

1 **Societal preferences for the conservation of traditional pig breeds and**
2 **their agroecosystems: Addressing preference heterogeneity and protest**
3 **responses through deterministic allocation and scale-extended models**

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11
12 **ABSTRACT**

13 This study assesses preferences of local dwellers on the island of Majorca (Spain) for the
14 conservation the traditional, extensively reared Majorcan Black Pig and its linked
15 agroecosystem. A choice experiment study was conducted with equal sample weight
16 between rural and urban dwellers. Protest responses in this study amount up to 35% of
17 the sample. The widespread procedure of removing these responses from the ulterior
18 analysis, may lead to sample selection bias. Alternative discrete modelling approaches
19 are tested keeping these observations in the sample. Latent class analysis was conducted,
20 and protest responses (35%) were either allowed to free allocate or deterministically
21 allocated to one preference class. Additionally, scale-adjusted latent class models were
22 also estimated for both approaches.

23 Free allocated models report better information criteria estimates but may lead to
24 inaccurate interpretation of results due to preventing segregation into real preference
25 groups. The best model in terms of performance and interpretability is a 3-class model
26 where protest responses are deterministically allocated to one class and random
27 parameters are included to account for heterogeneity. Among the non-protesting classes,
28 we find heterogeneous preferences where 40% of the respondents are mostly concerned
29 with management and product innovation and the remainder 24% more breed-concerned
30 respondents favour price increases in breed-based products to fund the improvement of
31 the agroecosystem.

32 **Keywords:** Scale-adjusted latent class model, random parameter latent class model,
33 protesters, extensive systems, animal genetic diversity

1

2 **1 Introduction**

3 Extensive outdoor low-intensity livestock farming systems are the principal form of
4 management of high natural value farmland in Europe and able to satisfy demands for
5 public goods such as landscapes and biodiversity (Beaufoy y Cooper, 2008). However,
6 the opportunity costs associated with this form of land management and the insufficient
7 recognition in markets and policies can ultimately risk the future of sustainable farming
8 (Swinton et al., 2007), propelling these farmers towards restructuring to achieve either
9 more profitable forms of land use or land abandonment (Cooper et al., 2009). Although
10 grazing land intensity has declined across most of Europe (Pe'er et al., 2017), the decrease
11 in the number of livestock units is higher than the decrease in the total number of farms
12 with an intensification pattern (Agrosynergie 2011), and this phenomenon is a
13 consequence of the need to increase productivity to pay for increasing costs and the
14 gradual decrease in the prices of agricultural products (Aparicio Tovar y Vargas Giraldo,
15 2006). Furthermore, evidence suggests that the Common Agricultural Policy (CAP)
16 significantly contributed to this process, linked among other factors to the decoupling
17 payments (Pe'er et al., 2017, 2014). This contrasts with the increasing societal concerns
18 about the carbon footprint, industrialisation of agriculture, fair trade, food security, or
19 animal welfare (Bernués et al., 2011).

20 Extensive farming systems are tightly linked to domestic animal diversity, that is, animal
21 genetic resources (AnGRs) adapted to their local conditions and over thousands of years
22 of domestication (Anderson, 2003). The conservation of farmland biodiversity and more
23 specifically of AnGR accrue a series of private and public value components (Tisdell,
24 2003). The role of AnGR in supporting agroecosystem resilience (Hajjar et al., 2008) is
25 maintaining socio-cultural traditions, local identities, and traditional knowledge (Gandini
26 y Villa, 2003; Nautiyal et al., 2008); gene flow global option values (e.g. Bellon, 2009),
27 cultural landscapes (Tisdell, 2003), and shares the characteristics of public goods (Fisher
28 y Kerry Turner, 2008); and a high degree of non-excludability (Narloch et al., 2011). Not
29 accounting for these non-market values (e.g. future option values or socio-cultural values)
30 that society holds for these traditional breeds has produced an overestimation of the
31 performance of improved AnGR. Because rearing these traditional breeds is many times
32 not profitable under present market conditions, compensation payments are necessary to
33 make these populations viable (Zander y Drucker, 2008).

1 Traditional high-quality meat products from Mediterranean pigs are produced in
2 extensive-type production systems that use native agro-sylvo-pastoral resources. This
3 case applies to the Majorcan Black Pig (MBP), a traditional, extensive pig breed native
4 to Mallorca island (Balearic Islands, Spain), characterised by its high rusticity and
5 adaptation to Mediterranean climatic conditions (Gonzalez et al., 2013; Tibau et al.,
6 2019). In 1997, the Spanish Ministry of Agriculture has catalogued the MBP as a breed
7 of special protection in danger of extinction.

8 In this study, we assessed Majorca island dwellers' preferences for management options
9 for the MBP and its agroecosystem and related products through a choice experiment
10 survey. These options may align with thriving strategies followed by extensive farming
11 systems and policy schemes to support these systems. Investigating the preference
12 heterogeneity of citizens has been recognised as a useful tool for policymakers to design
13 better policy actions, especially reaching specific segments of the target population and
14 accounting for winners and losers in proposed policy actions (Thiene et al., 2015).
15 Furthermore, we explored the performance of modelling approaches where we control for
16 differences in error variance across respondents by applying scale-adjusted latent class
17 (SALC) models (Magidson and Vermunt,2007).

18 **2 Case study description**

19 Land use on the island of Mallorca is similar to other areas in the Mediterranean where
20 land use intensification through urban sprawl, increases in tourism, and abandonment of
21 rainfed arboriculture and spontaneous reforestation have occurred (Marull et al., 2015).
22 These changes have produced a loss in the heterogeneous, well-connected land use
23 mosaics with a positive interplay between the intermediate level of farming disturbances
24 and land cover complexity endowed with a rich biocultural heritage that are able to
25 preserve a wildlife-friendly agroecological matrix likely to house high biodiversity
26 (Marull et al., 2015).

27 The MBP had great importance in the economy and in the Majorcan lifestyle until the
28 mid-twentieth century and contributed to the cultural heritage of the island (Tibau et al.,
29 2019) because of its high adaptation to the local environment and ability to exploit the
30 scarce natural resources of the island (Jaume y Alfonso, 2000). Traditional MBP farms
31 were mixed farms, that is, a variety of agricultural and livestock activities were
32 conducted, and today, the MBP constitutes approximately 20% of farm income. The MBP

1 is always managed in an extensive fashion with low-level breeding and feeding conditions
2 (between 10 and 25 pigs/ha) (Gonzalez et al., 2013). The traditional feeding regime was
3 primarily pasture, cereals (barley), and legume seeds, and the secondary food sources
4 were mainly figs, almonds, or carob seeds from traditional rainfed tree polyculture, and
5 several Mediterranean shrubs typical to MBP plots (Gonzalez et al., 2013; Tibau et al.,
6 2019).

7 The disappearance of the biocultural landscape is closely linked to the decline in MBP
8 numbers over the last 150 years. In addition, the effect of diseases and the more recent
9 introduction of leaner pig breeds are the basis for the breed's dramatic status in the
10 beginning of twenty-first century (Tibau et al., 2019). A group of MBP stockbreeders and
11 meat processors favoured the recovery of the breed in the 1980s (Gonzalez et al., 2013).
12 The latest census of the MBP (August, 2016) (FAO, 2017) registered 59 farms with less
13 than 1000 breeding sows and 54 males.

14 The main meat product obtained from the MBP is the 'sobrassada de Porc Negre
15 Mallorquí,' a specialty fat-rich cured sausage that has been PGI certified since 1994. The
16 reduction in generational relay and the low financial performance of these farms call for
17 the development of new products that can push the demand and added value of the
18 products to create new niche markets that can improve revenues for producers.
19 Accordingly, new products such as carpaccio (Gonzalez et al., 2013) or pork burgers
20 (Kallas et al., 2019) have been tested that may better align with consumer demand for
21 reduced-fat pork products.

22 **3 Material and methods**

23 **3.1 Survey design (attributes and levels) and data collection**

24 Following Jeanloz et al. (2016), an initial list of relevant attributes was devised through
25 an extensive literature review, followed by an in-depth discussion and exchange with
26 researchers on socioecological transitions in Mallorca and MBP farming. An initial pool
27 of attributes and levels, and their graphical representation, was tested in two world café
28 sessions¹ held with island dwellers that corresponded to urban and rural profiles,

¹ A world café is a structured conversational process intended to facilitate open and comfortable discussion and link ideas within a larger group to access the collective intelligence in the room. Participants move between a series of tables where they engage in discussion in response to a set of questions, which are predetermined for each table and focus on the specific goals of each world café. In our case each table gathered several attribute groups according to main relevant dimensions (breed related management, product dimension, and biodiversity-related issues). A café ambience is created to facilitate conversation.

1 respectively. A final list of attributes was selected for the construction of choice scenarios.
2 A group valuation session was held with 15 scholars to fine-tune the questionnaire and
3 its visual aids, followed by pilot testing with 20 people to gather parameter priors (see
4 below).

5 Similar to the literature on traditional breeds, the future existence of the breed was one of
6 the attributes considered (Zander et al., 2013). A discussion held with geneticists on the
7 project allowed for the identification of three population threshold levels for breed
8 survival: less than 200 sows presents a high level of risk of breed extinction, between 200
9 and 1000 sows presents a medium level of risk, and greater than 1000 sows presents a
10 low level of risk.

11 The management attribute considered whether animals are bred outdoors, indoors, or both
12 (50% indoors, 50% outdoors). Outdoor management allows the animals to develop their
13 natural behaviour while improving the organoleptic features of the meat such as
14 intramuscular fat (Tibau et al., 2019). Indoor–outdoor management is undertaken for
15 sows and suckling piglets. Because intensification, that is, indoor breeding with external
16 feeding inputs, is one of the strategies followed by extensive systems to improve financial
17 performance, we included indoor breeding to seize respondents’ preferences for this
18 option.

19 The socioecological transition in Mallorca that reduced the presence of MBPs also
20 entailed a loss of tree polycultures and landscape functional structure (Marull et al.,
21 2015b). Because multifunctionality in many traditional land use systems is highest when
22 maintained simultaneously at various levels (field, farm, and landscape) (Vos and Klijn
23 2000), two attributes conveyed diversity dimensions of the MBP agroecosystem at
24 various levels. Respondents were first briefed through the provision of a location map of
25 MBP farms in the central and southern parts of the island. The tree diversity attribute
26 considered the diversity of domestic tree species in this area (tree polycultures), namely,
27 the almond, fig, and carob trees that have traditionally been a food source for MBPs; due
28 to the failure to replace of dead almond, carob and fig trees, the density and diversity of
29 polycultures have decreased (Marull et al., 2015), with almond trees predominating if
30 anything due to linked subsidies to this species.

31 The following explanation was provided to the respondents, ‘in the traditional farming
32 system in that area, each farmer would traditionally combine three different tree species

1 in his property'. However, this is becoming less common, and we observe areas where
2 most of the plots have two or even just one tree species (medium and low tree variety,
3 respectively). The landscape attribute considered heterogeneity–homogeneity levels
4 conveyed as landscape 'variety' to the respondents. Explanations and real pictures of the
5 central part of the island were provided to respondents to illustrate the three levels.
6 Explanations were provided to convey the low level of variety, for example, *the low-*
7 *variety landscapes are characterised by monocultures where most of the land plots*
8 *cultivate cereals, there are few or no tree crops, and traditional stone walls are missing.*
9 This level was linked to the predominant trend towards more uniform land covers, tending
10 towards the vanishing of the farmers' landscape mosaics created and maintained by
11 traditional farming (Marull et al., 2015).

12 The product variety attribute considered the provisioning dimension of the MBP.
13 Although other studies have considered the quality of food-related products (Zander et
14 al., 2013), we followed an approach similar to that of Bernués et al. (2014), who consider
15 the availability of products linked to the territory. By contrast, we introduced an
16 innovative dimension in traditional food products related to this breed by considering one
17 of the five main dimensions that characterise food innovation (Guerrero et al., 2009), to
18 evaluate the social preferences for one of the strategies linked to traditional extensive
19 products followed in some regions, such as developing new products that may fit better
20 with current consumer demands (Kühne, 2010) while capturing cultural and heritage
21 values linked to traditional breeds' products (Balogh et al., 2016; Gandini y Villa, 2003).
22 This is particularly relevant in the case of MBPs because the main food product obtained
23 from its meat is *sobrassada*, a spreadable cured sausage with limited market
24 opportunities. MBP meat holds outstanding organoleptic features, and studies have shown
25 high consumer acceptance of other meat preparations such as hamburgers (Kallas et al.,
26 2019).

27 Finally, the monetary attribute considered six levels from €10 to €60. The payment
28 vehicle was expressed as the annual household tax payment for three years. We
29 purposefully reduced the taxation period to three years because credibility is crucial for
30 stated preference valuation studies (Carson and Grooves, 2007) and an infinite payment
31 vehicle would appear improbable and may thus reduce the incentive compatibility of the
32 payment vehicle.

