

Including Value Orientations in Choice Models to Estimate Benefits of Wildlife Management Policies

Gianluca Grilli^{a,b,*}, Sandra Notaro^c, Danny Campbell^d

^a*Economic and Social Research Institute, Sir John Rogerson's Quay, Dublin, Ireland*

^b*Trinity College Dublin, Dublin, Ireland*

^c*Department of Economics and Management, University of Trento, Italy*

^d*Economics Division, University of Stirling, Stirling FK9 4LA, United Kingdom*

Abstract

Value orientations towards wildlife affect the way people perceive nature and their connection with animals. In particular, the social psychological literature within the environmental field suggests that there are two main orientations of people towards wildlife: mutualism and domination. This body of literature has shown how wildlife value orientations can serve as predictors of attitudes and behaviours toward wildlife and form the foundation of human-wildlife conflicts. A common approach in the non-market valuation literature is to include information on attitudes and values in the deterministic part of the utility function, leading to problems of endogeneity bias. To avoid this, analysts have recently shifted their attention to approaches based on latent variables. This paper presents an application of a latent variable and latent class model, to understand how latent orientations influence choices, in a case study in the Italian Alps. The intuition is that different underlying individual value orientation affects preferences and the level of willingness to pay and should be therefore considered in choice models. The latent variable is used to explain class membership of respondents. Results indicate that the latent variable has a significant effect in class allocation and that the hybrid model performs better than a simple two class model. Results provide guidance on the social acceptability of management interventions and can support public decision-makers in the modulation of wildlife management policies for balancing the needs of conservation and outdoor recreation, explicitly considering existing human-wildlife conflicts.

Keywords: choice experiment, hybrid model, value orientation, endangered species, latent class model
2010 MSC: 00-01, 99-00

Accepted refereed manuscript of: Grilli G, Notaro S & Campbell D (2018) Including Value Orientations in Choice Models to Estimate Benefits of Wildlife Management Policies, *Ecological Economics*, 151, pp. 70-81.

DOI: [10.1016/j.ecolecon.2018.04.035](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecolecon.2018.04.035)

© 2018, Elsevier. Licensed under the Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-NoDerivatives 4.0 International <http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/>

*Corresponding author

Email address: gianluca.grilli@esri.ie (Gianluca Grilli)

1. Introduction

Conservation of wildlife is of primary importance worldwide, due to the alarming rate of biodiversity loss affecting many natural areas. The population of several species has sharply decreased, mainly due to hunting and habitat depletion. Economic valuation of biodiversity with stated preference methods, within this framework, may be extremely beneficial to inform policy makers about people's attitudes and preferences towards management alternatives. It is well-recognised in the literature that, when making choices in the environmental field, people are led by several cognitive variables, such as attitudes, values and social norms. In particular, value orientations (VOs) seem to play an important role in the individual choice process. Wildlife VOs are defined as representing broad, cultural ideological beliefs, that orient and provide personal meaning to basic values related to wildlife (Teel and Manfredo, 2010). In the literature, it is possible to identify two main orientations towards wildlife (Manfredo, 2008): dominance and mutualism. People with a dominant orientation tend to think that wildlife should be managed for the benefits of mankind. On the other hand, a person with a mutualism orientation place humans and animals nearly on the same level; animals are seen as creatures deserving rights and care.

Choice experiments (CE) are typical examples of techniques aiming at studying how people make choices. Value orientations affect choices, which means that they should be therefore taken into account by the analyst in CE surveys. A common approach in the non-market valuation literature is to use information about attitudes and values, which are collected by means of Likert scales, in the deterministic part of the utility function. However, such indicators are likely correlated to other non-observed individual characteristics, thus leading to problems of endogeneity bias (Hess and Stathopoulos, 2013). For the cited reasons, latent variable methods are gaining popularity. Such methods acknowledge that what is observed is only answers to VO questions and not the real orientation. In this vision, a latent variable is included in the model, in order to explain simultaneously the behaviour of the respondent in the stated choice survey and in the value orientation questions. Value orientations are no longer in the deterministic part of the utility function but treated as dependent variables, estimated simultaneously to the choice model, thus eliminating problems connected with endogeneity.

In this paper, we apply the latent variable approach in a CE hybrid estimation for valuing tourists preferences for endangered species management. The main methodological contribution is to include specific value orientations as measures of individual attitudes in the set of structural equations. We expect that value orientations are linked to willingness to pay (WTP) and that they can be used to explain preference heterogeneity for wildlife conservation. Structural equations are modelled as ordered logit, while the choice model with a latent class model. The latent variable is used as explanatory variable for the value orientation and then enters the choice model in the class allocation function. We show how the inclusion of value orientations can improve WTP estimates, with relevant policy implications. The method is applied to a case study about wildlife management in the Italian Alps, the Province of Trento (Trentino). We consider three wildlife species, i.e. wolf, lynx and salamander, and we ask to a sample of local tourists whether they are willing to pay for an increase in their population. Wolves and lynx were naturally abundant in Trentino until the end of the 19th century. Later on, due to hunting and bad habitat conditions, their population decreased rapidly, bringing to their extinction. In recent years, the increased habitat quality provoked a natural return of some specimen from close areas, but their number is not enough to assure reproduction. At the same time, the case of salamander is interesting as well. In fact, a particular sub-species of Salamander, called salamander of Aurora, lives only in a limited area of Trentino and in a valley of a neighbouring region. Establishing a viable population for these species is a primary challenge for local decision-makers, in order to assure a long-lasting conservation, in this context the investigation of tourist preferences might help in designing more effective policies.

2. Value Orientation Theory

Human-wildlife relationships and interactions derive from the cognitive basis that forms human thought and behaviour toward wildlife (Teel and Manfredo, 2010). A cognitive hierarchy model has been developed to study the cognitive foundation of these relationships (Fulton et al., 1996; Whittaker et al., 2006; Manfredo, 2008; Teel and Manfredo, 2010). This theory is based on the value-attitude-behavior model (Homer and Kahle, 1988), focusing on the fact that cognition exists on different linked levels of abstraction. The cognitive

52 hierarchy model includes values at the base, then going higher in the hierarchy VOs, attitudes and norms,
53 behavioural intentions and behaviours. Values are the most abstract cognitions in the human mind, they are
54 few in numbers, slow to change, central to beliefs and transcend to situations. The values of a person are
55 shaped in the early years of life and are strongly influenced by the sociological context. Going up through the
56 cognitive hierarchy, cognitions become more numerous, quick to change, peripheral and specific to situations.
57 Value orientations are networks of basic and core beliefs that serve as intermediary between values and
58 attitude (Manfredo, 2008). They are reflective of the cultural ideology (Manfredo et al., 2009) and provide a
59 contextual meaning for values within a given domain of interest such as wildlife (Teel and Manfredo, 2010).
60 Since they are less abstract than values, VOs can better explain specific thoughts and behaviours.
61 A first articulated classification of attitudes towards wildlife was proposed by Kellert (1980). In more recent
62 years, the literature has suggested that people tend to show mainly two different and opposing VOs toward
63 wildlife: mutualism and domination (Manfredo, 2008; Manfredo et al., 2009; Teel and Manfredo, 2010; Teel
64 et al., 2010). A domination orientation stems from a utilitarian view of the relationship between humans
65 and wildlife; it follows that wildlife should be managed for human benefit. Domination is one of the oldest
66 VO showed by the humankind. A person with this VO tends to believe in the human mastery over the
67 animals and is more prone to accept control measures resulting in death or harm to wildlife and more
68 likely to engage in behaviours such as hunting and fishing. On the other hand, a person with a mutualism
69 orientation tends to place humans and animals nearly on the same level; animals are seen as creatures with
70 their own personalities and emotions. Such people recognize also that animals need care and have rights. A
71 strong mutualism orientation render people less likely to accept control measures towards wildlife, as well
72 as management options involving killing or hurting specimens but more likely to exhibit behaviors such
73 as wildlife viewing and feeding. Mutualism is strongly related to the modernization, to the importance of
74 wildlifes non-consumptive value and seems more consistent with a biocentric philosophy (Manfredo et al.,
75 2016). The dualism mutualism-domination can be viewed in economic terms as utilitarian versus intrinsic
76 views (Rolston III, 1983; Rolston, 1994) . The dichotomy is usually seen as a continuum and the two different
77 wildlife VOs often occurs in various levels. According to Teel and Manfredo (2010), gradients between these
78 two main orientations can be found; in particular these authors suggest two other subclasses: distance and
79 pluralism. The distant orientation includes people who do not care or who do not care very much about
80 wildlife. On the other hand, pluralists do not show a particular orientation and their opinions on wildlife can
81 be influenced by the contingent situation.
82 Several studies have demonstrated that wildlife VOs can serve as a predictor of attitudes toward wildlife
83 (Hartel et al., 2015), wildlife management options (Kansky et al., 2016; Sponarski et al., 2015; Hermann
84 et al., 2013; Jacobs et al., 2014), wildlife viewing (Manfredo et al., 2016; Teel et al., 2010) and toward
85 hunting (Hrubes et al., 2001; Gamborg and Jensen, 2017) and fishing (Riepe and Arlinghaus, 2014). This
86 body of research has shown that a specific behaviour towards wildlife can be explained by different VOs,
87 and that VOs are at the basis of the conflicting attitudes for wildlife management actions, but none of
88 these studies have used an economic approach. VOs can be linked to the economic theory of value as
89 ideals affecting choices and actions. Steinhoff (1980) and subsequently Brown (1984) offered an interesting
90 preference-related theory of value. They distinguish between *held values* and *assigned values*. A held value
91 is the basis for preference about things, a ‘conception of the preferable’ (Brown 1984, p.232), a first order
92 preference affecting second order preferences (i.e. choices and actions). Examples of held values provided by
93 Brown are model of behaviour (e.g., bravery), end-states and qualities. In contrast, assigned values is the
94 economic value of an object. Held values are values of the subjects and assigned values are of the objects.
95 Within this framework, we can think about VOs as held values affecting WTP, i.e. economic values assigned
96 to wildlife.

