, 2018). Lack of attention to management practices and public health, including periodic and regular testing of the soil and water, regular cleaning of agricultural machinery, and observing health criteria during product transportation are other problems that cause reported contamination levels to be high for lettuce in Alborz Province (Rouniasi and Parviz, Mosaed, 2016).

Since the practices to improve safety of fresh and fresh-cut produce take place throughout the food chain from field to fork (Parker et al., 2012), most foodborne illnesses are preventable if everyone involved, from producers to consumers, comply with food sanitation practices (Ko, 2010). On the one hand, this relies on scientific data that has been used to design the specific food safety practices; on the other, it requires that those scientists and educators involved with the social and psychological factors influencing growers’ behavior reach a consensus and collective understanding (Parker et al., 2012). In recent years, various theoretical frameworks and theories have been presented and applied to understand factors affecting individuals’ intentions and behaviors, such as Reasoned Action/Planned Behavior, Stages of Changes, Health Action Process Approach, and Health Belief Model (HBM). Over time, the HBM has come to be the accepted conceptual model used in public health. By applying this model, it will be easier to understand why people do not like to take part in health prevention programs (Strecher and Rosenstock, 1997). Since previous studies have proven the ability of HBM to predict health behaviors satisfactorily (Janz and Becker, 1984; Hanson and Benedict, 2002), it was set as the theoretical framework of the present study. The HBM was a good option in this regard because the design of innovations should not follow a rational process only; contradictory beliefs, values, perceptions, and social interactions must also be considered (Wheeler, 2005). Moreover, the HBM proposes threat perception variables upon which health-related claims are supposed to be based (Vassallo et al., 2009).

A review of the literature showed that the HBM has long been successfully used to investigate a wide variety of farmers’ intentions and behaviors such as skin cancer prevention practices (Marlenga, 1995), foot and mouth disease control measures (Jemberu et al., 2015), pesticide safety behavior (Bhandari et al., 2018), on-farm processing license application behavior (Lubran, 2010), and adoption of recommended milking practices (Belage, 2016). Furthermore, many scholars and researchers have broadly applied the HBM to predict food safety practices (Schafer et al., 1993; Hanson and Benedict, 2002; Rimal and Real, 2003; Meyenburg et al., 2014). However, very few studies have looked at farmers within the HBM theoretical framework in the context of food safety behaviors. This highlights the need for further research in this field. In a similar vein, the HBM has been utilized to examine various intentions and behaviors in the context of agriculture and rural development in Iran. Such cases include the willingness to eat organic foods (Yazdanpanah et al., 2015a) and use renewable energy (Yazdanpanah et al., 2015b), safe use of pesticides (Yazdanpanah et al., 2016), willingness toward biofuels (Bakhtiyari et al., 2017), and prevention of aflatoxin production (Yazdanpanah and Salari, 2017). However, no study to date has investigated the use of HBM in the field of OFFS behaviors. Furthermore, a review of the existing scientific literature regarding food safety in Iran indicated that most studies have examined the technical aspects of agricultural production contamination and foodborne illness (Jalalpour, 2011; Masoumi Asl et al., 2015; Asadpour et al., 2016; Fallah et al., 2016). Indeed, very few empirical studies have looked at the behavioral, psychological, and social aspects of food safety in Iran; more specifically, the majority of them have focused on consumers (Cherghi et al., 2014; Talaei et al., 2015). To the best of the authors’ knowledge, no research has investigated the OFFS behaviors of Iranian farmers based on a vigorous theoretical foundation and using HBM.
Therefore, there is a serious gap in the research in this field. In order to fill this gap, the current study aimed to show how well the HBM can predict farmers’ intentions to engage in the OFFS practices and to understand which components of the model are the best predictors of food safety-related behaviors. Another important objective of this study was to show the feasibility of applying a health psychology model to predict OFFS practices and determine the efficiency of the HBM as a predicting model.