33

1 Table 1. Description of attributes and levels²

ATTRIBUTE	VARIABLE NAME	DESCRIPTION
BREED EXISTENCE	H_RISK* M_RISK L_RISK	HIGH risk of extinction (< 200 sows) MEDIUM risk of extinction (200–1000 sows) LOW risk of extinction (1000–2000 sows)
TYPE OF MANAGEMENT	OUTDOOR* OUT-IN DOOR INDOOR	Most of the time outdoors 50% outdoors, 50% indoors Most of the time indoors
TREE CROPS	1 TSP* 2 TSP 3 TSP	1 tree species, low variety 2 tree species, medium variety 3 tree species, high variety
TYPE OF LANDSCAPE	LOW* MEDIUM HIGH	Low heterogeneity Medium heterogeneity High heterogeneity
PRODUCT VARIETY	LOW* MEDIUM HIGH	Low product variety Medium product variety High product variety
COST (€/household)	0, 10, 20, 30, 40, 50, 60	

2

3 Each of the choice sets presented to the respondents depicted a future doing-nothing
4 situation plus two alternative scenarios of change that would entail a cost for the
5 respondent household. A D-efficient experimental Bayesian design with 24 alternatives
6 distributed in four blocks was optimised by employing Ngene (choice Metrics 2012) for
7 D-efficiency, retrieving a D-error of 0.0064. The design considered the priors obtained in
8 a pilot survey conducted with 20 respondents.

9 The valuation questionnaire designed to implement the DCE comprised questions on
10 knowledge of the MBP system, perception of the status quo (SQ) levels of the selected
11 attributes, and fundraising options for a hypothetical programme to support the MBP
12 through price increases in products and an earmarked tax increase.

13 To attempt to reduce the incidence of protest responses against the payment vehicle, we
14 included a question prior to the choice cards so that the respondents expressed their
15 preferred institution to manage taxpayers' money. Next, the respondents were asked to
16 make their selections while considering that this institution would manage their
17 contributions towards the most preferred scenario. Furthermore, a short, cheap-talk script
18 was included to reduce hypothetical bias (Ladenburg et al., 2007; Varela et al., 2014c).














19 Because no established theoretical criteria or protocols have identified protest responses
20 (Boyle and Bergstrom, 1999), we followed the usual method, where these respondents
21 chose the SQ from either in five or six choice cards, on which the respondents were

² Appendix 1 shows the full list of images used to convey the attributes' levels to the participants

1 debriefed through a close-ended question to disentangle protesters from zero bidders
 2 (Meyerhoff et al., 2014a, 2014b).

3 The studies on societal preferences for rural landscapes have conducted their surveys with
 4 contrasted samples of a local–rural population and urban dwellers (i.e. living closely to
 5 the rural landscapes vs living distant from the resources) and demonstrated differences in
 6 preferences among these groups (Bernués et al., 2014; Hynes y Campbell, 2011). Our
 7 sampling strategy attached equal weights to rural (< 20,000 inhabitants) and urban (>
 8 20,000 inhabitants) populations. Each subsample was stratified according to population
 9 size, gender, and three age groups.

10 Figure 1. Example of choice cards shown to respondents

CC9 B 2.2			
	DOING NOTHING	ALTERNATIVE A	ALTERNATIVE B
COST PER HOUSEHOLD	0 €	10 €/ YEAR	40 €/ YEAR
BREED EXISTENCE	< 200 SOWS HIGH RISK of extinction 	200 – 1000 SOWS MEDIUM RISK of extinction 	1000 – 2000 SOWS LOW risk of extinction 
TYPE OF MANAGEMENT	OUTDOOR BREEDING 	OUTDOOR BREEDING 	INDOOR BREEDING 
TREE CROPS	MAJORITY OF 1 TREE SPECIES LOW TREE VARIETY 	MAJORITY OF 1 TREE SPECIES LOW TREE VARIETY 	MAJORITY OF 3 TREE SPECIES HIGH TREE VARIETY 
TYPE OF LANDSCAPE	LOW VARIETY 	MEDIUM VARIETY 	HIGH VARIETY 
PRODUCT VARIETY	LOW VARIETY 	HIGH VARIETY 	LOW VARIETY 

11

12 3.2 Econometric approach

13 Latent class (LC) models (Kamakura et al., 1989) assume that the overall preference
 14 distribution comprises a combination of unobservable latent groups or classes that differ
 15 in their utility between the groups but are similar within. Finite mixing models offer the
 16 advantage of ease of interpretation and are useful for decision making and communication
 17 (Boxall y Adamowicz, 2002; Farizo et al., 2014; Provencher y Bishop, 2004; Scarpa y
 18 Thiene, 2005), whereas some practitioners favour LC approaches over continuous
 19 specifications because of superior model fit (Bujosa et al., 2010; Soliño and Farizo, 2014;
 20 William y David, 2013; Yoo y Ready, 2014). LC models impose more structure on the

1 choice model but in exchange offer a more detailed description of segment heterogeneity
2 in the data by using two sub-models: one for class allocation and one for within-class
3 choice (Hess et al., 2007). Simulation procedures estimate class-specific part-worth
4 utilities for each attribute level and assign each person a probability of belonging to each
5 of the prespecified classes. The initial caveat of an LC that imposes homogeneity in
6 preferences within groups is overcome by allowing random parameters within each class,
7 which allows for another layer of preference heterogeneity within a class (Greene y
8 Hensher, 2013). Combining LC models with random effects was initially proposed by
9 Böckenholt (2001), and many researchers have followed this method (e.g. Bujosa et al.,
10 2010; Justes et al., 2014; Soliño and Farizo, 2014; Varela et al., 2014).

11 The observed behaviour of the recurrent choice of SQ in valuation studies was probably
12 first addressed by Samuelson and Zeckhauser (1988) and Kahnemann et al. (1991).
13 although respondents may choose the SQ for different reasons, repeated choice of the SQ
14 across a valuation survey typically hides some type of protest attitude (Adamowicz et al.,
15 1998; Meyerhoff et al., 2014b, 2009; Thiene et al., 2012) where respondents reject
16 (protest against) an aspect of the constructed market scenario (Meyerhoff et al., 2014).
17 Studies such as these, for example, Scarpa et al. (2005), Boxall et al. (2009), Meyerhoff
18 et al., (2014) or Meyerhoff and Liebe (2009), have delved deeper into the variables that
19 may be related to protest responses. Despite the common procedure of deleting protest
20 zero responses from the sample (Morrison et al. 2000), censoring them is unjustified
21 (Jorgensen y Syme, 2000) and can lead to sample selection bias (Meyerhoff et al., 2014a).

22 Among the reasons explored for protesting, task complexity is suggested as one of the
23 possible causes (Boxall et al., 2009; Thiene et al., 2012). Task complexity is closely
24 related to higher levels of uncertainty in the responses, leading to a higher variance of
25 parameter estimates for some respondents. Therefore, the common assumption based on
26 equality of scale may be easily violated because respondents may display different levels
27 of certainty when making choices, even when preferences are homogenous (Lutzeyer
28 et al., 2018), and ignoring this may potentially imply biased estimates (Louviere and
29 Eagle, 2006).

30 Until recently, LC models allowed preferences to differ from class to class, but the error
31 variances were identical over classes (Burke et al., 2015). Modelling scale (i.e.
32 discrimination capacity) through scale adjusted latent class (SALC) modelling was first
33 proposed by Swait (Swait, 1994). The approach introduced by Magidson and Vermunt

1 (2007) was based on an LC model that controls for differences in the error variances
 2 across respondents by using discrete mixing distributions for scale and preference that
 3 allow accounting for some respondents being more consistent than others in their choices
 4 (i.e. existing different scale groups).

5 SALC models assume that each latent preference class may comprise subgroups of
 6 individuals that although within the same class, despite sharing the same preference
 7 structure, may display different levels of uncertainty, thereby belonging to different scale
 8 classes. In this model, respondents are probabilistically allocated to both preference and
 9 scale classes: latent segments that differ in their preference part-worth utilities, and latent
 10 subgroups that differ in their scale parameter. Scale classes (sclasses) are generally
 11 assumed to be independent of the classes, that is, the size of the sclasses is the same across
 12 latent segments. However, this assumption can be relaxed, allowing some segments to
 13 have a higher (lower) percentage of respondents belonging to a scale factor (Magidson
 14 and Vermunt, 2007).

15 In our study, we extended the traditional LC approach of Burton and Rigby (2009) and
 16 deterministically allocated protesters into a single class to avoid explicit consideration of
 17 these non-participants, which may have confounded the underpinning structure of other
 18 preference classes and prevented real segregation into groups (Thiene et al., 2012). We
 19 tested discrete mixture distribution (random parameter LC) approaches where protesters
 20 are identified and deterministically allocated to one class. Furthermore, we explored
 21 whether protest responses were linked to significantly different scale patterns by
 22 considering whether scale is correlated to preference class.

23 We departed from the conditional logit model for the response probabilities (Vermunt y
 24 Magidson, 2005):

$$25 \quad P(y_{it} = m | z_{it}^{att}) = \frac{\exp(\eta_{m|z_{it}})}{\sum_{m'=1}^M \exp(\eta_{m'|z_{it}})} \quad (1)$$

26 Where $\eta_{m|z_{it}}$ is the systematic component in the utility of alternative m for individual i
 27 and choice set t; hence, z^{att} represents attribute levels.

28 The term $\eta_{m|z_{it}}$ is a linear function of an alternative-specific constant β_m^{con} and attribute
 29 effects β_p^{att} (Mc Fadden, 1974), that is,

$$30 \quad \eta_{m|z_{it}} = \beta_m^{con} + \sum_{p=1}^P \beta_p^{att} z_{itmp}^{att} \quad (2)$$

1 In an LC variant of the conditional logit model, we assume that individuals are
 2 probabilistically allocated to different LCs that differ with respect to the β parameters.
 3 Thereby, the choice probabilities depend on class membership (x), and the logit model is
 4 in the following form:

$$5 \quad P(y_{it} = m|x, z_{it}^{att}) = \frac{\exp(\eta_{m|x, z_{it}})}{\sum_{m'=1}^M \exp(\eta_{m'|x, z_{it}})} \quad (3)$$

6 Where $\eta_{m|x, z_{it}}$ is the systematic component in the utility of alternative m at choice set t
 7 because individual i belongs to LC x . The linear model for $\eta_{m|x, z_{it}}$ is

$$8 \quad \eta_{m|x, z_{it}} = \beta_{xm}^{con} + \sum_{p=1}^P \beta_{xp}^{att} z_{itmp}^{att} \quad (4)$$

9 Thereby, the logit regression coefficients are allowed to be class specific. The probability
 10 density associated with the responses of individual i has the following form:

$$11 \quad P(y_i|z_i) = \sum_{x=1}^K P(x) \prod_{t=1}^{T_i} P(y_{it}|x, z_{it}^{att}) \quad (5)$$

12 Where $P(x)$ is the unconditional probability of belonging to class x or, equivalently, the
 13 size of LC x . The T_i repeated choices of individual i are assumed to be independent of
 14 each other on the basis of class membership.

15 We combine the LC with random effects continuous factors to specify the random-
 16 coefficients' conditional logit models. Continuous factor (CF) models have been
 17 proposed as an alternative to hierarchical Bayes (HB) approaches to allow for random
 18 effects, providing a more parsimonious alternative to HB estimations (Magidson et al.,
 19 2005). The CF approach superimposes a factor analytic structure on the variance-
 20 covariance matrix, assuming the coefficients follow multivariate normal distributions. Let
 21 denote the full vector of random factor scores by F_i and F_{di} denote the score of individual
 22 i on random effect number d . When these are included in a model, the structure for $P(y_i|z_i)$
 23 becomes

$$24 \quad P(y_i|z_i) = \sum_{x=1}^K \int_{F_i} f(F_i) P(x|z_i) P(y_i|x, z_i, F_i) dF_i \quad (6)$$

25 Where

$$26 \quad P(y_i|x, z_i, F_i) = \prod_{t=1}^{T_i} P(y_{it}|x, z_{it}^{att}, z_{it}^{pre}, F_i) \quad (7)$$

27 The F_{di} are assumed to be standard normally distributed and mutually independent and
 28 appear in the model for the choices but not in the model for the LCs. Hence, the linear

1 predictor in the model for the choices is expanded with the following additional term
 2 where random effects are defined for the alternative-specific constant and attributes
 3 (except cost), respectively:

$$4 \quad \sum_{d=1}^D \alpha_{xmd}^{com} \cdot F_{di} + \sum_{d=1}^D \sum_{p=1}^P \alpha_{xpd}^{att} \cdot F_{di} \cdot z_{mitp}^{att} \quad (8)$$

5 Where x stands for class membership, m for alternative, and i for individual. A critical
 6 difference with the more standard specification of random effects is that here, each F_{di}
 7 can serve as a random effect for each of the model effects, which yields parsimonious
 8 random-effects covariance structures (Magidson and Vermunt, 2004).

9 Because class memberships are latent, we assume the probability that person i belongs to
 10 a latent preference class x is determined according to the expression:

$$11 \quad Pr_{ix} = \frac{\exp(\theta_{x0} + \theta'_x Z_i)}{\sum_{k=1}^X \exp(\theta_{k0} + \theta'_k Z_n)}, \quad x = 1, \dots, X \quad (9)$$

12 where θ_{q0} is a scalar, Z_n is an R-dimensional vector of individual covariates, and $\theta_q =$
 13 $(\theta_{q1}, \dots, \theta_{qR})$ is a vector of coefficients compatible with Z_n .