97 3. Brief Overview of biodiversity in CE

98 Non-market valuation techniques, and CE in particular, have been extensively used in valuing biodiver-
99 sity. Most of the available studies do not focus on the economic valuation of biodiversity but rather on a
100 single species (Pearce, 2001). For example, Han et al. (2010) implemented a CE survey, for assessing tourists’
101 perceived best management alternative for the conservation of the goral, in Woraksan National Park (South
102 Korea). Similarly, Hanley et al. (2003) evaluate the benefits provided by wild geese. Delibes-Mateos et al.

(2014) considered the quantity of partridges likely to be shot in game activities as an attribute, while another attribute was the possibility to have additional (not specified) species. CE applications, in which several species are included in the study as different attributes, are less common in the literature. Hanley et al. (2010) evaluate simultaneously the worth of two Scottish species, namely hen harries and golden eagle, estimating people's WTP for an increase in their populations. Di Minin et al. (2013), investigate people's WTP for conserving several endangered species in South Africa, including lions, leopards, rhinos and buffaloes. Similarly, Wallmo and Lew (2011) evaluates the perceived benefits of conserving some marine species, currently under the stewardship of the National Marine Fisheries Service (NMFS) in the United States. Finally, Campbell et al. (2012) and Campbell et al. (2015) use a CE to estimate the existence value of a number of rare and endangered fish species in Ireland.

3.1. *The inclusion of attitudes and values in biodiversity evaluation studies*

While environmental attitudes are sometimes considered in CE surveys (see, among others, Choi and Fielding, 2013; Milon and Scrogin, 2006; Birol et al., 2006; Morey et al., 2008), and value orientations in contingent valuation under the Environmental Concern framework (Ojea and Loureiro, 2007; Spash, 2006), to be best of our knowledge VOs have never been included in choice experiments applied to biodiversity evaluation. Specifically Ojea and Loureiro (Ojea and Loureiro, 2007), in their Contingent Valuation study have tried to value the importance of three generic environmental VOs of the attitude towards the environment—the altruistic, egoistic, and the biospheric value—in WTPs for the recovery of a marine bird, the common murre, in Galicia (Spain). Spash (Spash, 2006) have analysed the role of the same generic value orientations in estimating WTPs for wetlands recreation. The novelty of our study is that we have modeled specific latent value orientation to explain taste heterogeneity of respondents towards wildlife conservation in a CE. As already highlighted, including attitudes in the utility function may not represent an optimal solution. In particular, measurement errors may occur. In addition, attitudinal questions may be correlated with other unobserved characteristics of the respondent, thus causing correlation between the deterministic and stochastic components of the utility. In an attempt to address this important issue, hybrid models have been recently developed (Ben-Akiva et al., 1999, 2002; Bolduc et al., 2005). The innovative approach is to use latent variables to explain attitudes and psychological constructs. The latent variable is a function of socio-demographic characteristics and enters the model both in the choice model and as explanatory variable for attitudinal questions (Bolduc and Alvarez-Daziano, 2010). In this way, attitudinal questions are treated as a function of the latent variable, eliminating endogeneity problems. Hybrid choice models have been applied extensively in transportation research (see, among others, Daly et al., 2012; Abou-Zeid et al., 2010; Hess et al., 2013), to lesser extent in other fields. In environmental valuation, an example of application is given by the paper of Hess and Beharry-Borg (2012), which analyzes values of improving the quality of coastal water. Another interesting paper is provided by Hoyos et al. (2015), in which the authors use a psychometric scale, called awareness of consequences (AC), in order to understand choices of respondents while valuing land-use policies for Natura 2000 network sites. Finally, a hybrid approach to include environmental attitudes for valuing forest ecosystem services has been recently proposed (Agimass et al., 2017). In this paper, we make use of two latent variables, one describing the mutualism orientation and one for the dominant orientation. Following the idea of Hoyos et al. (2015), latent variables enter the model in the class allocation function of the latent class model.

4. Methods

4.1. *Study Area*

Data for this case study originated from a questionnaire survey, administrated face-to-face in Trentino, a mountainous province in the north-east of the Italian Alps. Trentino is an important tourist destination, with around three million tourists per year and a good balance between winter and summer tourists. This area is important for nature conservation, because of the presence of several rare and endangered species. The province includes one national park (Parco Nazionale dello Stelvio), two regional parks (Adamello-Brenta and Paneveggio Pale di San Martino) and several other Natura 2000 sites, occupying 34 percent of the total area. Among several interesting species, this study focuses on tourists' preferences for conserving the wolf

153 (*Canis lupus Linnaeus*), the lynx (*Linx linx*) and the salamander of Aurora (*Salamandra atra aurorae*), a
154 rare subspecies of the alpine salamander. Wolf and lynx, extinct in Trentino around the end of the 19th
155 century, naturally came back from neighbouring areas, in particular the wolf from the Italian Appennine
156 and the lynx from Switzerland. At present, there are seven wolves and only one lynx in the regional area,
157 therefore the population size is not enough to assure the survival of the species. The salamander of Aurora,
158 conversely, is a rare amphibious living only in a limited area of the Province with a population of about ten
159 specimen.

160

161 4.2. Data

162 The CE survey was carried out by means of personal interviews, conducted by three trained interviewers,
163 to a sample of tourists of the Province of Trento from July and September 2015. We focused on tourists
164 as they comprise a large share of the direct users of the parks and natural areas in Trentino. Wildlife is
165 an important regional resource and attracts many visitors annually (Tattoni et al., 2017). We also acknowl-
166 edge that local communities represent a relevant actor for wildlife management and should be considered in
167 decision-making, but this important issue was out of the scope of the present research. Respondents were
168 randomly selected in tourist areas and invited to take part to the interview. Personal interviews were be-
169 lieved to facilitate the "yes-saying", however recent contributions suggest that administration method do not
170 influence SP surveys (Bell et al., 2011; Lindhjem and Navrud, 2011), even though results are mixed. The
171 NOAA panel on contingent valuation suggested personal interview as administration method (Arrow et al.,
172 1993), while the most recent SP guidelines (Johnston et al., 2017) do not provide specific recommendations.
173 We therefore chose to administrate interviews personally. Moreover, some authors argue that stated CE
174 have the advantage to reduce the yeah-saying behaviour compared to contingent valuation surveys (among
175 others, Boxall et al., 1996; Hanley et al., 1998; Winslott Hiselius, 2005). A pilot study with 63 tourists was
176 conducted in June 2015 to fine-tune the questionnaire, check attributes and levels and collect priors to be
177 used for generating a Bayesian D-efficient design (Bliemer et al., 2008). The questionnaire was composed by
178 34 questions, organized in four thematic sections. The questionnaire was a tool used for a broader research
179 and not all questions were considered in this study. In section number one, environmental indicators for the
180 individual VO were collected with fourteen propositions, to which respondents had to express their degree
181 of agreement on a 7-point-Likert scale. These questions replace the typical attitudinal questions that are
182 included in stated preferences applications. Statements to capture orientations were taken from the ques-
183 tionnaire used by Sponarski et al. (2015) and previously by Teel and Manfredo (2010), which were exactly
184 replicated to better capture orientations. Out of these, seven propositions were related to the mutualism
185 orientation and seven to the domination orientation. Attitudinal questions in the form of Likert scales might
186 be subject to acquiescence, i.e. yeah-saying bias (Ray, 1990), because people might tend to show a more
187 'environmentally-friendly' attitude compared to their real values. For this reason, we tried to reduce the
188 occurrence of yeah saying bias by training interviewers to be as neutral as possible while administrating
189 the questionnaire and allow people self-filling in the answers to VOs questions. Although questions were
190 taken from the literature and already tested, we also checked wordings and consistency during the pre-test
191 phase. The inclusion of fourteen proposition to examine VOs was necessary to respect prescription from
192 the environmental psychology literature (Manfredo, 2008; Teel and Manfredo, 2010; Sponarski et al., 2014),
193 however, using all these pieces of information into the choice model would have complicated too much the
194 estimation, in terms of number of parameters. For this reason, only four were selected as indicators for the
195 final hybrid model (Table 1). This simplification is convenient because it reduces the number of parameters,
196 which was already large, but it might approximate the assessment of individual orientation. The inclusion
197 of four indicators is in line with several hybrid CE studies (for example, Hess and Stathopoulos, 2013; Hoyos
198 et al., 2015). In the final model, we included the four statements that interviewers reported to be the most
199 clear for respondents, however we also conducted a sensitivity analysis using different set of statements and
200 results did not change significantly. Section number two contained questions on emotions provided by respon-
201 dents in their interactions with wildlife. These questions were not related to VOs and were not considered
202 in this study. Section three contained choice cards which were preceded by an explanatory text that was
203 read by interviewers before showing the cards. Respondents were informed that wolves, lynx and salaman-
204 ders of Aurora are protected and managed in Trentino from the Province of Trento and from the natural