**MATERIALS AND METHODS**

**Theoretical Framework and Development of Research Hypothesis**

As one of the first models, the HBM was presented in the 1950s by the US public health (Rosenstock, 1974) and developed for the prediction of individual response to the preventative health services, such as screening (Janz and Becker, 1984; Rosenstock, 1974). The HBM assumes that an individual’s likelihood of engaging in a health-related decision and behavior is explained by the two major components (Orji et al., 2012). The components are broadly categorized into four psychosocial sub-components: perceived susceptibility, perceived severity/seriousness, perceived benefit, and perceived barrier (Abraham and Sheeran, 2005; Simsekoglu and Lajunen, 2008; Yazdanpanah et al., 2015a). Despite general usefulness of the HBM to understand and predict different behaviors with health outcomes and its high adoption by the researchers of healthy behavior promotion (Orji et al., 2012), the determinants of the HBM have been shown in the previous research to be insufficient for predicting behavior (Norman and Brain, 2005). The results of most quantitative reviews of the HBM were indicative of the significance of the original components (susceptibility, severity, benefit, and barrier) in the prediction of health-related behaviors. Nevertheless, they usually have very small effect sizes (Harrison et al., 1992; Abraham and Sheeran, 2005; Orji et al., 2012). Actually, there are some other underlying determining variables of healthy behavior not considered by the HBM (Orji et al., 2012). Accordingly, throughout the decades, the original HBM has been revised and extended with the addition of different variables in order to increase its predictive power. Becker and Rosenstock (1987) and Rosenstock et al. (1988) added the two important variables of cues to action and self-efficacy. The inclusion of these variables generally enhanced the predictive power of the HBM. Therefore, based on the extended HBM, it can be said that the intention to perform a particular activity is a function of the beliefs of perceived susceptibility, perceived severity, perceived benefit, perceived barrier, perceived self-efficacy, and cues to action (Rosenstock, 1974; Lubran, 2010; Orji et al., 2012).

Regarding the components of the HBM, perceived susceptibility is the probability of personal vulnerability assigned by an individual that affects his/her development of a health condition. In other words, it is a person’s subjective belief about his/her probable involvement in a harmful condition like diseases if indulging in a particular behavior (Rosenstock, 1966). Perceived severity is defined as an individual’s belief about the degree of seriousness of the outcomes of health development. It is a person’s subjective belief of the harm extent he/she may be involved in if taking a particular behavior (Orji et al., 2012). Perceived benefit is described as an individual's assessment of the effectiveness of engaging in a health-promoting behavior to reduce the risk of disease (Janz and Becker, 1984). If an individual believes that a particular action will decrease susceptibility to an undesirable condition, then, he/she is likely to engage in that behavior (Rosenstock, 1974). Perceived barrier is related to an individual’s assessment of the obstacles he/she may be involved in due to taking the target behavior (Rosenstock, 1966). Even if an individual perceives a health condition as threatening and believes that a particular action will effectively decrease the threat, barriers may prevent involvement in the health-promoting behavior. In other words, the perceived benefits must outweigh the perceived barriers in order for behavior change to occur (Janz and Becker, 1984).

Cues to action refer to some triggers like social influence, health education campaigns for promoting healthy behaviors (Simsekoglu and
Lajunen, 2008), and factors that activate ‘readiness to change’ (Belage, 2016).

Finally, perceived self-efficacy originates from Social Cognitive Theory (SCT) and refers to an individual’s degree of ease or difficulty of a performance (Bandura, 1977). Generally, self-efficacious people consider potential risks as challenges to be coped with, while the non-efficacious people usually perceive their vulnerability as inevitable (Rimal and Real, 2003).

Based on the above discussion, the theoretical research framework and hypothesized relationships are shown in Figure 1. As shown, farmers’ intentions to engage in the OFFS practices are influenced by the main components of the HBM including perceived susceptibility, perceived severity, perceived benefit, perceived barrier, cues to action, and perceived self-efficacy.