14 For scale-extended models, we followed Thiene et al. (2015), Lutzeyer et al. (2018), and
 15 Vermunt (2008) and refer to the interested reader to these publications for the sake of
 16 brevity. Within each x preference class and s scale class, the choice probability for
 17 alternative m in choice set t is a conditional logit:

$$18 \quad Pr_{imt|x,s} = \frac{\exp(\lambda_s \beta'_x X_{imt})}{\sum_{k=1}^M \exp(\lambda_s \beta'_x X_{ikt})}, \quad s = 2, \dots, S \quad (10)$$

19 where β_x is a vector of utility function parameters; X_{imt} is a vector that includes
 20 characteristics of the choice alternative, often interacted with characteristics of the
 21 individual; λ_s is the scale parameter; and M the number of choice alternatives.
 22 Heterogeneity in preferences is given by the discrete range of values that β_x and λ_s can
 23 take, where λ_s is the scale parameter associated with the type I extreme value distributed
 24 random variable error term.

25 Respondents in each s scale class have on average the same degree of determinism in
 26 their choices or the same ability to discriminate their preference using the arguments in
 27 the indirect utility function. Similarly, for each preference class x, all respondents in that
 28 class like all the MBP-related attributes with the same relative taste intensity. We also
 29 include a shared component δ_{xs} across the scale-preference class to account for potential

1 correlation across membership probabilities of scale and classes, that is, we allow for the
 2 following: a higher scale might be positively correlated with preference classes where
 3 selected attributes have utility weights, or vice-versa. To this end, we assume that the
 4 multinomial logit membership probabilities that person i belongs to x preference class
 5 and s scale class are semi-parametric multinomial logit:

$$6 \quad \Pr(i \in x, s) = \frac{\exp(\theta_s + \omega_x + \delta_{x,s})}{\sum_c \sum_s \exp(\theta_s + \omega_x + \delta_{x,s})} \quad (11)$$

7 where each class has a constant for the scale value θ_s and one for the scale value ω_x . As
 8 Thiene et al. (2015) noted, in correlated scale and preference classes, an easy check is that
 9 joint membership probability for scale-preference class c, s is not the product of the
 10 marginal probabilities for membership to scale class and preference class whenever $\delta_{xs} \neq$
 11 0.

12 4 Results

13 4.1 Survey details

14 A sample of 400 respondents with 211 and 189 respondents for rural and urban areas,
 15 respectively, were surveyed in April 2017 through face-to-face questionnaires. The
 16 sample shows representativeness with respect to the total population in terms of gender
 17 and age distribution for rural and urban areas (Table 1).

18 **Table 2. Percentage of gender and age representativeness of the sample**

	SAMPLE	POPULATION	Chi- square
GENDER			
URBAN			
Male	49.73	48.44	P($\chi^2 > 0.125$) = 0.724
Female	50.27	51.56	
RURAL			
Male	46.44	52.2	P($\chi^2 > 1.19$) = 0.275
Female	53.56	49.8	
AGE CLASSES			
URBAN			
20–39	40.10	36.59	P($\chi^2 > 0.983$) = 0.612
40–64	41.71	44.05	
>65	18.18	19.36	
RURAL			
20–39	23.83	29.25	P($\chi^2 > 3.443$) = 0.179
40–64	45.79	44.3	
>65	30.37	26.44	

19

20 We identified 144 respondents as protesters, which is 36% of the total. Protesters were
 21 serial selectors of the SQ option who also chose one of these two options in the debriefing

1 question: ‘I already pay enough taxes, and the government should use that money to fund
2 this type of initiative’ or ‘I would collaborate if the method of raising funds was different’.
3 Zero bidders (i.e. genuine zeros) were those who chose one of the following two options:
4 ‘I do not think any of the proposed measures would have any positive effect’ or ‘Other
5 measures should be implemented to protect the breed’.

6 Chi-square tests were conducted to test for differences between urban and rural
7 subsamples and between protesters and non-protesters: 45% of the rural subsample
8 showed protesting behaviour, and protesters in the urban subsample accounted for 25.7%.
9 Unemployment is significantly higher among urban (9%) compared with rural
10 respondents (6%). Retired people in rural areas peaked at 27% and was 16.6% in urban
11 areas. Most of the low-income group respondents belonged to rural areas (68%).

12 **4.2 Econometric models: preferences and willingness to pay (WTP)**

13 The number of protesters in the sample is high but similar to that attained in other studies
14 (e.g. Hoyos et al., 2012; Valasiuk et al., 2017; Varela et al., 2014a). Removing these
15 observations from econometric estimations can lead to sample selection bias and WTP
16 estimates that are not comparable across surveys (Meyerhoff et al., 2014b).

17 Therefore, we applied a finite mixing approach to manage preference heterogeneity
18 (Burton and Rigby, 2009) while also testing the impact of deterministically allocating
19 protest responses to one class by following Thiene et al. (2012). We tested the impact of
20 deterministic protest response allocation in LC and random parameter LC models. We
21 assume that attributes behave randomly in two ways: a continuous random factor effect
22 for all the classes and a specific random factor component for each class. This
23 specification improves the accuracy of the model since allows isolating the common and
24 specific random factor components. Furthermore, uncertainty in the respondents would
25 be reflected in scale differences and not only preference differences across respondents.
26 SALC models were estimated both for uncorrelated and correlated scale and preference
27 class sizes and for both deterministic and non-deterministic allocation of protesters to one
28 class. Table 3 shows the information criteria and class sizes for the different families of
29 models estimated.

30 LC models considering fixed parameter effects and random parameter effects were
31 estimated ranging from two to six classes. These models were also estimated for
32 deterministic protester allocation. To select our best models between those specifications

1 tested, we used model fit along with model plausibility, the significance of the
2 parameters' estimates and external validity (Hynes et al., 2008; Scarpa y Thiene, 2011).
3 The optimal number of classes was determined in an iterative procedure by comparing
4 models on the basis of Bayesian information criterion (BIC), Akaike information criterion
5 (AIC) and Akaike information criterion 3 (AIC3). The latter, according to Andrews and
6 Currim (2003) is the best-performing criterion when determining the optimal number of
7 classes in logit models, supported by the AIC and BIC. All the models adopt effects
8 coding for all non-monetary parameters. Therefore, the magnitude of the base case level
9 coefficient is assumed to be equal to the negative sum of the utility weights for the other
10 estimated categories (Louviere et al., 2000; Lusk et al., 2003)³.

11 Information on these model fitting and scale estimates are found in Table 3.

12 In both the fixed and random parameter latent class models with free allocation of
13 respondents, the 3-class models provide the best balance between information criteria and
14 plausibility and this also stands for their protester-allocated versions. Based on these
15 outcomes, the scale-adjusted (SALC) models are estimated for 3-class structure to allow
16 for comparability. Among these, the SALC models where correlation is allowed between
17 preference and scale classes provide better performance and hence are selected for
18 reporting (see tables 6 and 7).

19 The models with deterministic protester allocation to one class provide lower
20 performance than their free-allocation counterparts. As noted by Thiene et al. (2012),
21 imposing this type of constraints has significant implications on model performance.

22 The outcome of the random parameter latent class model with free protester allocation is
23 reported in table 4. In this model roughly half of the respondents are allocated to class 1,
24 while class 2 accounts for 27% of the respondents and the remainder 22% are found in
25 class 3.

26 The respondents in class 1 show a general preference for the status quo as indicated by
27 the sign and significance of the ASC. They reject scenarios of low and medium risk for
28 the breed and support the current high risk of extinction level. Also, they support

³ Following Domínguez-Torreiro and Soliño (2011) and Varela et al. (2014), an additional column representing the adjusted marginal utility gains from the base level situation for each of the levels of the effects coded attributes has been included in Tables 4, 5, and 6 to increase the clarity of the interpretation of the results.

1 management changes towards intensification (indoor breeding) and low diversity of tree
2 species. The price attribute is significant and with the expected sign.

3 In contrast, the respondents in class 2 reject the status quo scenario proposed, else things
4 equal, and prefer low risk extinction scenarios for the breed, being this attribute level
5 together with the rejection of indoor breeding, the two attributes that most importantly
6 shape their preferences, followed by a rejection of increased tree species diversity. The
7 monetary attribute is significant and negative as expected.

8 Respondents in class 3 show a general preference for the status quo scenario as indicated
9 by the ASC. The current base levels of high risk of extinction for the breed, outdoor
10 management and low diversity of tree crops contribute to increase their utility. Positive
11 and significant preferences are shown for improving landscape heterogeneity and product
12 variety to high and medium levels, respectively. However, the price attribute shows a
13 positive and significant sign, indicating that these respondents are not trading on the
14 attributes based on their budget restrictions and may be showing yea saying patterns.

15 The overall preference picture in this model shows support for the status quo situation for
16 most attributes. Improving the conservation level for the breed is only supported by 26%
17 of the sample while intensification management patterns are supported by half of the
18 sampled population while low tree diversity is generally favoured. Improvement
19 measures such as increasing landscape and product variety are supported by less than one
20 fourth of the sampled respondents but their response pattern seems to reveal moral
21 concerns rather than trading on budget restrictions. The results of the model show
22 significant cost parameters for all the preference classes while in contrast, one third of the
23 sample was identified as protest responses and accordingly non-significant estimates
24 would be expected for them. Therefore, we hypothesize that the share of protesters may
25 confound the underpinning structure of other preference classes and prevent the real
26 segregation into groups (Thiene et al., 2012).

27 Results for the deterministic protester allocation counterpart model are reported in table
28 5.

29 Class 1, gathers the protest responses that amount 35% of the sample. All the attributes
30 retrieve non-significant values, in accordance with the protesting behaviour of the
31 respondents allocated to it. Respondents in this class show, as expected, no significant

1 parameter estimates and a preference for the status quo situation as indicated by the sign
2 and significance of the ASC.

3 Class 2 accounts for 41% of the sample. ASC estimates indicate that *ceteris paribus*,
4 respondents in this group prefer alternative scenarios to the status quo. Improving the
5 conservation status for the breed does not shape the preferences of respondents in this
6 group, similarly to diversity at the (tree) species and landscape level. Combined indoor
7 and outdoor management is supported by this group, and indoors breeding is rejected.
8 Regarding product variety, respondents in this group significantly support high-variety
9 options for MBP products and reject the low variety current situation. The cost attribute
10 retrieves significant estimates and with the expected sign.

11 Class 3 accounts for 24% of respondents that show a significant positive willingness to
12 select alternative scenarios, rejecting the SQ scenario. Regarding breed survival,
13 respondents significantly support the low risk extinction option. They also demonstrate
14 support for traditional outdoor management and reject mixed indoor-outdoor and indoor
15 options. The high tree diversity level contributes to positively shape their preferences
16 while landscape and product diversity retrieve non-significant estimates. Finally, the cost
17 attribute is negative and significant.

18 The free and deterministic allocated SALC models are shown in Tables 6 and 7. In both
19 models the *sclass2* accounts for the lower scale estimates (and hence higher estimate
20 variance).

21 The free allocated SALC model accounts for more than half of the sample in preference
22 class 1. Utility of individuals in this class is only shaped by the ASC, retrieves negative
23 and significant estimates for non-status quo scenarios. Class 2 accounts for 12% of the
24 respondents. Utility of respondents in this group is *ceteris paribus* reduced by the status
25 quo scenario. The high risk extinction level reduced the utility of respondents while they
26 show positive and significant estimates for medium and low risk extinction levels. The
27 management attribute also contributes to shape the preferences of respondents in this
28 group, with positive estimates for combined outdoor-indoor management. Increasing tree
29 diversity up to three species and product availability to medium level also contribute to
30 increase their utility. Finally, this is the only class showing significant estimates for the
31 cost attribute. Class 3 in this model accounts for roughly one third of the sample that
32 would favour alternative scenarios to the status quo for breed and tree diversity. The scale

1 structure of this model reveals that 40% of the sample belongs to sclass2, holding a lower
2 scale parameter and hence higher estimate variance than respondents in sclass1. Most of
3 these respondents (28% of the total sample) are found in preference class 2.

4 The SALC model with deterministic allocation of protesters to preference class 1,
5 distributes 28% of respondents to class 2 and the remainder 37% in class 3. Respondents
6 in class 2 reject alternative scenarios to the status quo. Only outdoor management
7 significantly determines their preferences together with the cost of the proposed
8 alternatives. Class 3 shows a broader range of attributes defining respondents' preferences
9 and an overall preference for scenarios alternative to the status quo. Low risk extinction
10 level and improved tree and landscape diversity increase their utility. The sample is
11 distributed approximately in halves between sclass1 and 2. Respondents in sclass2 are
12 mostly found in preference class 3, the one with a wider range of attributes determining
13 their preferences.

14 Following the recommendation by Davis et al. (2019), we also report in Appendix 2 the
15 results of the SALC correlated models renormalised so that sclass2 takes the value of 1
16 for its scale parameters.