205 parks within specific European projects. Then they were informed about the actual situation (7 wolves, 1
206 lynx and 10 salamander) and we explained that the actual situation can improve, but also deteriorate if no
207 management actions are going to be taken. We gave no description of any management actions. The null
208 alternative was presented to respondents as the ‘do-nothing situation’ in terms of management, what will
209 happen if management actions are not implemented. We then added that an entrance fee for the park might
210 be a solution to increase revenues and address conservation issues. Finally, we included some cheap talks to
211 inform respondents that results will be used by the Province of Trento to improve management policies and to
212 encourage accurate responses. Cheap talks were reminders that they had to consider their budget and that
213 if they agreed to pay a fee they would have less money for other purchasings. The preparation of the CE was
214 carried out following guidelines available in the literature (Hoyos, 2010; Riera et al., 2012). The attributes
215 selected for the survey, as shown in table 2, are the number of animals for wolves, lynx and salamanders; the
216 cost attribute was an entrance fee for parks and natural areas in Trentino. At present, there are no entrance
217 fees and visitors can access all natural areas for free, therefore our payment vehicle is hypothetical. However
218 a ticket could be a solution to increase parks’ self-funding. In fact, in Trentino, parks have to co-finance
219 activities related to biodiversity conservation, thus an entrance fee was included as a way for tourists to
220 contribute to these actions. Attributes and attribute levels were determined by experts and scientists. In
221 one-on-one interviews wildlife managers of the Province of Trento and zoologists of the Science Museum of
222 Trento stated that a viable population for wolves and lynx was of about 45-50 individuals and a maximum
223 of 90-100. Within this range the carrying capacity of the territory is respected and wolves and lynx are ex-
224 pected not to compete for habitat and food. Salamanders could potentially have a bigger population, but the
225 pre-test highlighted that larger levels lead people to think the animal was not in danger and non-attendance
226 of this attribute was high. Therefore, we decided to maintain the same attribute levels also for salamanders.
227 Despite experts proposed levels for animal populations that are respectful of the local carrying capacity, there
228 could be correlation across attributes if some management actions are proposed. For example, if we stated
229 that larger populations had to be achieved by an increase in the habitat quality, this would imply a better
230 ecosystem for all the animals and their population would increase simultaneously. For this reason, we were
231 careful in avoiding management suggestions, so that we were able to capture uncorrelated preferences for
232 each of the species¹. During the pre-test phase we also asked some questions that can be used to understand
233 whether respondents perceived attributes to be correlated. For this purpose, we asked respondents their opin-
234 ion on the current size of the populations of wolves, lynx and salamanders. Since most of the respondents
235 reported high numbers of animals and thought that the populations were increasing, this brings additional
236 evidence that respondents, on average, did not perceive particular problems in the coexistence of the animals.
237

238 After the pre-test we noticed that there was a quite large share of preferences for the null alternative,
239 which was chosen 20.5% of the time as first best and 7.7% of the time as second best. This result, together
240 with a previous experience on wildlife study in the same study area, which also detected a large share of
241 SQ choices (Agnolin, 2012), led us to worry for the SQ bias. The SQ coefficient was positive, suggesting
242 positive utility for the current situation. We suspected that using the real SQ led people to be more likely to
243 choose it, because they could have a certain number of animals without paying for them. In this way policy
244 improvements provided by larger population sizes were not properly highlighted, therefore we opted for a
245 null alternative (Olsen et al., 2012; Whittington et al., 2017; Scarpa et al., 2011), which is often used in the
246 literature and contributed to improve the model². We believe that this does not impact on final estimates, as
247 our objective was to estimate marginal WTP and not consumer surplus, for which a hypothetical SQ could
248 have caused problems when applying the *log-sum* formula (Hanemann, 1984), because the comparison of the
249 policy improvement with the baseline SQ would be complicated.
250

¹A small effect of correlation between attribute levels might still be present and this is a limitation to consider when interpreting the results.

²As one reviewer suggested, in our experiment part of the SQ bias could be caused by the payment vehicle we chose, as an entrance ticket could be opposed by tourists. However, a different mandatory instrument was difficult to retrieve and voluntary payments are often inadequate as they tend to overestimate the WTP (Wiser, 2007). We believe that this effect is likely to be small, because paying a fee for a natural park is expected by the new law on natural areas (art. 18 L. 394/91).

	Question	Orientation
WVO1	We should strive for a world where theres an abundance of wildlife for hunting	Domination
WVO2	The needs of humans should take priority over fish and wildlife protection	Domination
WVO3	We should strive for a world where humans and fish and wildlife can live side by side without fear	Mutualism
WVO4	I value the sense of companionship I receive from animals	Mutualism

Table 1: Questions on value orientations

Attribute	Description	Levels
Wolves	Number of wolves	0, 15, 30, 45, 60, 75, 90
Linx	Number of lynx	0, 15, 30, 45, 60, 75, 90
Salamanders	Number of salamanders	0, 15, 30, 45, 60, 75, 90
Cost	Entrance fee for parks (in €)	0, 3, 6, 9, 12, 15, 18

251 We hypothesized a non-linear relationship between population sizes and people’s WTP. People might
252 be willing to pay for a viable population but, at the same time, they might want not too big populations
253 because they may generate human-wildlife conflicts (Dickman, 2010; Kubo and Shoji, 2014). For this reason,
254 we tested non-linearities in the utility with two models, one with a linear specification of the utility function
255 with a dummy for each attribute level (with twenty parameters to be estimated) and a quadratic specification
256 (with eight parameters), with a linear and quadratic coding for each attribute, in a multinomial logit model.
257 The log-likelihood were very similar (-5300 in the linear model and -5335 in the quadratic model) but the
258 BIC was lower for the quadratic model. For this reason, we decided to use the quadratic expression of the
259 utility function also in the more complicated subsequent models, which has also the advantage of a smaller
260 number of parameters to be estimated. The monetary attribute was linearly coded.





261 Each respondent was asked to complete twelve choice tasks, composed by a null alternative and two other
262 alternatives. The chosen answer format was the best-worst scaling (BWS) (Flynn et al., 2007), through
263 which each interviewed person had to express his/her best and worst alternative, among the three available.
264 The BWS assures accurate estimates and provides a larger number of observation compared to the common
265 pick one solution, with only a small effort increase for respondents. An example of choice card is provided
266 in figure 1. The final section of the questionnaire included the usual socio-demographic characteristics (e.g.,
267 gender, age, education and income). For the present analysis, the relevant population was assessed to be
268 composed by tourists in the province, aged 18 or more, which were reached and surveyed on site.

269 4.3. Econometric Analysis

270 We implement a hybrid latent class and latent variable model, following the method proposed by Hoyos
271 et al. (2015). Value orientations towards wildlife are considered to be a source of taste heterogeneity among
272 respondents but they are, at the same time, latent and unobservable. Some of the latent orientations may be
273 captured by socio-demographic characteristics. Such underlying individual VOs influence choices, through
274 class allocation probabilities, and answers to VOs questions value at the same time. Within this hybrid
275 framework, two set of structural equations have to be specified, one related to the choice model and one
276 to the latent variable model. In addition, a set of measurement equations has to be included as well.
277 Measurement equations include answers to VOs questions as dependent variables, explaining their outcome
278 with the latent variable as covariate.

279 Concerning the choice model, the theoretical foundation lies in the theory of random utility (RUM), which

Figure 1: Example of choice card

		Scenario A	Scenario B	Scenario C
	Number of free wolves	90	30	0
	Number of free lynx	0	45	0
	Number of free salamander aurora	45	0	0
	Entrance ticket	6 €	12 €	0 €
Choose your most preferred option (mark ✓)				
Choose your least preferred option (mark ✓)				

280 allows defining the observed part of the utility through a statistical model (Manski, 1977). According to
 281 RUM, the utility that respondent n derives from alternative i in the choice situation t is given by:

$$U_{int} = V_{int} + \epsilon_{int} \quad (1)$$

282 where V_{int} is the observed component of the utility, while ϵ_{int} represents the non-observed random distur-
 283 bance. The observed component of the utility V_{int} is described by a set of attributes x_{it} and by a vector of
 284 parameters β , indicating the marginal effect of the attributes on utility. Modelling utility needs assumptions
 285 on the distribution of the random term ϵ . A common approach is to assume an i.i.d. type I extreme value
 286 distribution for the random term, thus leading to a multinomial logit model (MNL). The MNL model assumes
 287 preferences are constant across respondents and does not take into account preference heterogeneity. In order
 288 to account for preference heterogeneity, we make use of an extension of the simple MNL, the latent class logit
 289 model (LC), which hypothesise that individuals can be sorted into C classes (Greene and Hensher, 2003),
 290 each with class-specific β_c . Preferences are now constant in each class but vary across classes, thus relaxing
 291 the assumption of preference homogeneity in the entire sample.

292 In the LC framework, given class membership c , the probability of a sequence of T_n choices made by
 293 individual n is given by (Shen, 2009):

$$\Pr(y_n | \beta_c, x_n, c) = \prod_{t=1}^{T_n} \frac{\exp(\beta'_c x_{int})}{\sum_{j=1}^J \exp(\beta'_c x_{jnt})}, \quad (2)$$

294 where y_n is the choice made over the total number on choice situations T_n and J is the number of alternatives
 295 in each choice situation ³.

296 The second structural set of equations concerns the latent variables. We include two latent variables, one
 297 capturing the domination behaviour, while the second capturing the mutualism behaviour. Reference cate-
 298 gories are distant and pluralist, because indicators for these categories are not available Teel and Manfredi
 299 (2010). The q th latent variable is defined as:

$$LV_{qn} = h(Z_n, \gamma_q) + \omega_{qn} \quad (3)$$

³A latent class model is also advantageous since it inherently allows for possible correlations between preferences for different attributes as well as how attributes were perceived by respondents

Table 3: Explanatory variables used in the latent variable equations

Latent Variable variables	Description
Female	1 = female 0 = otherwise
AGE.category1	1 = 18 < AGE < 30 0 = otherwise
AGE.category2	1 = 31 < AGE < 45 0 = otherwise
AGE.category3	1 = 46 < AGE < 60 0 = otherwise

where $h(Z_n, \gamma_q)$ is the deterministic part of the equation; Z_n is a vector of sociodemographic characteristics and γ_{qn} a vector of parameters to be estimated; $h(\cdot)$ is linear. Conversely, ω_{qn} is the error component of the equation, which is assumed to follow a normal distribution with zero mean and standard deviation $\sigma_{q\omega}$. As visible in table 3, covariates in the latent variable equations were gender and age classes, using the highest age class (i.e. people aged 60 years or above) as reference level.