The statistical population of the present study comprised all lettuce producers in Alborz Province. According to the statistics of Alborz Agriculture-Jahad Organization (2016), the total number of lettuce producers included in the survey area was 732 people (Table 1). From this statistic, the number of lettuce producers selected for the survey as the sample group was 252 farmers using the following equation (Bartlett et al., 2001):

\[
n = \frac{Z_{\alpha}^2 pq}{d^2} \left( 1 + \frac{1}{N} \right) \frac{Z_{\alpha}^2 pq}{d^2} - 1
\]

Where, 
\( n \) = Sample size, 
\( N \) = Population size (in this case N= 732 farmers), 
\( p \) = Estimated proportion of the population (p= 0.5), 
\( q \) = (1−p) (i.e., q= 0.5), 
\( d \) = One half of the desired interval width (d= 0.05), and 
\( Z \) = The value of the standard normal distribution for selected confidence level which was 95% (Z= 1.96). This sample provided a 5% of mean error at 95% confidence level, which was considered as acceptable (Abdollahzadeh et al., 2016). The statistical population varied among the strata/subpopulation (i.e., counties), and they had heterogeneous attributes in different counties. However, while samples within each stratum were homogeneous, the stratified random sampling method was used to assure the representativeness of the sample. To this end, based on producers’ distribution (Table 1), the total number of lettuce producers in Alborz Province was divided into smaller groups (strata), and a random sample was taken from each stratum proportionate to the stratum's size (Table 1). In this case, the random number table

---

Figure 1. Theoretical research framework.
Engage in On-Farm Food Safety Practices

Table 1. Characteristics of studied counties regarding the lettuce crop.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strata (Counties)</th>
<th>Lettuce producers’ population</th>
<th>Target samplea</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nazarabad</td>
<td>294</td>
<td>101 (92)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fardis</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>7 (6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Savojbolagh</td>
<td>308</td>
<td>106 (97)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Karaj</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>38 (35)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>732</td>
<td>252 (230)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*a* The values shown in parentheses of the last column are the number of questionnaires used for analysis.

was used to ensure an acceptable level of randomness, so that every member of the population had an equal chance of being drawn. It is also worth noting that the questionnaires with missing information were excluded from the study. In more detail, from 252 collected questionnaires, 22 were dropped and, therefore, a total of 230 questionnaires were considered for analysis (Table 1).

Data were collected through a structured questionnaire. Table (2) presents a list of measurement items and their sources of each part separately. Respondents were asked to specify their opinion on each item, using a five-point Likert-type scale from 1 to 5 as follows: 1 = Strongly disagree; 2 = Disagree; 3 = Moderate; 4 = Agree; and 5 = Strongly agree. Face validity and construct validity were used to examine the validity of the questionnaire.

The face validity was examined and confirmed through comments given by faculty members and experts. Regarding the construct validity, the convergent validity was examined via three different criteria—standardized factor loadings equal to or greater than 0.5, Average Variance Extracted (AVE) equal to or larger than 0.5, and Composite Reliability (CR) equal to or greater than 0.7 (Hair et al., 2010). Moreover, in order to test the discriminant validity based on the approach suggested by Fornell and Larcker (1981), the value of the square root of the AVE of each latent variable needs to be greater than the correlation of that variable with other latent variables. In addition to the validity of the instrument, CR was used to assess the reliability of the research model, whose value for each latent variable must be greater than 0.7 (Hair et al., 2010). Finally, Cronbach’s alpha was also used to measure the internal consistency of the measurement items.

Generally, the coefficient alpha of higher than 0.7 indicates a high reliability (Hair et al., 1998). Regarding the fit of the models, the following indices were used in this research: (1) The Chi-square test statistic was the most fundamental measure of the overall fit (Gerbing and Anderson, 1992). Since the Chi-square test is sensitive to sample size, the model would be assumed to demonstrate a reasonable fit if the statistic adjusted by its degrees of freedom (that is, the relative Chi-square) did not exceed 5.0 (Marsh and Hau, 1996); (2) The Root Mean square Residual (RMR) and the Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA), in which a value less than 0.08 means that it is within the acceptable level (Marcoulides and Schumacker, 1996; Chen, 2016); (3) The Comparative Fit Index (CFI), Incremental Fit Index (IFI), Goodness-of-Fit Index (GFI), and Adjusted GFI (AGFI). Where, the values higher than 0.90 are considered as acceptable fit (Bagozzi and Yi, 1988).