1 Table 3. Information criteria values of the estimated models

	MODEL	LL	BIC	AIC	AIC3	NPar	R2	CLASS SIZES
1	CL	-2275,1042	4628,0975	4576,2084	4589,2084	13	0.0245	
2	RPL	-1243,8189	2643,4158	2539,6377	2565,6377	26	0.6376	
LATENT CLASS MODELS (fixed effects)								
3	2CLASS	-1289,3235	2740,4165	2632,6469	2659,6469	27	0.5682	0,5412 0,4588
4	3CLASS	-1213,7015	2673,0530	2509,4030	2550,4030	41	0.6256	0,5268 0,3075 0,1657
5	4CLASS	-1180,1984	2689,9273	2470,3967	2525,3967	55	0,6620	0,5266 0,2939 0,1017 0,0778
6	5CLASS	-1152,3080	2718,0271	2442,6160	2511,6160	69	0,7035	0,5265 0,2190 0,0996 0,0805 0,0745
7	6CLASS	-1128,8133	2754,9181	2423,6265	2506,6265	83	0,7327	0,5263 0,1765 0,1334 0,0782 0,0459 0,0397
ALLOCATED LATENT CLASS MODELS (fixed effects)								
8	2CLASS	-1937,0023	4035,7741	3928,0046	3955,0046	27	0,2780	0,3554 0,6446
9	3CLASS	-1446,5309	3138,7119	2975,0618	3016,0618	41	0,5643	0,3549 0,4455 0,1995
10	4CLASS	-1446,7750	32A23,0806	3003,5501	3058,5501	55	0,5643	0,3547 0,4453 0,1993 0,0006
11	5CLASS	-1446,9223	3307,2556	3031,8445	3100,8445	69	0,5643	0,3546 0,4452 0,1992 0,0005 0,0005
12	6CLASS	-1447,0208	3391,3331	3060,0415	3143,0415	83	0,5643	0,3545 0,4451 0,1991 0,0004 0,0004 0,0004
RANDOM EFFECTS LATENT CLASS MODELS								
13	2CLASS	-1144,6667	2666,7956	2415,3334	2478,3334	63	0.7804	0,7900 0,2100
14	3CLASS	-1104,4930	2742,2264	2386,9860	2475,9860	89	0.8376	0,5131 0,2689 0,2180
15	4CLASS	-1067,9087	2824,8358	2365,8174	2480,8174	115	0.9017	0,4236 0,3453 0,1241 0,1071
16	5CLASS	-1031,0742	2906,9449	2344,1484	2485,1484	141	0.9319	0,3750 0,1828 0,1791 0,1509 0,1122
17	6CLASS	-1025,8659	3052,3064	2385,7318	2552,7318	167	0.9187	0,5454 0,1404 0,1093 0,0810 0,0626 0,0613
ALLOCATED RANDOM EFFECTS LATENT CLASS MODELS								
18	2CLASS	-1333,2585	3043,9793	2792,5170	2855,5170	63	0,7107	0,3554 0,6446
19	3CLASS	-1276,6573	3086,5550	2731,3147	2820,3147	89	0,8057	0,3549 0,4083 0,2367
20	4CLASS	-1237,7119	3164,4422	2705,4237	2820,4237	115	0,8486	0,3547 0,4157 0,1317 0,0979
21	5CLASS	-1203,5655	3251,9274	2689,1309	2830,1309	141	0,8813	0,3546 0,2778 0,1923 0,0906 0,0846
22	6CLASS	-1178,6313	3357,8372	2691,2626	2858,2626	167	0,9170	0,3545 0,2158 0,1964 0,0996 0,0768 0,0569

SALC UNCORRELATED class and sclass								
23	3CLASS Sclass1=0	-1191,8239	2641,2807	2469,6477	2512,6477	43	0,6595	sclass Class 1 2 1 2 3 0,8958 0,1042 0,5707 0,3577 0,0716
SALC CORRELATED class and sclass								
24	3class Sclass1=0 Sclass2=-2.6202	-1188,7543	2641,1331	2465,5086	2509,5086	44	0,6837	sclass Class 1 2 1 2 3 0,5991 0,4009 0,5624 0,1197 0,3179 sclass 1 1 1 2 2 2 Class 1 2 3 1 2 3 0,5161 0,0509 0,0344 0,0464 0,0688 0,2835
ALLOCATED SALC UNCORRELATED class and sclass*								
25	3CLASS	-1390,3691	3038,3711	2866,7381	2909,7381	43	0,6083	sclass1 sclass2 class1 class2 class3 0,8985 0,1015 0,3549 0,2763 0,3687
ALLOCATED SALC CORRELATED class and sclass								
26	3CLASS Sclass1=0 Sclass2=-2,8026	-1385,0366	3033,6977	2858,0733	2902,0733	44	0,6022	sclass1 sclass2 class1 class2 class3 0,5249 0,4751 0,3549 0,2763 0,3687 sclass 1 1 1 2 2 2 Class 1 2 3 1 2 3 0,3515 0,1712 0,0022 0,0035 0,1051 0,3665

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1 Table 4. Random parameter latent 3-class model with free allocation of protesters

		Class 1			Class 2			Class 3			Wald	p value
Class Size		0.5131			0.2689			0.2180				
		Parameters	z value	Adj ^a	Parameters	z value	Adj ^a	Parameters	z value	Adj ^a		
ASC	Status Quo	4.8570	5.4286		5.0909	2.0945		3.2356	2.1377		36.6277	0.000
	Alternative A	-1.9295	-4.2287	-6.7865	-3.0659	-2.2115	-8.1568	-0.9361	-1.0399	-4.1717		
	Alternative B	-2.9274	-5.8949	-7.7844	-2.0250	-1.3709	-7.1159	-2.2995	-3.0373	-5.5351		
EXIST	H_RISK*	1.6210	3.1319		-5.7802	-3.0553		6.6760	5.3421		36.9396	0.000
	M_RISK	0.7343	2.5617	-0.8867	-1.0647	-0.9992	4.7155	-1.1225	-1.7546	-7.7985		
	L_RISK	-2.3553	-4.2295	-3.9763	6.8449	3.1029	12.6251	-5.5535	-5.5562	-12.2295		
MNG	OUTDOOR*	0.5025	-1.2350		6.6979	4.0542		1.3014	1.5929		37.4360	0.000
	OUT-IN DOOR	-1.2838	-1.7306	-1.7863	-0.2010	-0.0846	-6.8989	1.1159	1.0585	-0.1855		
	INDOOR	1.7863	3.2319	1.2838	-6.4969	-2.6804	-13.1948	-2.4173	-3.0594	-3.7187		
TSP	1*	1.2002	1.7684		6.6034	2.1725		2.5769	2.0378		20.0091	0.003
	2	-0.8846	-1.4847	-2.0848	-4.4439	-2.6589	-11.0473	-5.4037	-3.6422	-7.9806		
	3	-0.3156	-0.6371	-1.5158	-2.1596	-0.6969	-8.763	2.8267	2.8504	0.2498		
LAND	LOW*	-0.0188	-0.0373		0.8388	0.4667		-1.4553	-1.3378		14.9468	0.021
	MEDIUM	-0.4419	-1.0849	-0.4231	-3.1001	-1.2521	-3.9389	-1.6230	-2.2792	-0.1677		
	HIGH	0.4607	0.8280	0.4795	2.2613	0.6418	1.4225	3.0782	2.9500	4.5335		
PROD	LOW*	0.4545	1.4158		1.0398	0.9549		-3.1120	-3.5445		18.8118	0.005
	MEDIUM	-0.3130	-0.6892	-0.7675	-1.5719	-1.2963	-2.6117	2.0978	1.7084	5.2098		
	HIGH	-0.1415	-0.3668	-0.596	0.5321	0.4565	-0.5077	1.0143	1.1072	4.1263		
PRICE		-0.0264	-3.2117		-0.3080	-4.7607		0.0634	2.1573		33.6257	0.000
Continuous random Factor 1 (SDPD per Class)												
ASC	Status Quo	5.8367	5.0315		10.8536	4.4596		2.1251	1.8101		32.8918	0.000
	Alternative A	-2.7613	-4.7664		-6.6976	-4.3760		-0.5896	-0.7633			
	Alternative B	-3.0753	-5.1218		-4.1559	-3.3085		-1.5355	-2.8256			
EXIST	H_RISK	-0.2276	-0.7767		10.4301	5.3441		2.7080	2.9662		32.9835	0.000
	M_RISK	0.3667	1.5990		-7.5119	-4.9229		1.2114	2.0439			
	L_RISK	-0.1391	-0.7046		-2.9182	-2.4668		-3.9194	-4.2473			
MNG	OUTDOOR	-0.0387	-0.1560		0.5282	0.4482		-2.9634	-3.8821		30.2102	0.000
	OUT-IN DOOR	0.7082	2.0365		8.0121	3.0420		2.5152	2.6337			
	INDOOR	-0.6695	-2.8516		-8.5404	-3.6743		0.4482	0.6928			

TSP	1	-0.6047	-1.7535		1.2684	0.6309		-0.2764	-0.3392		22.7919	0.001
	2	0.1007	0.3435		-3.7460	-2.4867		4.7388	4.1255			
	3	0.5040	1.6306		2.4776	1.3233		-4.4624	-4.1089			
LAND	LOW	-0.0018	-0.0056		-3.0919	-1.8637		-1.6355	-2.1376		30.1617	0.000
	MEDIUM	0.5371	2.1769		6.7046	3.7833		-2.4856	-3.4861			
	HIGH	-0.5354	-1.8382		-3.6127	-1.6061		4.1211	3.8570			
PROD	LOW	-0.3081	-1.4135		-0.6034	-0.6473		2.8731	3.6056		24.1258	0.001
	MEDIUM	-0.0034	-0.0100		-3.8063	-2.8737		-6.4050	-4.3186			
	HIGH	0.3116	1.1551		4.4098	3.4322		3.5319	3.7477			
Continuous random Factor 2 (Common SDPD)												
ASC	Status Quo	15.0007	5.8587								41.0876	0.000
	Alternative A	-6.4682	-5.1585									
	Alternative B	-8.5324	-6.2587									
EXIST	H_RISK	4.4632	4.6444								26.0879	0.000
	M_RISK	1.0667	2.2975									
	L_RISK	-5.5300	-5.1072									
MNG	OUTDOOR	-0.4543	-0.6391								11.5025	0.0032
	OUT-IN DOOR	-2.7519	-1.9560									
	INDOOR	3.2062	3.0607									
TSP	1	3.2930	2.6797								7.3746	0.025
	2	-1.8044	-1.6209									
	3	-1.4886	-1.6834									
LAND	LOW	-0.1939	-0.2227								4.0797	0.13
	MEDIUM	-1.3445	-1.8567									
	HIGH	1.5384	1.6063									
PROD	LOW	0.9631	1.7953								3.3008	0.19
	MEDIUM	-0.5361	-0.7017									
	HIGH	-0.4271	-0.6419									

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* Base-level situation for the effects-coded attributes.

^a Adjusted marginal utility gains from the base-level situation for the effects-coded attributes.

1 Table 5. Random parameter latent 3-class model with deterministic protester allocation

		Class 1- protesters			Class 2			Class 3			Wald	p value
Class Size		0.3549			0.4083			0.2367				
		Parameters	z value	Adj ^a	Parameters	z value	Adj ^a	Parameters	z value	Adj ^a		
ASC	Status Quo	19.0363	2.6698		-0.7699	-1.8842		-4.9580	-3.6240		28.7014	0.000
	Alternative A	-5.7077	-1.1490	-24.744	0.4058	1.8730	1.1757	2.1114	2.8637	7.0694		
	Alternative B	-13.3285	-3.0832	-32.3648	0.3640	1.5867	1.1339	2.8466	4.2353	7.8046		
EXIST	H_RISK*	4.6591	0.9671		-0.1071	-0.4490		-5.0138	-6.1905		41.6397	0.000
	M_RISK	-1.6958	-0.2347	-6.3549	0.0600	0.3279	0.1671	-0.5435	-1.2748	4.4703		
	L_RISK	-2.9633	-0.6032	-7.6224	0.0470	0.1891	0.1541	5.5573	5.8979	10.5711		
MNG	OUTDOOR*	-0.4404	-0.0763		-0.0335	-0.1419		4.2437	5.3543		36.3947	0.000
	OUT-IN DOOR	1.2314	0.1580	1.6718	0.7687	2.8357	0.8022	1.4584	1.9830	-2.7853		
	INDOOR	-0.7910	-0.1653	-0.3506	-0.7352	-3.2830	-0.7017	-5.7022	-4.9582	-9.9459		
TSP	1*	5.8884	0.7180		0.1463	0.4301		-0.5971	-1.1652		17.7957	0.007
	2	-4.6912	-0.6811	-10.5796	-0.5382	-1.4786	-0.6845	-1.4391	-2.5836	-0.842		
	3	-1.1971	-0.1904	-7.0855	0.3919	1.5255	0.2456	2.0362	3.4690	2.6333		
LAND	LOW*	-3.7997	-0.5472		-0.0643	-0.1838		-0.4463	-0.9733		3.4050	0.76
	MEDIUM	0.7791	0.1542	4.5788	0.2564	1.1391	0.3207	0.3986	0.9719	0.8449		
	HIGH	3.0206	0.3225	6.8203	-0.1921	-0.6316	-0.1278	0.0477	0.1007	0.4940		
PROD	LOW*	-0.1191	-0.0291		-0.4808	-2.2808		0.4661	1.3217		10.1363	0.12
	MEDIUM	1.0016	0.1802	1.1207	-0.0774	-0.3475	0.4034	-0.2485	-0.6702	-0.7146		
	HIGH	-0.8825	-0.1160	-0.7634	0.5582	2.7166	1.039	-0.2176	-0.6092	-0.6837		
PRICE		-0.0498	-0.3882		-0.0206	-2.6068		-0.0460	-2.5089		13.7753	0.003
Continuous random Factor 1 (SDPD per Class)												
ASC	Status Quo	5.0775	1.1877		7.8698	6.6481		5.6553	3.5651		52.0443	0.000
	Alternative A	-0.5168	-0.1573		-3.7052	-6.3225		-1.4589	-1.6030			
	Alternative B	-4.5607	-1.8168		-4.1646	-6.7146		-4.1964	-5.2661			
EXIST	H_RISK	2.0534	0.6183		0.4453	1.7760		2.8703	3.7281		44.3231	0.000
	M_RISK	0.1068	0.0250		0.3183	1.6206		3.1759	4.5554			
	L_RISK	-2.1602	-0.6505		-0.7636	-3.1842		-6.0462	-5.4089			
MNG	OUTDOOR	-0.0352	-0.0117		0.0560	0.2031		-0.8670	-1.2727		23.7182	0.001
	OUT-IN DOOR	-0.9454	-0.2275		1.1221	2.9792		-1.1987	-1.1444			
	INDOOR	0.9806	0.2996		-1.1781	-4.1372		2.0657	2.4470			