Together with the described two structural equation sets, a measurement equation set of variables has to be determined as well. The measurement equation set is composed by the answers to VOs questions as dependent variable, explained with the latent variable as covariate. The l -th indicator for respondent n is

$$I_{qnl} = f(LV_{qn}, \xi_q) + \nu_{qn} \quad (4)$$

Where I_{qnl} , i.e. the answer to VO questions, is a function of the latent variable LV_{qn} and the vector of parameters to be estimated ξ_q . Value orientation questions were collected on a seven point scale (from strongly disagree to strongly agree), subsequently recoded in a three level scale. Categories "strongly disagree" and "disagree" were merged together and recoded as one, median classes ("mildly disagree", "neutral" and "mildly agree") were coded as two and "agree" and "strongly agree" were coded as three. This should not modify the result as the order of preference is maintained. This question format has an intrinsic ordering of the answers, thus an ordered logit model has been used for modelling the measurement equations. Ordered logit includes threshold parameters for the latent variable (Greene, 2003), which need to be estimated:

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} i_1 & \text{if } -\infty < LV_{qn} < \tau_{ql1} \\ i_2 & \text{if } \tau_{ql1} < LV_{qn} < \tau_{ql1} + \delta_{ql1} \\ \dots & \\ i_k & \text{if } \tau_{ql(k-1)} < LV_{qn} < \infty \end{cases} \quad (5)$$

where τ_{ql1} is the first threshold parameter and δ_{ql} the width of each ordered class. The latent variables LVI_{1n}, \dots, LVQ_n are linked to the choice model as well and enter the class allocation probabilities π_{n,c_s} , that are now respondent specific because of the influence of the latent variables. During the modelling phase we also explored the possibility to include only one latent variable, entering the model as explanatory variable for two indicators. We tried this for both the mutualism and dominant latent variable. Signs were all maintained, in the choice part of the model coefficients changes only after the fourth decimal place, suggesting that using one or two latent variables does not impact the computation of WTP significantly. We then decided to include in the final model both the mutualist and dominant LVs to show the effect of the two types of orientations at the same time. The described equations are estimated simultaneously, by jointly maximizing the likelihood function of the sequence of choice and the answer to attitudinal questions, conditional on the realization of the latent variable LVI_{qn} . The log-likelihood function of the model is given by the integration over ω_{qn} :

$$LL(\beta, \mu, \gamma, \xi, \tau) = \sum_{n=1}^N \ln \int_{\omega} (P_n \prod_{l=1}^{L_q} \prod_{q=1}^Q L_{I_{qln}}) g(\omega) d$$

Orientation	Disagree	Median	Agree
WVO1	42.62 %	44.76 %	12.62 %
WVO2	35.48 %	41.66 %	22.86 %
WVO3	3.58 %	23.57 %	72.85 %
WVO4	2.38 %	22.62 %	75.00 %

Table 4: Level of agreement with orientation questions of the respondents

(6)

The global model is estimated through maximum simulated likelihood in R (R Core Team, 2013), using 1,000 Sobol sequences for the simulation of the error term of latent variable.

5. Results and Discussions

Interviewers were able to collect a sample of 420 respondents (65 percent response rate); however, only 341 were useful for the present analysis, for a total number of 8184 observations. Respondents were on average 43 years old and females accounted for the 53.3 percent of the sample (males constituted the remaining 46.7 percent). Most of respondents had a high school degree (41 percent) but the presence of people with a university diploma was high as well (around 37 percent). Sample characteristics are in line with the average tourists visiting Trentino, although we oversampled a bit national tourists compared to foreigners. In fact, according to local statistics on tourism⁴ summer visitors from abroad represent 26% of the total, while in our sample they accounted for 10.3%. (35 respondents)

Answers to questions on VOs are available in table 4, in which WVO1 and WVO2 are questions related to the domination orientation, while WVO3 and WVO4 are connected with the mutualism orientation. It is possible to see that most of respondents tend to disagree with the propositions related to the domination orientation and to agree more with the mutualism propositions, thus suggesting that most of respondents show a mutualism orientation. A paper by Vaske et al. (2011), which reports a study in the Netherlands, found that 44% of respondents showed mutualism, 21% a dominant orientation and 35% none of the two. They also pointed out that their sample was mainly composed by people living close to natural areas and that there is a dichotomy between urban and rural residents, with people living in rural areas to be more in favour of an anthropocentric mentality, involving hunting and the use of wildlife for people's benefit Teel and Manfredo (2010). Looking at the frequency of responses in our sample, the share of mutualist people seems to be larger and the place of origin of local tourists might explain the result. In fact, only 11% of respondents lived in rural territories while the vast majority lived in urban areas (34% in small town and 45% in medium of large cities). Part of this result might be caused by acquiescence but, more importantly, results might be driven by the different reference population between the cited study and this one, which is focused on tourists. Tourists usually visit natural areas for short periods, so their psychological distance with wildlife is larger. Serenari et al. (2015) explored the differences in wildlife value orientations among visitors, local and tourists, to Chiles Tamango National Reserve. They found that local residents were more likely to belong to the mixed protectiongroup (57.6% of residents), while tourists to the strong protections group (73.4% of tourists). Tourists were more supportive of huemul conservation policies and were also more likely to pay the reserve entry fee.

The large share of people with high scores in the mutualist orientation statements, as well as small shares of agreement with dominant orientation statements confirms a societal shift from dominance to mutualism, which is a result of modernization (Manfredo, 2008; Manfredo et al., 2009, 2016). We conducted a χ^2 test to check the association between the four orientation propositions. All tests were significant at one percent confidence level (p-value = 0.002 and p-value = 0.000, respectively), thus the null hypothesis of independence between answers was rejected. This result strengthens the idea that answers to domination and mutualism

⁴http://www.statistica.provincia.tn.it/binary/pat_statistica_new/turismo/ITuristiNellaStagioneEstiva2015.1447238555.pdf

Table 5: Coefficients for the specification of latent variables

Domination LV			
Parameter	Estimate	St. err.	sign.
Constant	7.57	1.09	****
Female	$-1.97 \cdot 10^{-01}$	$7.91 \cdot 10^{-01}$	
AGE_category1	-8.12	1.01	****
AGE_category2	-6.87	1.26	***
AGE_category3	-8.56	$6.29 \cdot 10^{-01}$	****
ω_{dom}	7.07	$7.90 \cdot 10^{-01}$	****
Mutualism LV			
Parameter	Estimate	St. err.	sign.
Constant	1.53	$4.61 \cdot 10^{-01}$	****
Female	$2.24 \cdot 10^{-01}$	$2.23 \cdot 10^{-01}$	
AGE_category1	$-4.75 \cdot 10^{-01}$	$5.82 \cdot 10^{-01}$	
AGE_category2	$6.81 \cdot 10^{-01}$	$5.92 \cdot 10^{-01}$	*
AGE_category3	$3.36 \cdot 10^{-01}$	$5.66 \cdot 10^{-02}$	***
ω_{mut}	-1.75	$7.59 \cdot 10^{-01}$	**

**** $p < 0.001$, *** $p < 0.01$, ** $p < 0.05$, * $p < 0.1$

are statistically associated. Measurement equations, linking latent variables to VO questions, are displayed in table 6. Even in this system of equations, it is possible to see that coefficients associated with the latent variable (ξ) are always statistically significant, meaning that latent variables have explanatory power for modelling VOs.

371

372

373

374

375

376

377

378

379

380

381

382

383

384

385

386

387

388

389

390

391

392

393

394

395

396

397

398

399

Table 5 displays coefficients for the latent variables, which are assumed to depend on gender and age. Differences in coefficients between the two latent variables indicate that they both have a role and explain dissimilarities between mutualism-dominance and other orientations, such as distance and pluralism. LVs enter the class allocation function, therefore signs indicate the probability of belonging to class one (for identification reason, we set parameters for class two fixed at zero (Scarpa and Thiene, 2005)). The coefficient for females is positive in the mutualism latent variable, while negative for the domination orientation. This means that, all else held constant, females have a higher likelihood of having a mutualism orientation, albeit neither are statistically significant. Difference in signs is also visible for the dummy variables indicating age classes. The baseline age class is given by respondents who are 60 years of age or over. Thus, in the domination latent variable, the negative and statistically significant coefficients indicate that people younger than the baseline are less likely to show a domination orientation. In contrast, age categories 2 and 3 are significant in the mutualism latent variable, but not class 1. Thus, the general indication from our model is that younger tourists are more likely to be mutualist, rather than older ones, all else held equal. A negative relationship between age and interest towards wildlife is a quite common result and found, for example, by Bjerke et al. (1998). In the broader context of environmental protection, two main reasons have been detected for such a result: first, older people have less time to benefit from long-term preservation of the resources (Carlsson and Johansson-Stenman, 2000). Secondly, younger people are often found to be more concerned about environmental problems (Howell and Laska, 1992).

Table 7 reports the results of a latent class model and the hybrid latent class and latent variable model, both of which are specified having two latent classes. The first model is considered the baseline for our analyses. The share of SQ as first choice was roughly 4% and only seven people out of 420 systematically chose the SQ alternative over the 12 choice tasks, therefore protest responses do not seem to be a problem for the survey. In both classes the cost coefficient is negative, which is expected and in line with the economic theory, because it is an indication that, all else being equal, as the cost increases utility decreases. Nevertheless, we note that it is statistically significant only in the second class. In the first class, coefficients for the population of animals is always positive, thus meaning that people are willing to contribute to actions

Table 6: Results of the orientation questions

WVO1 indicator			
Parameter	Estimate	Std. Error	sign.
τ	$-9.71 \cdot 10^{-02}$	$1.10 \cdot 10^{-01}$	
δ_1	$-2.21 \cdot 10^{+00}$	$1.20 \cdot 10^{-01}$	****
δ_2	$-5.62 \cdot 10^{-06}$	$1.76 \cdot 10^{+00}$	
ξ	$3.33 \cdot 10^{-02}$	$1.82 \cdot 10^{-02}$	*
WVO2 indicator			
Parameter	Estimate	Std. Error	sign.
τ	$-2.90 \cdot 10^{+00}$	$1.34 \cdot 10^{+00}$	**
δ_1	$-1.53 \cdot 10^{+01}$	$1.18 \cdot 10^{+00}$	****
δ_2	$-5.56 \cdot 10^{-06}$	$1.28 \cdot 10^{+00}$	
ξ	$1.93 \cdot 10^{+00}$	$2.65 \cdot 10^{-01}$	****
WVO3 indicator			
Parameter	Estimate	Std. Error	sign.
τ	$-8.32 \cdot 10^{+00}$	$6.05 \cdot 10^{-01}$	****
δ_1	$-1.06 \cdot 10^{+01}$	$1.01 \cdot 10^{+00}$	****
δ_2	$1.77 \cdot 10^{-05}$	$1.58 \cdot 10^{+00}$	
ξ	$5.25 \cdot 10^{+00}$	$2.27 \cdot 10^{+00}$	**
WVO4 indicator			
Parameter	Estimate	Std. Error	sign.
τ	$-3.66 \cdot 10^{+00}$	$6.10 \cdot 10^{-01}$	****
δ_1	$-3.25 \cdot 10^{+00}$	$4.89 \cdot 10^{-01}$	****
δ_2	$-2.02 \cdot 10^{-06}$	$7.96 \cdot 10^{-01}$	
ξ	$7.73 \cdot 10^{-01}$	$1.57 \cdot 10^{-01}$	****
LL	-1379		

**** $p < 0.001$, *** $p < 0.01$, ** $p < 0.05$, * $p < 0.1$

399 for their conservation. Conversely, the coefficients associated with quadratic number of animals is negative.
400 This result indicates a concave relationship between individuals' utility and number of specimen in the animal
401 populations.