Structural Equation Modeling (SEM), using maximum likelihood procedure with Analysis of Moment Structures (AMOS) software version 20.0, was adopted to analyze the data and the proposed hypotheses of this research (Hair et al., 2014). Based on Anderson and Gerbing’s (1988) two-stage model building process, the first step is to conduct the research measurement model (first-order Confirmatory Factor Analysis/CFA) to assess the fit of the research model and examine the construct validity and reliability of the model. In the second step, the hypothesized structural relationship among constructs is estimated based on the structural model. To this end, the data of the survey variables obtained from the CFA were used as a database for the relationship analysis after confirming the adequacy of the measurement models.
RESULTS

Measurement Models

The results of first-order CFA revealed that the factor loading values for all observed variables were greater than 0.7 and, so, were significant, except for one variable of Susceptibility, which had lower factor loading value of 0.23 (Table 2). Therefore, this variable was dropped from the measurement model, which was then retested. In addition, with regard to the AVE and CR values of each latent variable evaluated in this research, the values of all variables were higher than 0.5 and 0.7, respectively (Table 2). Thus, convergent validity and CR of the research model were evident. The results showed that the Cronbach's alpha values fell in the range of 0.771–0.875, all of which were greater than 0.7 (Table 2), indicating that the measurements exhibited adequate internal consistency reliability. As indicated in Table 2, various fit indices ranged from very good to excellent, whereas the full measurement model displayed a good overall fit of the data.

Table 3 presents the results regarding discriminant validity, with the square root of the AVE represented by the diagonal. In all cases, as can be seen by the information shown in Table 3, the Fornell and Larcker’s (1981) test is met for all pairs of latent variables. That is, there was discriminant validity; the latent variables were distinctly different from each other.

Structural Model

The results of structural model revealed that although the estimated model based on the Chi-square significant indicator lacked a good fitness, the model had an acceptable fitness based on other criteria (Figure 2). Moreover, the Squared Multiple Correlations (SMC; R²) for the intention to engage in the OFFS practices was 45.6%. This implied that the components of the HBM could explain a 45.6% variance of the intention (Figure 2).

According to the results shown in Table 4, perceived benefit (β= 0.288, Sig= 0.001), perceived barriers (β=-0.313, Sig= 0.001), Cues to action (β= 0.138, Sig= 0.047), and perceived self-efficacy (β= 0.148, Sig= 0.028) had statistically significant effects on the variable of intention to engage in the OFFS practices. Thus, H3, H4, H5, and H6 were supported (Table 4). However, the standardized path coefficients of the perceived susceptibility (β= 0.097, Sig= 0.407) and perceived severity (β= 0.075, Sig= 0.480) were not statistically significant for the intention. Thus, H1 and H2 were not supported (Table 4).