TSP	1	7.4108	1.4238		-0.3758	-1.1384		0.5447	0.6067		17.4746	0.008
	2	-2.0151	-0.4945		0.6363	1.7412		1.5896	2.0242			
	3	-5.3957	-1.1091		-0.2605	-0.8194		-2.1343	-3.2546			
LAND	LOW	-7.7913	-1.7565		-0.1556	-0.4599		0.8109	0.9275		27.8487	0.000
	MEDIUM	1.3255	0.3663		0.7720	2.7845		-3.3593	-4.2160			
	HIGH	6.4658	1.0883		-0.6164	-2.1214		2.5484	2.7160			
PROD	LOW	0.5862	0.2234		-0.7460	-2.9902		0.4678	1.0902		32.3070	0.000
	MEDIUM	0.5181	0.1720		0.0529	0.1519		2.5551	4.1048			
	HIGH	-1.1043	-0.2637		0.6931	2.3179		-3.0229	-4.7683			
Continuous random Factor 2 (Common SDPD)												
ASC	Status Quo	6.2917	5.8069								33.8213	0.000
	Alternative A	-3.1384	-5.6552									
	Alternative B	-3.1533	-5.7675									
EXIST	H_RISK	0.0255	0.1052								0.0270	0.99
	M_RISK	0.0222	0.0916									
	L_RISK	-0.0477	-0.1642									
MNG	OUTDOOR	0.1856	0.7322								8.7514	0.013
	OUT-IN DOOR	0.7648	2.1480									
	INDOOR	-0.9504	-2.9583									
TSP	1	0.7867	2.3647								6.5024	0.039
	2	-0.8182	-2.2793									
	3	0.0314	0.1101									
LAND	LOW	0.1219	0.3600								0.9353	0.63
	MEDIUM	0.1300	0.5873									
	HIGH	-0.2520	-0.8540									
PROD	LOW	-0.0621	-0.2625								0.1451	0.93
	MEDIUM	0.1053	0.3772									
	HIGH	-0.0432	-0.1809									

1

* Base-level situation for the effects-coded attributes.

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^a Adjusted marginal utility gains from the base-level situation for the effects-coded attributes.

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Table 6. Scale-adjusted latent class (SALC) model with free allocation of protesters that allows for correlated preference and class size

	CLASS 1	CLASS 2	CLASS 3	OVERALL
--	---------	---------	---------	---------

Preference Class Size	0.5624	0.1197					0.3179						
PREFERENCE CLASS MODEL PARAMETERS													
		Parameters	z value	Adj ^a	Parameters	z value	Adj ^a	Parameters	z value	Adj ^a	Wald	p-value	
ASC	Status Quo*	5.4018	1.5965	5	-2.9042	-1.8158		-34.4538	-3.4393		13.285	0.010	
	Alternative A	-1.1864	-0.6174	-6.5882	1.2120	1.1595	4.1162	15.5098	3.3417	49.9636			
	Alternative B	-4.2155	-1.9278	-9.6173	1.6923	1.6186	4.5965	18.9441	3.4932	53.3979			
EXIST	H_RISK*	2.9819	1.2094		-6.8304	-2.9604		-6.0920	-2.7628		12.163	0.016	
	M_RISK	-5.1354	-1.5268	-8.1173	2.8534	2.3680	9.6838	-0.1635	-0.1788	5.9285			
	L_RISK	2.1534	0.6449	-0.8285	3.9770	2.5162	10.8074	6.2555	3.2181	12.3475			
MNG	OUTDOOR*	2.6494	0.7618		-1.9770	-1.9027		0.4950	0.3696		6.812	0.15	
	OUT-IN DOOR	-4.0796	-0.7587	-6.729	5.7313	2.6282	7.7083	-1.1060	-0.6399	-1.601			
	INDOOR	1.4302	0.5674	-1.2192	-3.7543	-2.6162	-1.7773	0.6109	0.5006	0.1159			
TSP	1*	-0.1431	-0.0520		-0.8243	-0.6497		0.7901	0.3718		0.599	0.96	
	2	-2.1610	-0.9019	-2.0179	-2.5872	-1.8714	-1.7629	-3.3088	-1.4899	-4.0989			
	3	2.3041	1.1815	2.4472	3.4115	2.4376	4.2358	2.5188	1.8941	1.7287			
LAND	LOW*	-1.8673	-0.6551		1.9600	1.4037		0.7302	0.4121		6.908	0.14	
	MEDIUM	2.1259	1.0368	3.9932	0.7500	0.9652	-1.21	-3.2239	-2.1563	-3.9541			
	HIGH	-0.2586	-0.0782	1.6087	-2.7100	-1.7435	-4.67	2.4937	1.3672	1.7635			
PROD	LOW*	-1.5562	-0.9423		-1.7048	-1.7712		0.7458	0.7854		6.260	0.18	
	MEDIUM	-1.4580	-0.9894	0.0982	2.9095	1.8938	4.6143	-2.0887	-1.6461	1.3429			
	HIGH	3.0142	1.3335	4.5704	-1.2048	-1.4146	0.5	1.3429	1.2015	0.5971			
PRICE	-0.0615	-0.3632		-0.3568	-3.0784		-0.0551	-0.7957		5.098	0.078		
SCALE MODEL PARAMETERS													
sClass1 (ln λ_1)	0.0000										107.589	0.000	
sClass2 (ln λ_2)	-2.6202	-10.3725											
sCLASS SIZE													
sClass1	0.5991												
sClass2	0.4009												
CLASS AND SCLASS													
Sclass	1	1	1	2	2	2							
Class	1	2	3	1	2	3							
ClassSize	0.5161	0.0509	0.0344	0.0464	0.0688	0.2835							

CLASS AND SCLASS COVARIANCES/ASSOCIATIONS						
sclass(1)<-> Class(1)	0.0000				54.0009	0.000
sclass(1)<-> Class(2)	0.0000					
sclass(1)<-> Class(3)	0.0000					
sclass(2)<-> Class(1)	-2.4098	-6.9206				
sclass(2)<-> Class(2)	0.3004	0.7898				
sclass(2)<-> Class(3)	2.1095	5.4370				

* Base-level situation for the effects-coded attributes.

^a Adjusted marginal utility gains from the base-level situation for the effects-coded attributes.

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4 Table 7. Scale-adjusted latent class (SALC) model with deterministic allocation of protesters that allows for correlated preference and class size

		CLASS 1			CLASS 2			CLASS 3			OVERALL	
Preference Class Size		0.3549			0.2763			0.3687				
PREFERENCE CLASS MODEL PARAMETERS												
		Parameters	z value	Adj ^a	Parameters	z value	Adj ^a	Parameters	z value	Adj ^a	Wald	p-value
ASC	Status Quo*	3.5314	1.1113		3.6627	1.1405		-35.2164	-3.4233		14.7477	0.022
	Alternative A	-0.0143	-0.0060	-3.5457	-0.7506	-0.3480	-4.4133	15.4970	3.2725	50.7134		
	Alternative B	-3.5171	-1.6217	-7.0485	-2.9122	-1.6664	-6.5749	19.7195	3.5006	54.9359		
EXIST	H_RISK*	2.0939	0.6031		-2.4469	-0.8274		-9.9121	-3.0943		11.2836	0.80
	M_RISK	-1.4713	-0.3895	-3.5652	0.5189	0.2692	2.9658	0.8970	0.7365	10.8091		
	L_RISK	-0.6227	-0.2108	-2.7166	1.9279	0.9870	4.3748	9.0151	3.2801	18.9272		
MNG	OUTDOOR*	-0.3159	-0.1015		3.9119	1.6953		0.7506	0.4461		3.4541	0.75
	OUT-IN DOOR	0.2390	0.0552	0.5549	1.1005	0.4361	-2.8114	-0.3328	-0.1393	-1.0834		
	INDOOR	0.0769	0.0267	0.3928	-5.0124	-1.5128	-8.9243	-0.4178	-0.2582	-1.1684		
TSP	1*	1.1350	0.1976		0.8985	-0.2648		1.1546	0.4750		4.6694	0.59
	2	-2.9451	-0.5811	-4.0801	0.2725	0.1033	-0.626	-4.6422	-1.7737	-5.7968		
	3	1.8101	0.3287	0.6751	0.6259	0.3273	-0.2726	3.4876	1.7716	2.333		
LAND	LOW*	0.4331	0.1038		0.6433	0.2325		-1.3135	-0.5912		4.1942	0.65
	MEDIUM	0.9414	0.2706	0.5083	-0.7350	-0.5373	-1.3783	-2.9138	-1.5612	-1.6003		
	HIGH	-1.3744	-0.2017	-1.8075	0.0917	0.0299	-0.5516	4.2274	1.8254	5.5409		
PROD	LOW*	-0.4029	-0.2011		-0.6511	-0.3955		-0.0342	-0.0267		2.5932	0.86
	MEDIUM	0.8025	0.3679	1.2054	0.1551	0.1066	0.8062	2.4953	-1.2608	2.5295		

	HIGH	-0.3996	-0.1175	0.0033	0.4960	0.2737	1.1471	2.5295	1.4880	2.5637		
PRICE		-0.0475	-0.3097		-0.2005	-2.0103		-0.2114	-2.0817		6.7985	0.079
SCALE MODEL PARAMETERS												
sClass1 (ln λ_1)		0.000									117.4987	0.000
sClass2 (ln λ_2)		-2.8026	-10.8397									
sCLASS SIZE												
sClass1		0.5249										
sClass2		0.4751										
CLASS AND SCLASS SIZES												
Sclass		1	1	1	2	2	2					
Class		1	2	3	1	2	3					
ClassSize		0.3515	0.1712	0.0022	0.0035	0.1051	0.3665					
CLASS AND SCLASS COVARIANCES/ASSOCIATIONS												
sclass(1)<-> Class(1)		0.0000									29,7370	0.000
sclass(1)<-> Class(2)		0.0000										
sclass(1)<-> Class(3)		0.0000										
sclass(2)<-> Class(1)		-4.6134	-5.0768									
sclass(2)<-> Class(2)		-0.4875	-2.1486									
sclass(2)<-> Class(3)		5.1010	5.4065									

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* Base-level situation for the effects-coded attributes.
^a Adjusted marginal utility gains from the base-level situation for the effects-coded attributes.

1 The marginal WTP estimates and the confidence intervals for the free allocation model
2 are reported in Table 8 and Figure 2 while their counterparts for the deterministic model
3 are reported in Table 9 and Figure 3, respectively. Unconditional mean estimates are
4 obtained by averaging the mean WTP estimates across classes using posterior
5 probabilities as weights and considering significance of estimates (Hensher et al., 2015).
6 Inspecting these unconditional estimates, disparities across the two models are wide. For
7 example, reducing the risk of breed extinction to low levels reduces the utility of
8 respondents in the free allocation model so that respondents on average should be
9 compensated for achieving it (-18.35 €/household) while in the deterministic allocation
10 model this attribute level holds the highest contribution to increase respondents utility
11 (93.92 €/household), mostly related to the high estimate obtains for this level by
12 respondents in class 3. Another illustration of these differences across models are seen in
13 estimates across model approaches arises in the indoor management attribute estimates,
14 reporting significant and high disutility in the deterministic allocation model (-65.09
15 €/household) versus positive estimates retrieved in the free allocation model.