402 In class number one, significance levels of the estimated parameters is rather poor. In fact, only the ASC
403 coefficient is statistically significant at 5% level. In this class, respondents seem not interested to increase
404 the population of wolves, lynx and salamanders. Probably, the insignificance of parameters is due to the fact
405 that in this class members do not care much about wildlife. In the second class, the trend is different in terms
406 of significance, the estimated parameters are in fact almost all statistically different from zero. The mag-
407 nitude of the coefficients is slightly different, indicating different marginal utilities (and perhaps differences
408 in scale) compared to the first class. In general, this model does not appear to be fully satisfactory. Class
409 allocation is only given by a constant term and it does not appear to be appropriate to model heterogeneity
410 in answers. Probably, a simple two class model that does not recognize latent attributes of value orientation
411 is not adequate for explaining preference heterogeneity across respondents. Class probabilities were assessed
412 to be 34 percent for class number one and 66 % for class number two.

413 We now move to the hybrid model. The log-likelihood function of the choice component of the model is
414 higher, suggesting a better fit of the choice data. Similarly, AIC and BIC are smaller than those of the simple
415 latent class. Cost coefficients are negative in both classes, as in the baseline model, but, importantly, are now
416 found to be statistically significant in both classes. In general, it can be observed that the sign of coefficients
417 are the same as in the baseline model, only their magnitude changes. The number of statistically significant
418 parameters is higher. The latent variables for the mutualism orientation was found to have a significant
419 effect in class allocation. This result suggests that the underlying VO has a good explanatory power for
420 determining class membership and therefore preference heterogeneity for the populations of wolves, lynx and
421 salamanders. The coefficient expressing the effect of the mutualism latent variable is negative, suggesting that

Table 7: Results of the 2 class model and the 2 class hybrid model

Parameter	Latent class		Hybrid model	
	Estimate	Std. Error	Estimate	Std. Error
<i>Wolf.c1</i>	$5.51 \cdot 10^{-3}$	$2.38 \cdot 10^{-2}$	$2.82 \cdot 10^{-2}$	$1.28 \cdot 10^{-2}$ **
<i>Wolf</i> ² .c1	$-5.90 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$1.97 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$-3.28 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$1.11 \cdot 10^{-4}$ ***
<i>Linx.c1</i>	$2.53 \cdot 10^{-2}$	$2.00 \cdot 10^{-2}$	$4.10 \cdot 10^{-2}$	$1.54 \cdot 10^{-2}$ ***
<i>Linx</i> ² .c1	$-2.51 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$1.99 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$-4.19 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$1.44 \cdot 10^{-4}$ ***
<i>Salam.c1</i>	$1.78 \cdot 10^{-3}$	$8.70 \cdot 10^{-3}$	$6.04 \cdot 10^{-3}$	$1.08 \cdot 10^{-2}$
<i>Salam</i> ² .c1	$-4.70 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$7.48 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$-7.91 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$9.85 \cdot 10^{-5}$
Cost.c1	$-2.99 \cdot 10^{-2}$	$1.89 \cdot 10^{-2}$	$-8.80 \cdot 10^{-2}$	$2.03 \cdot 10^{-2}$ ****
Asc.c1	-1.24	$4.25 \cdot 10^{-1}$ ***	$-5.64 \cdot 10^{-2}$	$6.83 \cdot 10^{-1}$
Scale.c1	1.09	$5.06 \cdot 10^{-1}$ *	$6.23 \cdot 10^{-1}$	$4.04 \cdot 10^{-1}$
<i>Wolf.c2</i>	$8.79 \cdot 10^{-2}$	$1.74 \cdot 10^{-2}$ ***	$5.32 \cdot 10^{-2}$	$5.30 \cdot 10^{-3}$ ****
<i>Wolf</i> ² .c2	$-9.55 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$2.96 \cdot 10^{-4}$ **	$-5.43 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$4.66 \cdot 10^{-5}$ ****
<i>Linx.c2</i>	$5.27 \cdot 10^{-2}$	$2.14 \cdot 10^{-2}$ *	$4.95 \cdot 10^{-2}$	$4.94 \cdot 10^{-3}$ ****
<i>Linx</i> ² .c2	$-5.49 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$1.85 \cdot 10^{-4}$ **	$-4.85 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$4.59 \cdot 10^{-5}$ ****
<i>Salam.c2</i>	$1.87 \cdot 10^{-2}$	$9.83 \cdot 10^{-3}$ *	$1.65 \cdot 10^{-2}$	$4.39 \cdot 10^{-3}$ ****
<i>Salam</i> ² .c2	$-1.17 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$9.87 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$-1.49 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$4.17 \cdot 10^{-5}$ ****
Cost.c2	$-1.58 \cdot 10^{-1}$	$7.73 \cdot 10^{-2}$ **	$-9.00 \cdot 10^{-2}$	$8.87 \cdot 10^{-3}$ ****
Asc.c2	-5.50	$7.70 \cdot 10^{-1}$ ****	-5.27	$9.62 \cdot 10^{-1}$ ****
Scale.c2	$5.33 \cdot 10^{-1}$	$3.02 \cdot 10^{-1}$ *	$9.07 \cdot 10^{-1}$	$1.33 \cdot 10^{-1}$ ****
class_constant	$6.469 \cdot 10^{-1}$	$3.958 \cdot 10^{-1}$	7.48	2.36 ***
LV_dom.c1			-2.92	1.83
LV_mut.c1			$-4.33 \cdot 10^1$	$2.58 \cdot 10^{-1}$ ****
LL (choice model)		-4147		-4013
LL (global)		-4147		-4333
AIC		8332		8024
BIC		8465		8017
Observations		8184		8184
Respondents		341		341

**** $p < 0.001$, *** $p < 0.01$, ** $p < 0.05$, * $p < 0.1$

422 respondents with a mutualism orientation are more likely to belong to the second latent class. Coefficients in
423 this class are larger than class number one, indicating that increasing the number of animals provides higher
424 utility for people in this class. This is also reflected in larger WTPs for the three animals, which will be
425 discussed later. This result was anticipated, because people showing mutualism are expected to be willing to
426 pay more than dominants for wildlife conservation. Prior research suggested that VOs may be predictors of
427 attitudes towards wildlife and wildlife management options; our study suggests that VOs may also influence
428 the economic behaviour of the individual.

429
430 Concerning welfare measures, the quadratic coding for the number of animals of each species allowed a
431 non-linear representation of WTP levels for each population size, expressed per person per visit to one of the
432 regional park. The calculation of WTPs was computed by means of the following formula:

$$WTP_n = \frac{-(\beta * n + \beta * n^2)}{\beta_{cost}} \quad (7)$$

433 where n is the population size of the species of interest, while β and β_{cost} are, respectively, the estimated
434 coefficients from the choice model for the species of interest and the cost attribute. Table 8 shows estimated
435 WTP with confidence intervals for some representative sizes of the populations. Results of the WTP com-
436 putation per each animal is shown in figures 2, 3 and 4, together with the confidence intervals calculated
437 through the Krinsky-Robb method, using 5,000 draws (Hole, 2007). WTP is presented separately for the two
438 classes. The continuous lines represents the mean class-specific marginal WTP, while dashed lines the lower

Animal	N	Class one			Class two		
		Lower	Mean	Upper	Lower	Mean	Upper
Wolf	20	0.21	5.52	6.86	6.86	9.56	6.86
	40	-0.61	7.77	9.99	9.99	14.22	9.99
	60	-2.53	6.73	9.37	9.37	13.98	9.37
	80	-5.91	2.43	4.83	4.83	8.84	4.83
Linx	20	1.56	8.17	19.69	6.44	8.99	12.23
	40	2.00	12.17	29.89	9.65	13.61	18.61
	60	1.35	12.00	30.60	9.53	13.83	19.14
	80	-0.71	7.66	22.30	6.13	9.68	13.86
Salamander	20	-2.43	1.42	7.82	1.29	3.08	5.14
	40	-4.07	1.94	11.81	1.96	4.81	8.11
	60	-5.03	1.55	12.12	1.99	5.19	8.97
	80	-5.49	0.25	8.85	1.22	4.21	7.85

Table 8: WTP and confidence intervals for wolves, lynx and salamanders (in €)

Figure 2: Krinsky-Robb confidence intervals for WTP for conserving wolves, in class one and two (in €)