DISCUSSION

The results of the research revealed that hypotheses 1 and 2 were not supported and the variables of threat perception (perceived susceptibility and severity) had no significant effects on the farmers’ intentions to engage in the OFFS practices. This finding is not consistent with the results of Schafer et al. (1993), Clayton et al. (2002), and Orji et al. (2012), but it is in agreement with the results of Hanson and Benedict (2002), Simsekoglu and Lajunen (2008), Vassallo et al. (2009), and Lubran (2010). However, since OFFS practices are considered as preventive behaviors, the mentioned variables, particularly susceptibility, were expected to have statistically significant effects on farmers’ intentions to engage in those practices. One possible explanation for this was that the farmers might not have been thinking about the probable risk factors of diseases when making their OFFS decisions. In other words, the farmers who did not intend to engage in the OFFS practices perceived a low risk of someone contracting a foodborne illness in their business (Clayton et al., 2002). Similarly, Carpenter (2010) stated that people would not act to prevent a negative health outcome that is unlikely to afflict them. Food safety risks are frequently perceived with an optimistic bias for bearing no threat (Redmond and Griffith, 2005; Riggins, 2006). People usually presume that risks and educational warnings are only for others (Redmond and Griffith, 2005; Riggins, 2006). As highlighted by Weinstein (1987), an optimistic bias is most likely related to the belief that a problem will be unlikely to happen in the future if it has not yet occurred. Further, another reason for the mentioned finding could be the indirect effects of severity and susceptibility on
Table 2. Constructs, measurement items, and reliability and validity tests.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Constructs and items</th>
<th>Item loading</th>
<th>t-Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Measurement model 1</strong>: Intention to engage in the OFFS practices (Armitage and Conner, 1999; Ajzen, 2002): CR= 0.833, AVE= 0.565; Cronbach's Alpha= 0.809</td>
<td>0.91</td>
<td>fixed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I intend to engage in OFFS practices in the future (IntentionI).</td>
<td>0.85</td>
<td>15.809</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I plan to engage in OFFS practices in the future (IntentionI).</td>
<td>0.63</td>
<td>10.437</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I strongly recommend that other producers engage in OFFS practices (IntentionI).</td>
<td>0.56</td>
<td>9.105</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Measurement model 2</strong>: Perceived susceptibility (Byrd-Bredbenner et al., 2007; Lubran, 2010): CR= 0.796, AVE= 0.568; Cronbach's Alpha= 0.771</td>
<td>0.65</td>
<td>fixed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In my opinion, many diseases are currently due to non-compliance with OFFS practices and contamination in agricultural food products (SusceptibilityI).</td>
<td>0.77</td>
<td>9.298</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The issues related to food safety, particularly foodborne diseases, are serious concerns for me (SusceptibilityI).</td>
<td>0.83</td>
<td>9.710</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am confident that the product I produce in my farm is healthy and non-contaminated (SusceptibilityI).</td>
<td>Dropped</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The product I produce in my farm is healthier and safer than those produced by other farmers (SusceptibilityI).</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Measurement model 3</strong>: Perceived severity (Hanson and Benedict, 2002; Lubran, 2010): CR= 0.898, AVE= 0.747; Cronbach's Alpha= 0.875</td>
<td>0.81</td>
<td>fixed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I believe that foodborne diseases are very dangerous and can seriously put consumers' health at risk (SeverityI).</td>
<td>0.91</td>
<td>15.625</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There is little chance that the product I produce in my farm causes a disease in my family and other consumers (SeverityI).</td>
<td>0.87</td>
<td>15.045</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I believe that lack of attention to OFFS and production of healthy products can significantly damage my business (SeverityI).</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Measurement model 4</strong>: Perceived benefit (Ivey et al., 2012; Nayak et al., 2015): CR= 0.858, AVE= 0.668; Cronbach's Alpha= 0.824</td>
<td>0.79</td>
<td>fixed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In my opinion, engaging in OFFS practices can lead to an increase in my farm production (BenefitI).</td>
<td>0.87</td>
<td>13.212</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I believe that engaging in OFFS practices and producing healthy products would allow me to sell more products at farmers' markets (BenefitI).</td>
<td>0.79</td>
<td>12.214</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In my opinion, engaging in OFFS practices can improve my nutrition and health status and those of other people in the society as well (BenefitI).</td>
<td>0.77</td>
<td>12.786</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Measurement model 5</strong>: Perceived barrier (Lubran, 2010; Parker et al., 2016): CR= 0.881, AVE= 0.650; Cronbach's Alpha= 0.867</td>
<td>0.82</td>
<td>fixed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Engaging in OFFS practices is time-consuming for me (BarrierI).</td>
<td>0.87</td>
<td>14.797</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Engaging in OFFS practices would increase the production cost (BarrierI).</td>
<td>0.76</td>
<td>12.582</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There are few valid educational and information channels and resources for learning the needed skills and knowledge and engaging in OFFS practices (BarrierI).</td>
<td>0.77</td>
<td>12.864</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Measurement model 6</strong>: Cues to action (Hanson and Benedict, 2002; Vassallo et al., 2009; Lubran, 2010): CR= 0.884, AVE= 0.657; Cronbach's Alpha= 0.859</td>
<td>0.71</td>
<td>fixed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I can hear television or radio news stories about foodborne diseases (Cue to actionI).</td>
<td>0.90</td>
<td>12.449</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I read the ‘safe food-handling instructions’ on the packages of inputs, particularly chemical fertilizers and pesticides (Cue to actionI).</td>
<td>0.84</td>
<td>11.812</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I receive the necessary information about food safety from the experts and extension agents (Cue to actionI).</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>10.979</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I participate in the food safety training courses (Cue to actionI).</td>
<td>0.85</td>
<td>fixed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Measurement model 7</strong>: Perceived self-efficacy (Ajzen, 2002; Clayton and Griffith, 2008): CR= 0.815, AVE= 0.597; Cronbach's Alpha= 0.776</td>
<td>0.77</td>
<td>10.445</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The use of OFFS practices is easy, and I can easily engage in them in my farm (Self-efficacyI).</td>
<td>0.69</td>
<td>9.770</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have enough awareness and information about OFFS practices, and I do not need any training in this respect (Self-efficacyI).</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am confident in my abilities and skills to perform OFFS practices, and produce safe food (Self-efficacyI).</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Fit indices of the full measurement model: Chi-square (df)= 513.613 (231); P-value= 0.000; Relative Chi-square= 2.223; AGFI= 0.791; GFI= 0.839; CFI= 0.911; IFL= 0.913; RMSEA= 0.073; RMR= 0.048.
Table 3. Discriminant validity matrix.\textsuperscript{a}