16

1 Table 8. Marginal Willingness to Pay estimates for the RLC free allocation and the confidence interval model (€/year household)

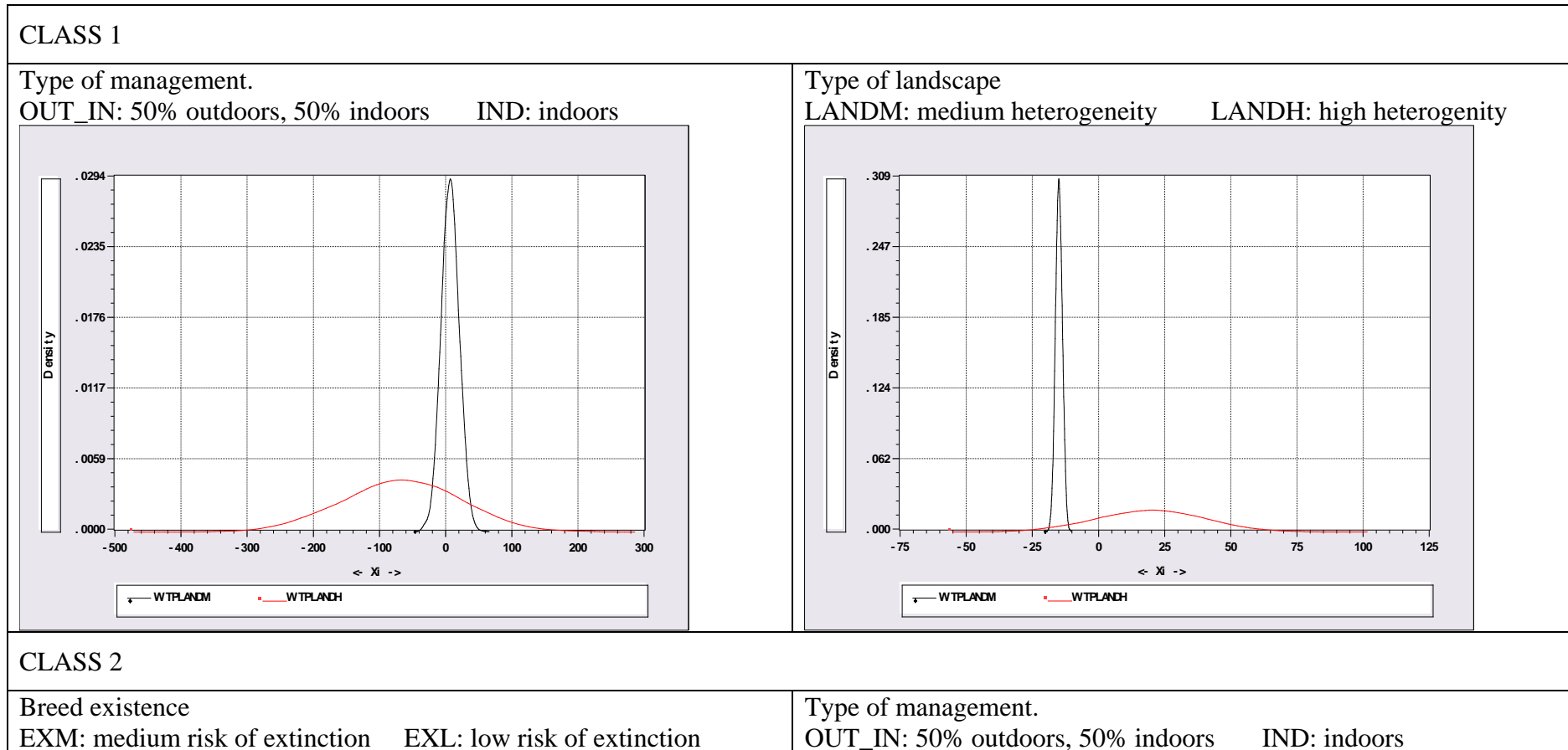
Attributes	Levels	Class 1		Class 2		Class 3		Unconditional mean estimates (considering class size and significance)
		Mean	95% CI	Mean	95% CI	Mean	95% CI	Mean
EXIST	M_RISK	-33.53**	(23.00; 44.93)	15.31	(-11.96; 41.92)	122.97*	(90.89; 155.28)	9.60
	L_RISK	- 150.37**	(-143.79; -157.94)	40.99***	(17.24; 62.43)	192.85**	(141.31; 243.00)	-24.09
MNG	OUT-IN DOOR	--67.66	(-86.34; --48.22)	-22.40	(-4.42; -41.03)	2.93	(-39.34; 42.16)	ns
	INDOOR	48.63	(31.00; 65.94)	- 42.84***	(-24.84; -61.39)	58.64**	(28.91; 91.19)	1.26
TSP	2	-78.84	(-63.18; -94.97)	-35.87**	(-27.04; -44.36)	125.84	(74.78; 174.53)	-9.64
	3	-57.33	(-36.34; -77.90)	-28.45	(-22.47; -34.82)	-3.94*	(-48.40; 41.71)	-0.86
LAND	MEDIUM	-16.00	(-2.44; -28.38)	-12.79	(4.04; -29.35)	2.64**	(-29.87; 34.96)	0.58
	HIGH	18.13	(5.92; 31.45)	4.62	(-5.87; 15.52)	-71.49**	(-22.81; 117.11)	-15.58
PROD	MEDIUM	-29.02	(-21.06; -37.19)	-8.48	(0.02; -17.35)	-82.15	(-7.05; -159.86)	ns
	HIGH	-22.54	(-12.21; -33.84)	-1.65	(-1.69; 8.19)	-65.07	(-15.22; 113.02)	ns

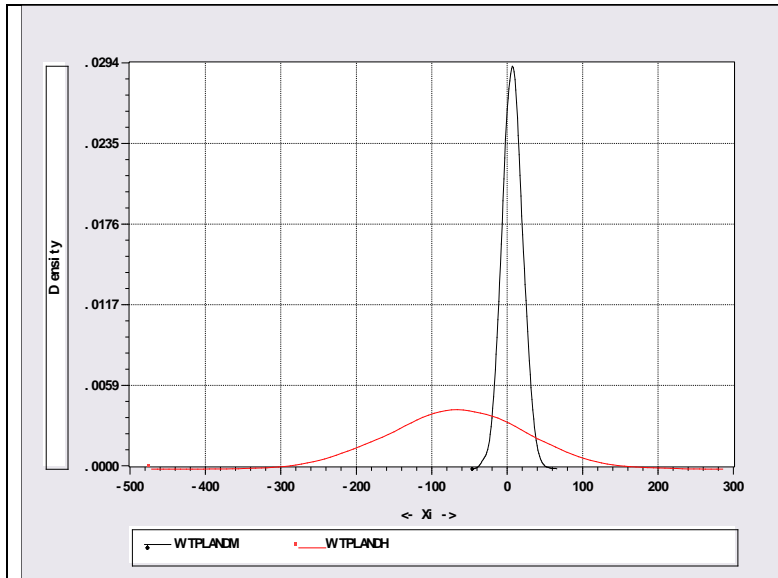
2 *p < 0.10 **p < 0.05 ***p < 0.01

3

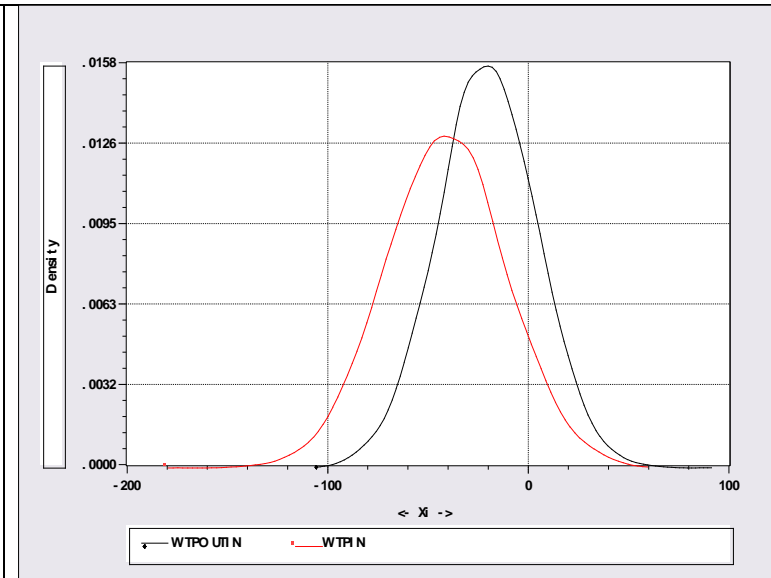
4

- 1
- 2 Figure 2. Kernel density functions of mWTP (€/year household) estimates per attribute and class for **RLC free allocation** model for significant
- 3 standard deviations in per class specific parameters.

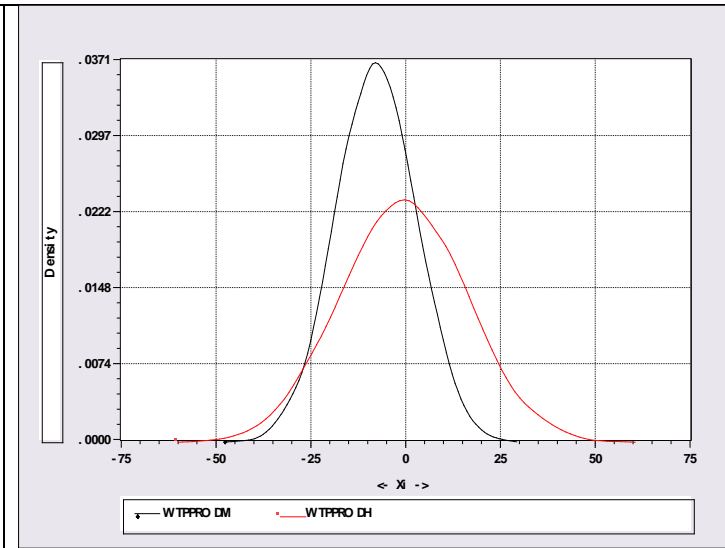
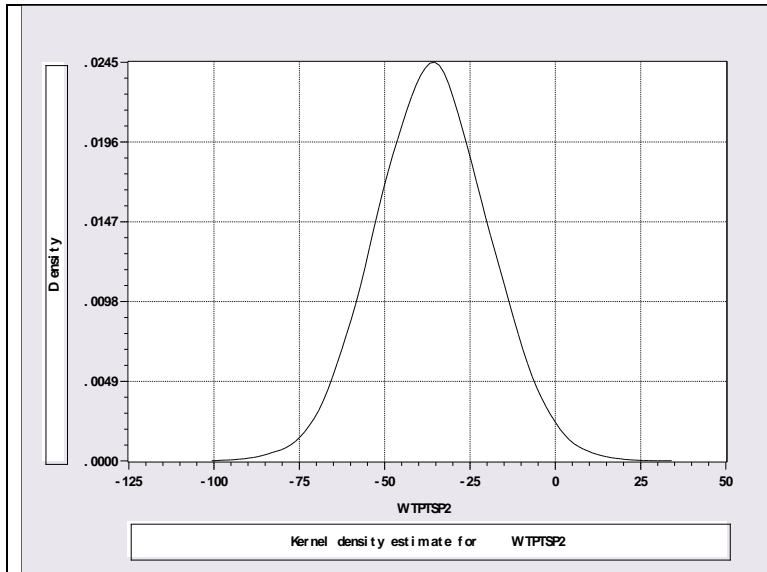




Tree crops
TSP2: 2 tree species, medium variety



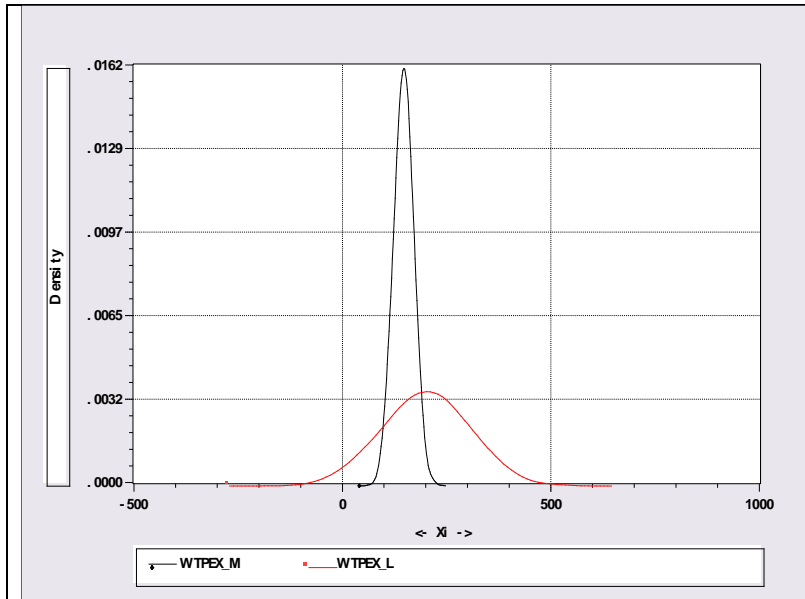
Product variety
PRODM: Medium product variety PRODH: High product variety