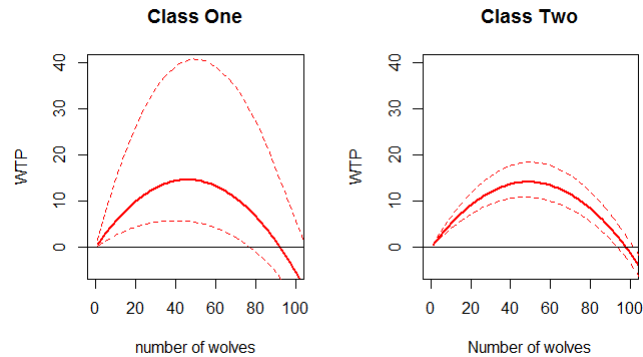
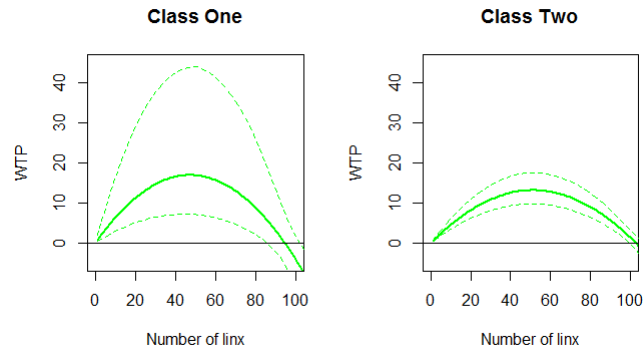
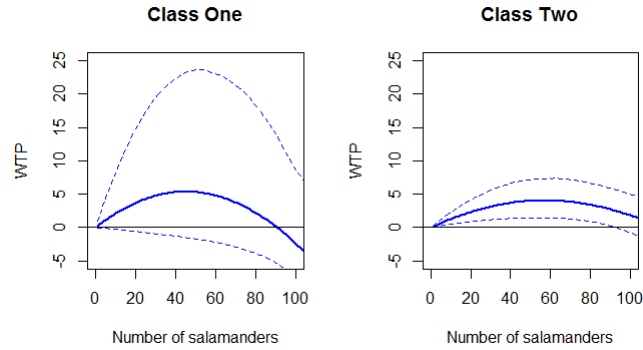


Figure 3: Krinsky-Robb confidence intervals for WTP for conserving lynx, in class one and two (in €)



439 and upper borders of the confidence interval, estimated at a confidence level of 95 percent. Individual WTPs
440 in each class follow a similar concave trend, given by the marginal utility, which is increasing until a certain
441 size of the population and then decreasing. People are willing to contribute with higher amounts to increase
442 the number of animals until a certain threshold. This might be explained by the fact that people are aware
443 of the importance of biological conservation but, at the same time, they do not want too many specimen for
444 public safety or public security reasons. Beyond the threshold, people show a still positive WTP but with a

Figure 4: Krinsky-Robb confidence intervals for WTP for conserving salamanders, in class one and two (in €)



445 decreasing trend, until reaching zero WTP at a certain population level, which differ by animal.
 446 From table 8, it can be noticed that, on average, the highest levels of WTP for wolves is found for a popula-
 447 tion size between 40 and 60 individuals, although confidence intervals are quite large and exact estimates are
 448 difficult to establish. Including VOs resulted in consistent differences between classes, in particular for what
 449 concern the range of confidence interval, which is always much larger in the first class. In class number one
 450 people are willing to pay roughly between €6.70 and €7.70 for such population sizes, while in class number two
 451 WTP rises to around €14, with a much smaller interval range compared to class number one. In class
 452 one, the lower confidence interval for WTP is very close to zero and turn negative at about 30 wolves, while
 453 in class number two WTP becomes negative only in correspondence of about 90 individuals. The maximum
 454 WTP for lynx and salamanders may be found for similar population sizes, but with different amount of
 455 money. There are not big differences between classes in terms of average WTP for the lynx, in fact people
 456 are willing to pay a maximum of €12-13.50 in both classes. Eventually, salamanders showed the lowest level
 457 of preference from respondents. This result was expected, because the scientific literature on biodiversity
 458 evaluation indicates people are generally willing to pay more for mammals than for reptiles and other species
 459 (Martin-Lopez et al., 2008). This result is consistent with the similarity principle, stating that man prefers
 460 the species most similar to himself (Tisdell et al., 2005; Metrick and Weitzman, 1996). The maximum WTP
 461 is between 40 and 60 salamanders, in the first class people are willing to pay a maximum of about €1.50-2
 462 for a viable population, while in class number two WTP rises up to about €5 for the same population size.

463
 464 In general, it can be observed that respondents that are more likely to be in class number two have higher
 465 WTPs for the three animals. These people are also more likely to have a mutualism orientation, their be-
 466 haviour is therefore explained by a higher positive attitudes towards animals' right of existence. Conversely,
 467 WTPs in class number one are, on average, considerably smaller but with a higher variability. Class one
 468 is mainly composed by respondents with a domination orientation, whose willingness to conserve wildlife is
 469 typically smaller than for people with a mutualism orientation. For this reason, the smaller average WTP is
 470 understandable. The high variability of the confidence interval might be explained by the fact that, according
 471 to answer to value orientation questions (table 4), few people showed a domination orientation, which may
 472 have increased the variance of answers to choice tasks. At the same time, the relative small interest towards
 473 wildlife might have caused a small engagement in taking the survey, thus leading to a higher variability of
 474 answers (Hess and Stathopoulos, 2013).

475 Results from this study suggest that VOs are important to explain heterogeneity in preferences, bringing to
 476 a more accurate estimation of WTP for wildlife conservation. The use of a latent variable model was justi-
 477 fied by the need of avoiding endogeneity, which is demonstrated to have relevant consequences in CE studies
 478 (Budziski and Czajkowski, 2017; Hoyos et al., 2017). Considering VOs in wildlife management has interesting
 479 policy implications. Understanding how orientations of tourists affect preferences about wildlife facilitates
 480 an *ex-ante* evaluation of the effects of new management strategies. Such information is important to commu-
 481 nicate management decisions effectively and reduce the probability of conflicts. The human-wildlife conflict
 482 is the most substantial limitation to wildlife conservation policies (Dickman, 2010; Kubo and Shoji, 2014)

483 and can influence a number of economic and recreational activities related to wildlife (Burns, 2004a). Un-
484 derstanding the individual factors and context for human-wildlife relationships is useful for the development
485 of conservation management actions that depend on public support (Dietsch et al., 2016). The segmentation
486 approach presented in this paper can be a useful tool for understanding target audiences and to improve
487 WTP estimates. Results can provide guidance on the social acceptability of management interventions and
488 can help the identification of suitable tools aimed at increasing social consensus. They can support public
489 decision-makers in the modulation of wildlife management policies for balancing the needs of conservation
490 and outdoor recreation, explicitly considering existing human-wildlife conflicts.

491

492 Our study was limited to the evaluation of preferences among tourists, however another critical issue in
493 the human-wildlife interactions is represented by opinions of the locals. Local communities play an important
494 role in conservation and, at the same time, are also a group that could be affected by decisions on natural
495 resource management (Paletto et al., 2014; Parkins and Mitchell, 2005). VOs and preferences of the local
496 may be different, therefore understanding opinions of a wider audience would lead to better decisions.

497 6. Conclusions

498 This paper discussed a methodology to include tourists' VO towards wildlife in a choice model. A system
499 of equations, in which indicator equations and choice models are linked by means of two latent variables, was
500 created in order to include VOs questions in the model, thus overcoming problems of endogeneity. Latent
501 variables, representing mutualism and domination orientations, entered the indicator model as explanatory
502 variables and the choice model as a variable affecting class membership of the respondents. The procedure
503 was tested in a case study in the Italian Alps, the province of Trento, where a natural return of wolves
504 and lynx from neighbouring areas was experienced in the recent years. Moreover, the area is inhabited by
505 a unique sub-species of salamander, called salamander of Aurora. It important to consider some aspects of
506 this study when interpreting the results. In particular, a real management of wildlife might have problems
507 related to correlated population sizes for the animals we considered. In addition, the use of a hypothetical
508 null alternative as *opt out* could be avoided in future studies if a SQ bias is expected not to influence results.
509 We also recognize that wildlife management should be done with the investigation of preferences of all stake-
510 holder groups, therefore local communities should also be surveyed for an effective policy-making.

511

512 Results showed that latent variables describing domination and mutualism orientations have a significant
513 effect on latent class allocation. Differences among classes were found in the marginal utilities associated with
514 each attribute. In terms of WTPs, the two classes were proved to be different concerning the maximum level
515 of WTP, in the range of confidence intervals and in the maximum acceptable number of specimen. In class
516 one, people showed the highest average WTP for lynx and then for wolves. WTP for wolves was assessed to
517 be around €12-13.50 for a population of about 40–60 animals, while WTP for wolves was about €6.70-7.70
518 for the same range of population size. In class two, people showed higher WTP for the wolves rather than
519 lynx, ie. €14, while the average maximum WTP for lynx is almost the same as in class one. In both classes,
520 WTP for salamander is considerably lower than for the two mammal species. Confirming previous literature,
521 our results demonstrated the positive attitude of the majority of tourists towards wildlife, indicated by the
522 size of the class where mutualists are more likely to belong and by the amount they are willingness to pay for
523 increasing specimens. This finding is significant because it confirms that VOs are relevant when one wishes
524 to explain heterogeneity in WTP and should be included to improve welfare analysis. In addition, our study
525 further provides evidence of a societal shift from domination to mutualism.

526

527 The characterization of tourists that the model proposed is useful not only to circumvent statistical
528 problems such as endogeneity, but also for decision-makers, to tailor effective conservation policies. Human-
529 wildlife conflict is the most substantial limitation to wildlife conservation policies (Dickman, 2010; Kubo and
530 Yasushi, 2014) and can influence a number of economic and recreational activities related to wildlife (Burns,
531 2004b).The described hybrid model is able to provide a description of preferences based on individual char-
532 acteristics, so that preference heterogeneity can be effectively modelled.

533

534 What emerged from the study is that lynx and wolf are seen by tourists as symbols of the Alps and their
535 presence probably is one of the major reasons that make Trentino one of the strongest national attractions in a
536 naturalistic environment. This phenomenon may have some policy implications on economic and recreational
537 activities related to wildlife, such as wildlife tourism. One of the key points for a successful wildlife tourism
538 experience is the attitude of tourists towards wildlife (Reynolds and Braithwaite, 2001). Our psychological
539 and economic results show that wildlife tourism can be developed in Trentino. Wildlife tourism could bring
540 further benefits in terms of environmental education and awareness both for tourists and local population,
541 helping in reducing the human wildlife conflict, which in recent years has increased in Trentino. As the case of
542 the salamander aurora shows, a lack of knowledge and familiarity with a particular wild species can affect the
543 preferences of tourists and therefore availability to support any protection and conservation plans. Tourist
544 experience based on observation, familiarization with the characteristics and habits of these wild animals,
545 can produce positive effects both for sustainable tourism development and wildlife conservation.