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Latent variable</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Intention</td>
<td>0.752</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Perceived susceptibility</td>
<td>0.359</td>
<td>0.754</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Perceived severity</td>
<td>0.267</td>
<td>0.750</td>
<td>0.864</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Perceived benefit</td>
<td>0.565</td>
<td>0.362</td>
<td>0.337</td>
<td>0.817</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Perceived barrier</td>
<td>-0.567</td>
<td>-0.472</td>
<td>-0.366</td>
<td>-0.524</td>
<td>0.806</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Cues to action</td>
<td>0.399</td>
<td>0.331</td>
<td>0.320</td>
<td>0.0373</td>
<td>-0.437</td>
<td>0.811</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Perceived self-efficacy</td>
<td>0.316</td>
<td>0.139</td>
<td>0.185</td>
<td>0.349</td>
<td>-0.166</td>
<td>0.159</td>
<td>0.773</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\textsuperscript{a} The figures corresponding to square root of AVE for each column latent variable is captured in bold along the diagonal. Other figures are the correlation between two latent variables.

Figure 2. Structural equation modeling and standardized path coefficients.
Table 4. The results of estimating the structural model.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Path and hypotheses</th>
<th>Unstandardized estimates</th>
<th>SE</th>
<th>Standardized estimates</th>
<th>Critical Ratio</th>
<th>Sig</th>
<th>Result</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Perceived susceptibility → Intention (H1)</td>
<td>0.142</td>
<td>0.171</td>
<td>0.097</td>
<td>0.829</td>
<td>0.407</td>
<td>Not supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived severity → Intention (H2)</td>
<td>0.084</td>
<td>0.119</td>
<td>0.075</td>
<td>0.707</td>
<td>0.480</td>
<td>Not supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived benefit → Intention (H3)</td>
<td>0.346</td>
<td>0.099</td>
<td>0.288</td>
<td>3.496</td>
<td>0.001</td>
<td>Supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived barrier → Intention (H4)</td>
<td>-0.427</td>
<td>0.113</td>
<td>-0.313</td>
<td>-3.762</td>
<td>0.001</td>
<td>Supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cues to action → Intention (H5)</td>
<td>0.195</td>
<td>0.098</td>
<td>0.138</td>
<td>1.988</td>
<td>0.047</td>
<td>Supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived self-efficacy → Intention (H6)</td>
<td>0.125</td>
<td>0.057</td>
<td>0.148</td>
<td>2.201</td>
<td>0.028</td>
<td>Supported</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