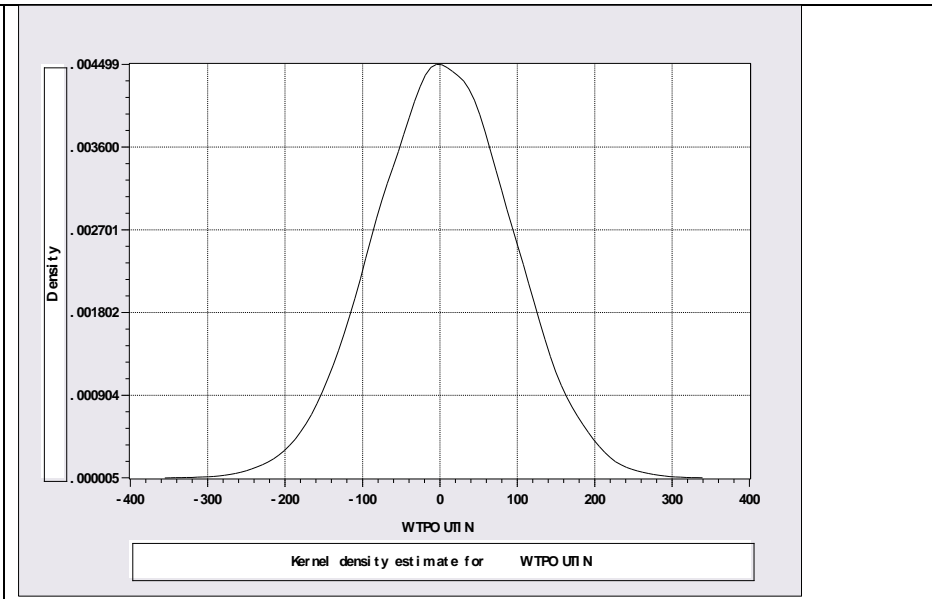
CLASS 3

Breed existence
 EXM: medium risk of extinction EXL: low risk of extinction

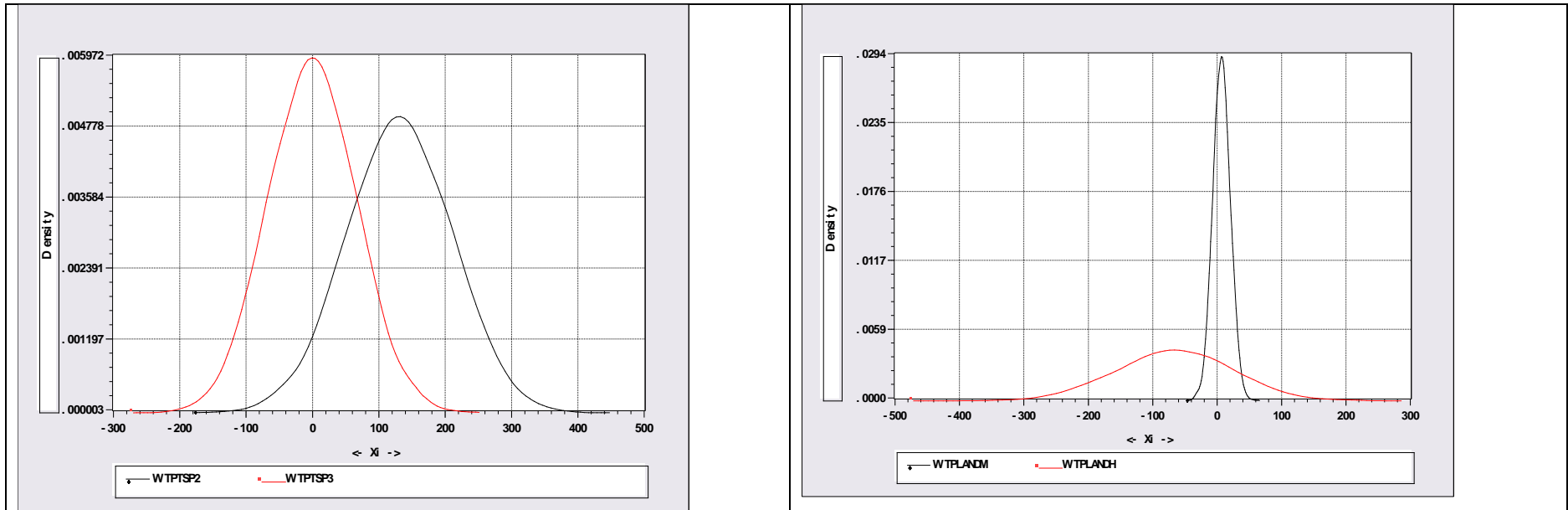
Type of management.
 OUT_IN: 50% outdoors



Tree crops
 TSP2: 2 tree species, medium variety TSP3: 3 species, high variety



Type of landscape
 LANDM: medium heterogeneity LANDH: high heterogeneity



1

2

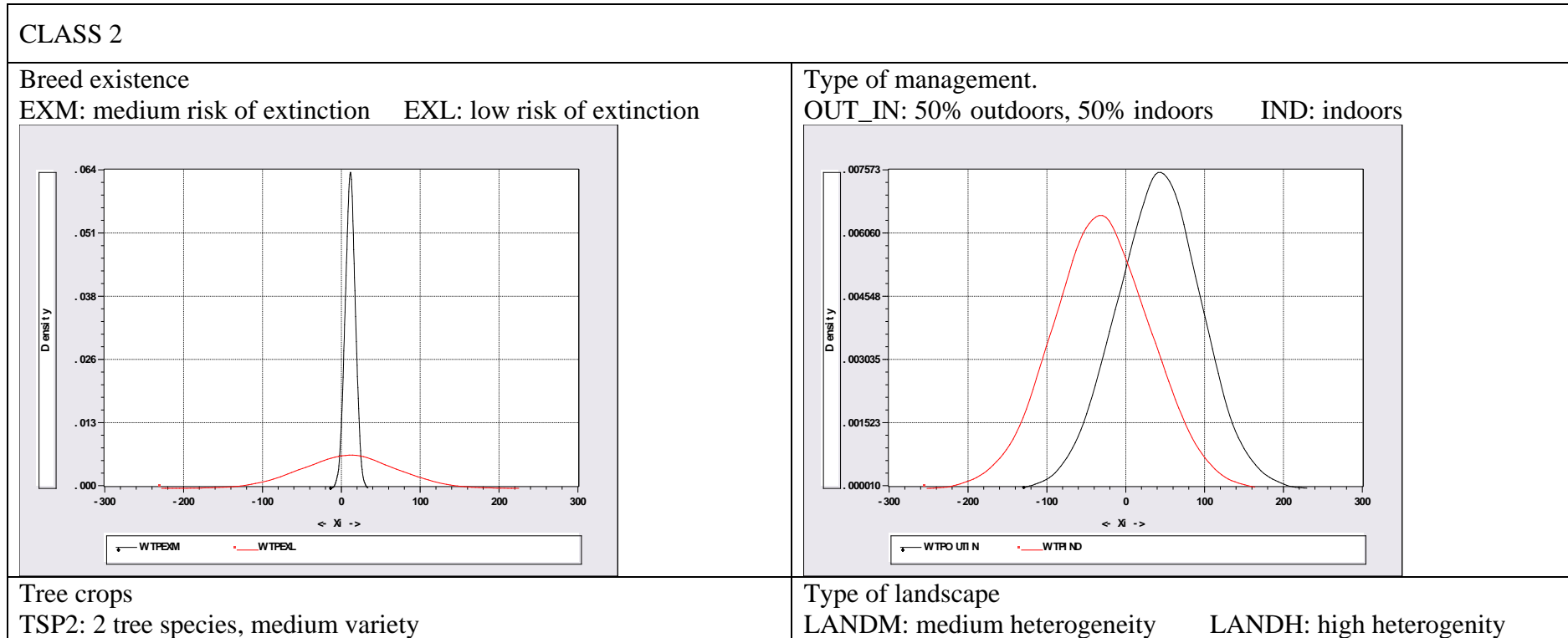
3 Table 9. Marginal Willingness to Pay estimates for the RLC deterministic protester allocation and the confidence interval model (€/year household)

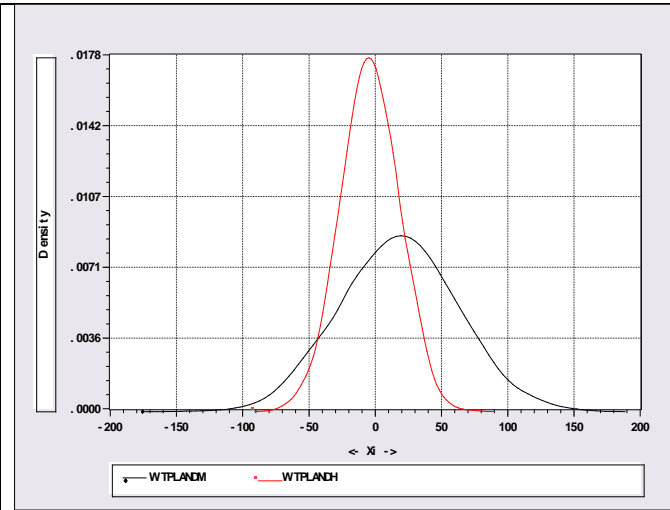
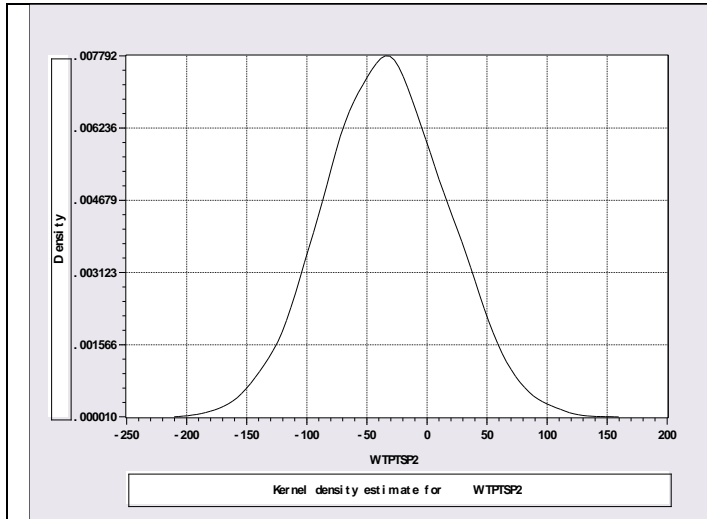
Attributes	Levels	Class 2		Class 3		Unconditional mean estimates (considering class size and significance)
		Mean	95% CI	Mean	95% CI	Mean
EXIST	M_RISK	8.11	(-8.95; 26.73)	97.13	(32.73; 157.52)	ns
	L_RISK	7.48	(-18.51; 35.24)	229.70*	(129.60; 325.85)	54.37
MNG	OUT-IN DOOR	38.95**	(4.35; 75.02)	-60.52	(-83.29; -38.90)	15.90
	INDOOR	-34.08**	(-71.97; 3.84)	-216.11**	(-249.05; 184.62)	-65.07

TSP	2	-33.24	(-43.90; 3.63)	-18.30	(-39.39; 6.99)	ns
	3	11.92	(-27.07; 3.13)	57.22**	(27.51; 88.36)	13.54
LAND	MEDIUM	15.57	(-10.86; 42.81)	18.36	(-31.04; 63.44)	ns
	HIGH	-6.21	(-27.15; 14.32)	10.73	(-29.98; 48.33)	ns
PROD	MEDIUM	19.59	(-2.45; 44.68)	-15.53	(-394.75; 377.23)	ns
	HIGH	50.45**	(20.05; 82.56)	-14.85	(-57.40; 29.38)	20.60

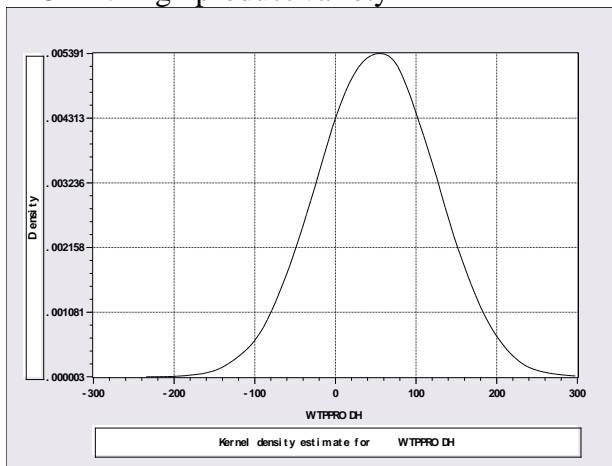
1 *p < 0.10 **p < 0.05 ***p < 0.01

- 1 Figure 3. Dispersion of mWTP (€/year household) per attribute and class for **RLC deterministic allocation** model (dispersion for unconditional estimates only reported when standard deviation estimates are significant)
- 2