546 7. Acknowledgements

547 We are thankful to professor J.J. Vaske for sharing the questionnaire on value orientation and to Valentina
548 Manini, Serena Nichele and Alessio Tamanini for the help with data compilation.

549 8. References

- 550 Abou-Zeid, M., Ben-Akiva, M., Bierlaire, M., Choudhury, C., and Hess, S. (2010). Attitudes and value of time
551 heterogeneity. *Applied Transport Economics-A Management and Policy Perspective*. De Boeck Publishing,
552 pages 523–545.
- 553 Agimass, F., Vedel, S. E., and Jacobsen, J. B. (2017). Accounting for environmental attitude to explain
554 variations in willingness to pay for forest ecosystem service using the new environmental paradigm. *EAERE*,
555 *European Association for Environmental and Resource Economics, Athens (Greece)*, pages 1–28.
- 556 Agnolin, M. (2012). Analisi delle preferenze dei residenti per la gestione dell’orso (*ursus arctos*) in trentino.
557 *Master thesis, University of Trento*.
- 558 Arrow, K., Solow, R., Portney, P. R., Leamer, E. E., Radner, R., and Schuman, H. (1993). Report of the
559 noaa panel on contingent valuation. *Federal register*, 58(10):4601–4614.
- 560 Bell, J., Huber, J., and Viscusi, W. K. (2011). Survey mode effects on valuation of environmental goods.
561 *International journal of environmental research and public health*, 8(4):1222–1243.
- 562 Ben-Akiva, M., McFadden, D., Gärling, T., Gopinath, D., Walker, J., Bolduc, D., Börsch-Supan, A., Delquié,
563 P., Larichev, O., Morikawa, T., et al. (1999). Extended framework for modeling choice behavior. *Marketing*
564 *letters*, 10(3):187–203.
- 565 Ben-Akiva, M., McFadden, D., Train, K., Walker, J., Bhat, C., Bierlaire, M., Bolduc, D., Boersch-Supan, A.,
566 Brownstone, D., Bunch, D. S., et al. (2002). Hybrid choice models: progress and challenges. *Marketing*
567 *Letters*, 13(3):163–175.
- 568 Birol, E., Karousakis, K., and Koundouri, P. (2006). Using a choice experiment to account for preference
569 heterogeneity in wetland attributes: the case of cheimaditida wetland in greece. *Ecological economics*,
570 60(1):145–156.
- 571 Bjerke, T., Ødegårdstuen, T. S., and Kaltenborn, B. P. (1998). Attitudes toward animals among norwegian
572 children and adolescents: species preferences. *Anthrozoös*, 11(4):227–235.
- 573 Bliemer, M. C., Rose, J. M., and Hess, S. (2008). Approximation of bayesian efficiency in experimental choice
574 designs. *Journal of Choice Modelling*, 1(1):98–126.

- 575 Bolduc, D. and Alvarez-Daziano, R. (2010). On estimation of hybrid choice models. In *Choice Modelling: The*
576 *State-of-the-Art and the State-of-Practice: Proceedings from the Inaugural International Choice Modelling*
577 *Conference*. Emerald Group Publishing, page 259.
- 578 Bolduc, D., Ben-Akiva, M., Walker, J., and Michaud, A. (2005). Hybrid choice models with logit kernel:
579 applicability to large scale models. *Integrated Land-Use and Transportation Models: Behavioural Founda-*
580 *tions*, Elsevier, Oxford, pages 275–302.
- 581 Boxall, P. C., Adamowicz, W. L., Swait, J., Williams, M., and Louviere, J. (1996). A comparison of stated
582 preference methods for environmental valuation. *Ecological economics*, 18(3):243–253.
- 583 Brown, T. C. (1984). The concept of value in resource allocation. *Land economics*, 60(3):231–246.
- 584 Budziski, W. and Czajkowski, M. (2017). Addressing endogeneity in hybrid choice models. *EAERE, European*
585 *Association for Environmental and Resource Economics, Athens (Greece)*, pages 1–21.
- 586 Burns, G. L. (2004a). The host community and wildlife tourism. *Wildlife tourism*, 125.
- 587 Burns, G. L. (2004b). The host community and wildlife tourism. In Higginbottom, K., editor, *Wildlife*
588 *Tourism, Impacts, Management and Planning*, pages 125–144. Common Ground Publishing Pty.
- 589 Campbell, D., Boeri, M., Doherty, E., and Hutchinson, W. G. (2015). Learning, fatigue and preference
590 formation in discrete choice experiments. *Journal of Economic Behavior and Organization*, pages 1–19.
- 591 Campbell, D., Hensher, D. A., and Scarpa, R. (2012). Cost thresholds, cut-offs and sensitivities in stated
592 choice analysis: identification and implications. *Resource and Energy Economics*, 34(3):396–411.
- 593 Carlsson, F. and Johansson-Stenman, O. (2000). Willingness to pay for improved air quality in sweden.
594 *Applied Economics*, 32(6):661–669.
- 595 Choi, A. S. and Fielding, K. S. (2013). Environmental attitudes as wtp predictors: A case study involving
596 endangered species. *Ecological Economics*, 89:24–32.
- 597 Daly, A., Hess, S., Patrui, B., Potoglou, D., and Rohr, C. (2012). Using ordered attitudinal indicators in
598 a latent variable choice model: a study of the impact of security on rail travel behaviour. *Transportation*,
599 39(2):267–297.
- 600 Delibes-Mateos, M., Giergiczny, M., Caro, J., Viñuela, J., Riera, P., and Arroyo, B. (2014). Does hunters’
601 willingness to pay match the best hunting options for biodiversity conservation? a choice experiment
602 application for small game hunting in spain. *Biological Conservation*, 177:36–42.
- 603 Di Minin, E., Fraser, I., Slotow, R., and MacMillan, D. C. (2013). Understanding heterogeneous preference
604 of tourists for big game species: implications for conservation and management. *Animal Conservation*,
605 16(3):249–258.
- 606 Dickman, A. J. (2010). Complexities of conflict: the importance of considering social factors for effectively
607 resolving human–wildlife conflict. *Animal conservation*, 13(5):458–466.
- 608 Dietsch, A. M., Teel, T. L., and Manfredo, M. J. (2016). Social values and biodiversity conservation in a
609 dynamic world. *Conservation Biology*, 30(6):1212–1221.
- 610 Flynn, T. N., Louviere, J. J., Peters, T. J., and Coast, J. (2007). Best–worst scaling: what it can do for
611 health care research and how to do it. *Journal of health economics*, 26(1):171–189.
- 612 Fulton, D. C., Manfredo, M. J., and Lipscomb, J. (1996). Wildlife value orientations: A conceptual and
613 measurement approach. *Human dimensions of wildlife*, 1(2):24–47.
- 614 Gamborg, C. and Jensen, F. S. (2017). Attitudes towards recreational hunting: A quantitative survey of the
615 general public in denmark. *Journal of Outdoor Recreation and Tourism*, 17:20–28.

- 616 Greene, W. H. (2003). *Econometric analysis*. Pearson Education India.
- 617 Greene, W. H. and Hensher, D. A. (2003). A latent class model for discrete choice analysis: contrasts with
618 mixed logit. *Transportation Research Part B: Methodological*, 37(8):681–698.
- 619 Han, S.-y., Lee, C.-k., Mjelde, J. W., and Kim, T.-k. (2010). Choice-experiment valuation of management
620 alternatives for reintroduction of the endangered mountain goral in Woraksan National Park, South Korea.
621 *Scandinavian Journal of Forest Research*, 25:534–543.
- 622 Hanemann, W. M. (1984). Welfare evaluations in contingent valuation experiments with discrete responses.
623 *American journal of agricultural economics*, 66(3):332–341.
- 624 Hanley, N., Czajkowski, M., Hanley-Nickolls, R., and Redpath, S. (2010). Economic values of species manage-
625 ment options in human–wildlife conflicts: Hen harriers in scotland. *Ecological Economics*, 70(1):107–113.
- 626 Hanley, N., MacMillan, D., Patterson, I., and Wright, R. E. (2003). Economics and the design of nature
627 conservation policy: a case study of wild goose conservation in scotland using choice experiments. *Animal
628 conservation*, 6(02):123–129.
- 629 Hanley, N., MacMillan, D., Wright, R. E., Bullock, C., Simpson, I., Parsisson, D., and Crabtree, B. (1998).
630 Contingent valuation versus choice experiments: estimating the benefits of environmentally sensitive areas
631 in scotland. *Journal of agricultural economics*, 49(1):1–15.
- 632 Hartel, C. M., Carlton, J. S., and Prokopy, L. S. (2015). The role of value orientations and experience on
633 attitudes toward a well-liked threatened reptile. *Human Dimensions of Wildlife*, 20(6):553–562.
- 634 Hermann, N., Voß, C., and Menzel, S. (2013). Wildlife value orientations as predicting factors in support of
635 reintroducing bison and of wolves migrating to germany. *Journal for Nature Conservation*, 21(3):125–132.
- 636 Hess, S. and Beharry-Borg, N. (2012). Accounting for latent attitudes in willingness-to-pay studies: the case
637 of coastal water quality improvements in tobago. *Environmental and Resource Economics*, 52(1):109–131.
- 638 Hess, S., Shires, J., and Jopson, A. (2013). Accommodating underlying pro-environmental attitudes in a rail
639 travel context: application of a latent variable latent class specification. *Transportation Research Part D:
640 Transport and Environment*, 25:42–48.
- 641 Hess, S. and Stathopoulos, A. (2013). Linking response quality to survey engagement: a combined random
642 scale and latent variable approach. *Journal of choice modelling*, 7:1–12.
- 643 Hole, A. R. (2007). A comparison of approaches to estimating confidence intervals for willingness to pay
644 measures. *Health economics*, 16(8):827–840.
- 645 Homer, P. M. and Kahle, L. R. (1988). A structural equation test of the value-attitude-behavior hierarchy.
646 *Journal of Personality and social Psychology*, 54(4):638.
- 647 Howell, S. E. and Laska, S. B. (1992). The changing face of the environmental coalition: a research note.
648 *Environment and Behavior*, 24(1):134–144.
- 649 Hoyos, D. (2010). The state of the art of environmental valuation with discrete choice experiments. *Ecological
650 economics*, 69(8):1595–1603.
- 651 Hoyos, D., Mariel, P., Artabe, A., and Guevara, A. (2017). Dealing with endogeneity in discrete-choice models
652 for environmental valuation: preliminary results. *EAERE, European Association for Environmental and
653 Resource Economics, Athens (Greece)*, pages 1–25.
- 654 Hoyos, D., Mariel, P., and Hess, S. (2015). Incorporating environmental attitudes in discrete choice models:
655 An exploration of the utility of the awareness of consequences scale. *Science of the Total Environment*,
656 505:1100–1111.