intention since their relationships are mediated by perceived threat (Janz and Becker, 1984). The results revealed that the variable of perceived benefit as one of the main components of the HBM had a positive and significant effect on the farmers’ intentions to engage in the OFFS practices, thus supporting hypothesis 3. This finding is consistent with the results of Riggins (2006); Vassallo et al. (2009); Carpenter (2010); and Orji et al. (2012). The result can be explained by the fact that the farmers intended to engage in the OFFS practices since they perceived them to be effective both for them and the society. In fact, such benefits are the incentives that can facilitate the process of changing farmers’ behaviors and give them more motivations to engage in the OFFS practices. Therefore, people would adopt new healthy behaviors, such as OFFS practices, only when they believe in their greater benefits than those of the old ones (Center for Disease Control and Prevention, 2004).

As congruent with the previous research (i.e., Clayton et al., 2002; Riggins, 2006; Simsekoglu and Lajunen, 2008; Vassallo et al., 2009; Carpenter, 2010; Belage, 2016), another main component of the HBM that had a negative and significant effect on the farmers’ intentions to engage in the OFFS practices was perceived barrier, thus supporting hypothesis 4. Rosenstock (1966) believed that people would be unlikely to adopt a preventative behavior if they perceive strong barriers in front of them. According to this, farmers who perceive more barriers when deciding to engage in the OFFS practices show significantly less intention to use those practices. Based on the results of various studies, there are different barriers to the successful implementation of OFFS practices. The most important barriers are knowledge, attitude, and behavior (Lubran, 2010). Most of the barriers included in the research model were behavioral barriers in a way that the majority of the farmers emphasized that engaging in the OFFS practices was time-consuming for them and most of them did not have sufficient accessibility to the required health systems and facilities in their farms. Another main behavioral barrier was the high cost of engaging in the OFFS practices. Therefore, considering that most of the farmers in Alborz Province are small to medium holder farmers, policy interventions should target the processes of barrier reduction and the government should provide the necessary support, especially through financial credits, to help the farmers equip their farms. In addition, the farmers stated that learning the needed skills and knowledge to engage in the OFFS practices was difficult for them and they did not have enough accessibility to valid educational and information channels and resources. Thus, it is essential to provide them with the necessary skills and information in a simple and clear manner.

The results indicated that the variable of cues to action had a positive and significant effect on the farmers’ intentions to engage in the OFFS practices, thus supporting hypothesis 5. This finding is consistent with the results of Hanson and Benedict (2002), Lubran (2010), and Orji et al. (2012), but it is not in line with those of Vassallo et al. (2009) and Yazdanpanah et al. (2015a). In general, a person will more probably react to different cues to action based on a particular behavior when confronting a health message that induces him/her to perform that specified health behavior. He/she may find more benefits of the target behavior than the barriers to it. Furthermore, he/she can have an enhanced assessment of the perceived threat of an unhealthy behavior, which will make him/her...
increasingly adopt healthy behaviors (Orji et al., 2012). Accordingly, farmers’ intentions to engage in the OFFS practices will increase if they receive certain cues to action. There are various cues such as holding meetings and educational extension courses, and offering extension brochures and bulletins, posters, and videos, all of which should be provided for producers to increase the effect of cues to action (Lubran, 2010). Not enough attention has been paid to this issue in Alborz Province. Based on the results, hypothesis 6 was supported, i.e. the variable of self-efficacy had a significant and positive effect on the farmers’ intentions to engage in the OFFS practices. This finding is in agreement with the results of Schafer et al. (1993), Lubran (2010), Orji et al. (2012), and Yazdanpanah et al. (2015a). In this case, Schafer et al. (1993) believed that people who have high self-efficacy do not respond to a food safety threat by ignoring it or fatalistically accepting the danger. Instead, they respond to the peril of unsafe food by engaging in specific food safety behaviors. Importantly, Byrd-Bredbenner et al. (2007) highlighted that perceived self-efficacy affects the initiation of health behavior, preparation for change, amount of an extended effort, and durability of the behavior. In addition, the findings obtained by Orji et al. (2012) were indicative of the reduced negative effect of barrier on healthy behavior by self-efficacy. This implies the possibility of decreasing the hindering impact of barrier on the adoption of healthy behavior by increasing the feeling of self-efficacy via varied strategies of technological interventions like role-playing, goal setting, and modeling.

CONCLUSIONS

The primary objective of the study was to explore which of the HBM components are the best determinants of farmers’ intentions to engage in food safety behaviors. The findings indicated that the HBM components varied in their effectiveness as predictors of farmers’ intentions. In this regard, the variable of perceived barrier was the most reliable predictor of the farmers’ intentions to engage in the OFFS practices. Further, the variables of perceived benefit, self-efficacy, and cues to action were among the main predictors of the intention. Most notably, two variables of perceived susceptibility and severity did not have statistically significant relationships with the variable of intention to engage in the OFFS practices. This implies that the behavioral evaluation variables prevailed strongly in explaining intention to engage in the OFFS practices in comparison with the threat perception variables. In respect to the second objective of the study which focused on investigating the efficiency of the HBM in predicting and explaining farmers’ intentions to engage in the OFFS practices, the results of this study also suggested that the components of the HBM explained about 45.6% of the variance of intention. However, past quantitative research reviews and meta-analyses undertaken on using the HBM have shown that, on average, the main variables of the model predicted approximately 20% of the variance in healthy behavior. Given the amount of explained variance in the current study, the HBM has an appropriate predictive power and it is a valid and efficient model in predicting behaviors in the context of the OFFS.

Finally, a number of important limitations need to be considered. First, this study has focused specifically on the lettuce producers of Alborz Province in northern Iran, so, the results obtained here may not be entirely generalizable to the nation. Thus, future studies should involve more participants of different crops in different provinces. Second, the HBM explained 45.6% of the variance of intention to engage in the OFFS practices, which suggests that other variables such as general beliefs (Bakhtiyari et al., 2017), health motivation (Schafer et al., 1993), self-identity, perceived importance (Orji et al., 2012), and health value (Simsekoglu and Lajunen, 2008), may affect farmers’ intentions. These other variables could be included in the proposed model in this study to enhance its predictive power. Furthermore, socio-demographic factors were not considered in this study, although the results of some studies indicate that such factors played a potential role in determining farmers’ food safety behaviors (Al-Sakkaf, 2015). Accordingly, future research may also examine how socio-demographic variables affect farmers’ intentions to engage in the OFFS practices. Third, although intention is a good predictor of behavior, it is distinct from behavior and cannot entirely represent actual behavior (Zhang et al., 2015).
Engage in On-Farm Food Safety Practices

2017). Therefore, further research should examine the actual OFFS behavior of farmers. Fourth, this study relied on the self-reports of individual perception. This might be considered as an inherent limitation of the study because people are likely to over-report their intentions due to social desirability (Damalas and Abdollahzadeh, 2016; Zhang et al., 2017). Thus, the results of the study should be interpreted with caution.

REFERENCES


Engage in On-Farm Food Safety Practices


60. Strecher, V. and Rosenstock, I. 1997. The Health Belief Model. Cambridge Handbook of Psychology, Health and Medicine, USA.