- 657 Hrubes, D., Ajzen, I., and Daigle, J. (2001). Predicting hunting intentions and behavior: An application of
658 the theory of planned behavior. *Leisure Sciences*, 23(3):165–178.
- 659 Jacobs, M. H., Vaske, J. J., and Sijtsma, M. T. (2014). Predictive potential of wildlife value orientations for
660 acceptability of management interventions. *Journal for Nature Conservation*, 22(4):377–383.
- 661 Johnston, R. J., Boyle, K. J., Adamowicz, W., Bennett, J., Brouwer, R., Cameron, T. A., Hanemann,
662 W. M., Hanley, N., Ryan, M., Scarpa, R., et al. (2017). Contemporary guidance for stated preference
663 studies. *Journal of the Association of Environmental and Resource Economists*, 4(2):319–405.
- 664 Kansky, R., Kidd, M., and Knight, A. T. (2016). A wildlife tolerance model and case study for understanding
665 human wildlife conflicts. *Biological Conservation*, 201:137–145.
- 666 Kellert, S. R. (1980). Contemporary values of wildlife in american society. *Wildlife Values. Center for
667 Assessment of Noncommodity Natural Resource Values, Institutional Series Report*, 1:241–267.
- 668 Kubo, T. and Shoji, Y. (2014). Trade-off between human–wildlife conflict risk and recreation conditions.
669 *European journal of wildlife research*, 60(3):501–510.
- 670 Kubo, T. and Yasushi, S. (2014). Spatial tradeoffs between residents preferences for brown bear conservation
671 and the mitigation of humanbear conflicts. *Biological Conservation*, 176:126–132.
- 672 Lindhjem, H. and Navrud, S. (2011). Are internet surveys an alternative to face-to-face interviews in contin-
673 gent valuation? *Ecological economics*, 70(9):1628–1637.
- 674 Manfredo, M. J. (2008). *Who cares about wildlife?* Springer.
- 675 Manfredo, M. J., Teel, T. L., and Dietsch, A. M. (2016). Implications of human value shift and persistence
676 for biodiversity conservation. *Conservation Biology*.
- 677 Manfredo, M. J., Teel, T. L., and Henry, K. L. (2009). Linking society and environment: A multilevel model
678 of shifting wildlife value orientations in the western united states. *Social Science Quarterly*, 90(2):407–427.
- 679 Manski, C. F. (1977). The structure of random utility models. *Theory and Decision*, 8:229–254.
- 680 Martin-Lopez, B., Montes, C., and Benayas, J. (2008). Economic valuation of biodiversity conservation: the
681 meaning of numbers. *Conservation Biology*, 22(3):624–635.
- 682 Metrick, A. and Weitzman, M. L. (1996). Patterns of behavior in endangered species preservation. *Land
683 Economics*, pages 1–16.
- 684 Milon, J. W. and Scrogin, D. (2006). Latent preferences and valuation of wetland ecosystem restoration.
685 *Ecological Economics*, 56(2):162–175.
- 686 Morey, E., Thiene, M., De Salvo, M., and Signorello, G. (2008). Using attitudinal data to identify latent
687 classes that vary in their preference for landscape preservation. *Ecological Economics*, 68(1):536–546.
- 688 Ojea, E. and Loureiro, M. L. (2007). Altruistic, egoistic and biospheric values in willingness to pay (wtp) for
689 wildlife. *Ecological Economics*, 63(4):807–814.
- 690 Olsen, S. B., Campbell, D., and Mørkbak, M. R. (2012). Assessing the impact of opt-out definitions in
691 choice experiments: a case study on food safety. In *European Association of Environmental and Resource
692 Economists*.
- 693 Paletto, A., Giacobelli, G., Grilli, G., Balest, J., and De Meo, I. (2014). Stakeholders preferences and
694 the assessment of forest ecosystem services: a comparative analysis in italy. *Journal of Forest Science*,
695 60(11):472–483.
- 696 Parkins, J. R. and Mitchell, R. E. (2005). Public participation as public debate: a deliberative turn in natural
697 resource management. *Society and natural resources*, 18(6):529–540.

- 698 Pearce, D. (2001). *Valuing biological diversity: issues and overview*. OECD: Valuation of Biodiversity
699 Benefits; Selected Studies. Paris, OECD.
- 700 R Core Team (2013). *R: A Language and Environment for Statistical Computing*. R Foundation for Statistical
701 Computing, Vienna, Austria.
- 702 Ray, J. J. (1990). Acquiescence and problems with forced-choice scales. *The Journal of Social Psychology*,
703 130(3):397–399.
- 704 Reynolds, P. C. and Braithwaite, D. (2001). Toward a conceptual framework for wildlife tourism. *Tourism
705 Management*, 22(1):31–42.
- 706 Riepe, C. and Arlinghaus, R. (2014). Explaining anti-angling sentiments in the general population of germany:
707 an application of the cognitive hierarchy model. *Human Dimensions of Wildlife*, 19(4):371–390.
- 708 Riera, P., Signorello, G., Thiene, M., Mahieu, P.-A., Navrud, S., Kaval, P., Rulleau, B., Mavsar, R.,
709 Madureira, L., Meyerhoff, J., et al. (2012). Non-market valuation of forest goods and services: Good
710 practice guidelines. *Journal of Forest Economics*, 18(4):259–270.
- 711 Rolston, H. (1994). Value in nature and the nature of value. *Royal Institute of Philosophy Supplements*,
712 36:13–30.
- 713 Rolston III, H. (1983). Values gone wild. *Inquiry*, 26(2):181–207.
- 714 Scarpa, R., Notaro, S., Louviere, J., and Raffaelli, R. (2011). Exploring scale effects of best/worst rank
715 ordered choice data to estimate benefits of tourism in alpine grazing commons. *American Journal of
716 Agricultural Economics*, 93(3):813–828.
- 717 Scarpa, R. and Thiene, M. (2005). Destination choice models for rock climbing in the northeastern alps: a
718 latent-class approach based on intensity of preferences. *Land economics*, 81(3):426–444.
- 719 Serenari, C., Peterson, M. N., Gale, T., and Fahlke, A. (2015). Relationships between value orientations and
720 wildlife conservation policy preferences in chilean patagonia. *Human Dimensions of Wildlife*, 20(3):271–
721 279.
- 722 Shen, J. (2009). Latent class model or mixed logit model? a comparison by transport mode choice data.
723 *Applied Economics*, 41(22):2915–2924.
- 724 Spash, C. L. (2006). Non-economic motivation for contingent values: rights and attitudinal beliefs in the
725 willingness to pay for environmental improvements. *Land Economics*, 82(4):602–622.
- 726 Sponarski, C. C., Vaske, J. J., Bath, A., and Musiani, M. M. (2014). Salient values, social trust, and attitudes
727 toward wolf management in south-western alberta, canada. *Environmental Conservation*, 41(4):303–310.
- 728 Sponarski, C. C., Vaske, J. J., and Bath, A. J. (2015). The role of cognitions and emotions in human–coyote
729 interactions. *Human Dimensions of Wildlife*, 20(3):238–254.
- 730 Steinhoff, H. W. (1980). Analysis of major conceptual systems for understanding and measuring wildlife
731 values. *Wildlife Values Proceedings*.
- 732 Tattoni, C., Grilli, G., and Ciolli, M. (2017). Advertising value of the brown bear in the italian alps. *Ursus*,
733 27(2):110–121.
- 734 Teel, T. L. and Manfredo, M. J. (2010). Understanding the diversity of public interests in wildlife conservation.
735 *Conservation Biology*, 24(1):128–139.
- 736 Teel, T. L., Manfredo, M. J., Jensen, F. S., Buijs, A. E., Fischer, A., Riepe, C., Arlinghaus, R., and Jacobs,
737 M. H. (2010). Understanding the cognitive basis for human-wildlife relationships as a key to successful
738 protected-area management. *International Journal of Sociology*, 40(3):104–123.

- 739 Tisdell, C., Wilson, C., and Nantha, H. S. (2005). Association of public support for survival of wildlife species
740 with their likeability. *Anthrozoös*, 18(2):160–174.
- 741 Vaske, J. J., Jacobs, M. H., and Sijtsma, M. T. (2011). Wildlife value orientations and demographics in the
742 netherlands. *European Journal of Wildlife Research*, 57(6):1179–1187.
- 743 Wallmo, K. and Lew, D. K. (2011). Valuing improvements to threatened and endangered marine species: an
744 application of stated preference choice experiments. *Journal of environmental management*, 92(7):1793–
745 1801.
- 746 Whittaker, D., Vaske, J. J., and Manfredi, M. J. (2006). Specificity and the cognitive hierarchy: Value
747 orientations and the acceptability of urban wildlife management actions. *Society and Natural Resources*,
748 19(6):515–530.
- 749 Whittington, D., Adamowicz, W., and Lloyd-Smith, P. (2017). Asking willingness-to-accept questions in
750 stated preference surveys: A review and research agenda. *Annual Review of Resource Economics*, (0).
- 751 Winslott Hiselius, L. (2005). Using choice experiments to assess people’s preferences for railway transports
752 of hazardous materials. *Risk Analysis*, 25(5):1199–1214.
- 753 Wisner, R. H. (2007). Using contingent valuation to explore willingness to pay for renewable energy: a
754 comparison of collective and voluntary payment vehicles. *Ecological economics*, 62(3-4):419–432.