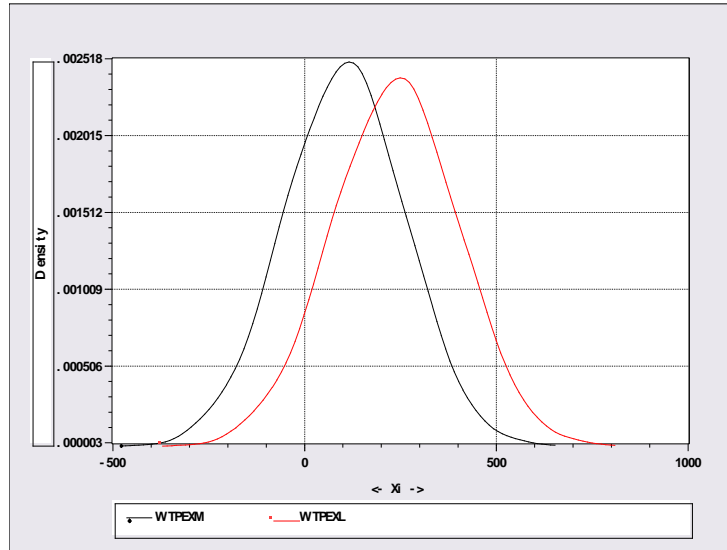
Product variety
 PRODH: High product variety



CLASS 3

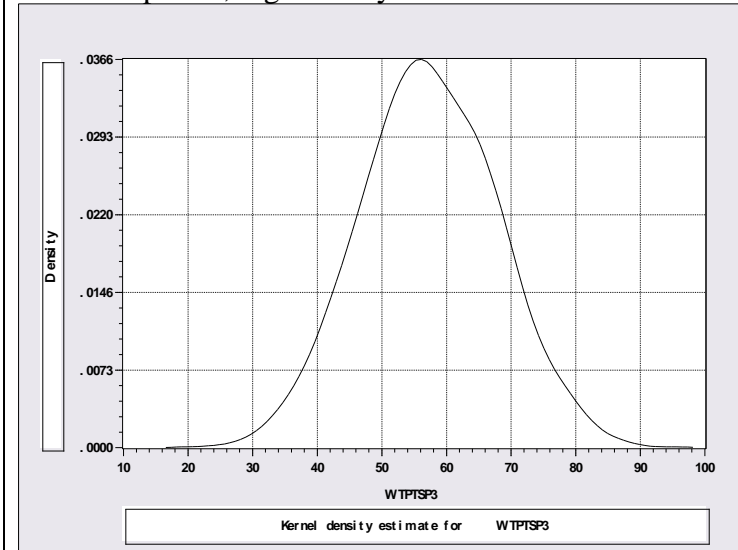
Breed existence

EXM: medium risk of extinction EXL: low risk of extinction



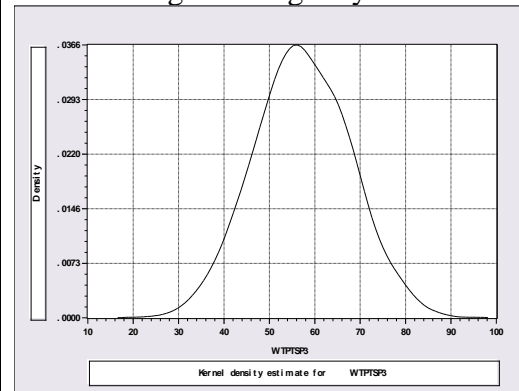
Tree crops

TSP3: 3 species, high variety



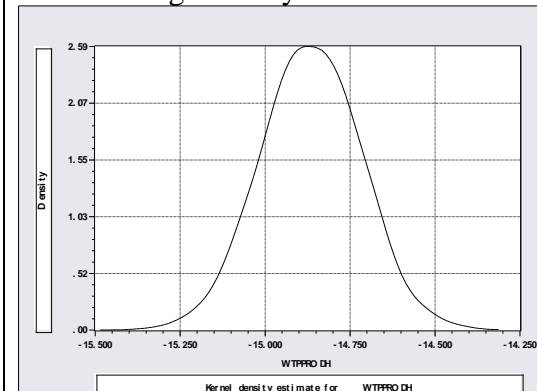
Type of landscape

LANDH: high heterogeneity



Product variety

PRODH: high variety



5 Discussion and conclusions

5.1 Insights and trade-offs of the free vs. deterministic allocation approaches

Identifying and excluding protest responses from ulterior econometric modelling is a common practice in economic valuation studies. However, this can lead to sample selection and estimation bias, especially when the number of protest responses is high. In this study we compared two approaches to deal with protesters in modelling when discrete approaches are adopted. More specifically, we delve into the impact of free versus deterministic protest responses allocation on preferences and WTP estimates across two discrete modelling approaches, random parameters and SALC latent class models.

Deterministic allocation of protesters to one preference class comes at the cost of the reduction in model performance regarding information criteria. However, it provided more meaningful identification of preference profiles in the random parameter approach. In contrast, the estimates of the free allocated random LC model hinder a real segregation into preference classes as signalled by previous studies (Thiene et al., 2012). While protesters are typically characterized by non-significant estimates in any of the attributes and a general preference for the status quo expressed by the ASC. significant cost attribute estimates are retrieved for all the classes in this model together with misleading yeasaying patterns in class 3.

Free allocation models perform better in identifying serial status quo selection behaviour when scale heterogeneity is considered. The SALC model in this case retrieves patterns in preference class 1 that match with the expected protest behaviour although the share of respondents allocated to it amounts to approximately half of the sample.

The deterministic allocation of protesters provides overall better insights into preference profiles with similarities in preference patterns found between random parameters and scale-adjusted approaches, despite differences in class sizes across models. In both cases the non-protest classes are characterized by two distinct preference patterns. Class-2 respondents in both models show a narrower range of attributes that positively define their preferences, namely support for outdoor breed management together with high product variety in the random parameters model. Class-3 respondents in both models show a more balanced utility definition by a mix of attributes that include breed conservation, high tree crop diversity and either outdoor management (random parameters model) or landscape diversity (SALC model). The sclass2 respondents (these

1 showing higher variance in their estimates) are mostly allocated to the third preference
2 class.

3 SALC models in both free and deterministic protester allocation models show that the
4 highest share of low scale (high variance) responses is found in preference segments with
5 a wider set of attributes defining their preferences.

6 The disparities between estimates in the free vs. the deterministic model approach also
7 impacts on the WTP estimates, leading to distinctively different policy recommendations
8 based on these estimates. The free allocation model suggests that moderate improvement
9 in the breed conservation status together with a shift towards indoor breeding are the path
10 to maximize social utility. In contrast, the deterministic model advocates for focusing the
11 efforts in breed conservation followed by improving product diversity and outdoor-indoor
12 breeding with improvements in tree crop diversity. These outcomes, beyond the reasoning
13 provided above, is also aligned with the results obtained in the world café sessions with
14 rural and urban dwellers.

15 Therefore, our results advocate for and are aligned with the approach proposed by Thiene
16 et al. (2012) where the allocation of protesters to a specific segment is preferred since
17 reduction in model performance is compensated by a more plausible and balanced
18 definition of the preference structure. Accordingly, the following sections in the
19 discussion are based on the results of our preferred model, i.e. the random parameter latent
20 class model with deterministic allocation of protesters to one preference class.

21 **5.2 Societal preferences for MBP farming system dimensions**

22 LC analysis allowed us to identify relevant preference profiles where respondents in
23 class2 are concerned with management and product innovation. We hypothesize that the
24 tight link established by participants in focus groups between management and product
25 quality may be behind this preference profile that groups the so to speak pragmatic
26 respondents that are more appealed by market-based solutions and these to succeed need
27 quality-based products. By contrast, the preferences of respondents in class 3, the breed-
28 concerned class, are more linked to heritage dimensions that connect with elements of the
29 breed, its management and linked landscape. We also hypothesize that these respondents
30 may hold moral concerns that can depart to some extent from their economic rationality
31 when expressing their preferences for breed conservation. Accordingly, their preferences
32 mostly shaped by improving the breed status maintaining traditional management and

1 improved tree crop diversity. Classes 2 and 3 show complementary patterns of the
2 significance of WTP estimates: only the rejection of indoor breeding retrieves significant
3 and negative WTP values for both classes. We hypothesize that pragmatic reasons related
4 to meat quality and welfare-heritage reasons are behind these preferences. .

5 Outcomes for reducing the risk of extinction of MBPs to the low status retrieve significant
6 and positive estimates only in class3. Credibility problems may be behind the estimates
7 because some of the respondents in the focus groups stated that breed extinction—for
8 them—was unrealistic. Indoor management of the breed is significantly rejected by class2
9 and class3. Respondents stated in debriefing questions that the outdoors option was
10 chosen for meat quality reasons (37.8% of the sample), followed by animal welfare
11 concerns (24.5%).

12 The literature has demonstrated how landscape preferences have adopted virtual reality
13 or manipulated pictures to assess social landscape preferences (Häfner et al., (2017),
14 Arnberger and Eder, (2011) or van Berkel and Verburg (2014)). Although the pictures
15 used to convey this attribute correspond to the central part of the island where the MBP
16 agroecosystems are found, one of the weaknesses of our work relates to the pictures used
17 because we did not fully control for landscape features through manipulated pictures. As
18 kindly noticed by one of the reviewers, our method may have introduced bias into our
19 estimates because some of the features in the pictures may represent differential
20 recreational opportunities for some people and this may be the reason behind the non-
21 significant estimates for this attribute across classes. Tree polycultures, by contrast, are
22 positively evaluated by class3. Tree polyculture is tightly linked to the management and
23 meat quality of MBPs, where a share of the tree fruit harvest feeds MBPs and provides
24 its meat with outstanding qualities.

25 Traditional food products constitute a critical element of European culture, identity, and
26 heritage (Ilbery y Kneafsey, 1999) and may contribute to the sustainability of rural areas
27 because their product differentiation may entail a potential for producers and processors
28 and hence contribute to creating business models that protect these areas from
29 depopulation (Avermaete et al., 2004).

30 Sobrassada, the spreadable cured sausage produced with MBP meat carcass, is a
31 traditional food product according to the definition of Gellynck and Kühne (2008).
32 However, as some participants stated in the world café session, its niche in the market has

1 decreased due to its high fat content. The special qualities of MBP meat appeal to niche
2 buyers, and market extension through product innovation may command a substantial
3 price premium compared with mainstream alternative products (Balogh et al., 2016).
4 Innovations in traditional products may represent an opportunity to widen their market
5 (Kühne et al., 2010) and hence represent an opportunity to increase the added value of
6 farm production through the ‘demand-side’.

7 However, innovations in traditional products may face challenges related to the possible
8 incongruence between the concepts of traditional food and innovation (Guerrero et al.,
9 2012; Stolzenbach et al., 2013), which makes launching acceptable innovations
10 particularly difficult in this food category (Vanhonacker et al., 2013). One of the
11 dimensions of innovation in traditional food products recognised by consumers relates to
12 product variety (Guerrero et al., 2009). We tested the social acceptability for innovation
13 in MBP product variety and similar to the literature (Guerrero et al., 2009), we found a
14 positive attitude towards variety among the respondents that significantly supports high
15 product variety options in the class2 segment. New MBP products such as hamburgers
16 have shown highly relevant sensory performance (Kallas et al., 2019), and this finding
17 may reinforce it as a promising innovation avenue because sensory properties are not
18 compromised but enhanced by the innovation.

19 **5.3 Policy implications for supporting extensive farming systems**

20 Breeds in marginal areas and that may thrive in low external input agriculture represent a
21 critical genetic resource in terms of adaptive traits and of rendering marginal lands
22 economically viable (Gandini y Villa, 2003; Hoffmann y Scherf, 2010). Protection of
23 conservation values tied to traditional breeds and cultural landscapes calls for approaches
24 that directly target agricultural policy and integrate effective support for low-intensity
25 use.

26 However, intensification processes have been catalysed by the CAP (Emmerson et al.,
27 2016), accelerating the reduction of mixed farms (Agrosynergie 2011) such as traditional
28 farms where MBPs constitute approximately 20% of farm income (Jaume comm. pers.).
29 Despite the restructuring of the CAP following Agenda 2000, which acknowledged that
30 farming activities have productive and non-productive functions, payments are not having
31 the expected positive impacts in terms of increasing the workforce and securing balanced
32 territorial development (Navarro y López-Bao, 2018). Policy measures created to support

1 specific traditional land uses and their landscapes are often not successful because they
2 focus on only one part of the system (Pinto-Correia et al., 2016) and are poorly tailored
3 to fit marginal extensive systems where most farmers are not eligible for support (Pe'er
4 et al., 2017). To overcome this situation and improve the future sustainability of these
5 farming systems and the cost and environmental effectiveness of CAP payments, these
6 measures should be linked to environmental objectives (Navarro y López-Bao, 2018).

7 Unconditional WTP estimates retrieved in our study signal societal support for policies
8 aimed at improving the status of the breed and its management systems. The highest WTP
9 estimates in our sample reside in securing breed low risk of extinction, increasing the
10 product variety and in the outdoor management with some indoor sheltering.

11 Increased market orientation of farming in the European Union (EU) stimulated by CAP
12 has the effect of exposing EU producers to more volatile world market prices compared
13 with the politically fixed EU prices of the past (Pe'er et al., 2017), where livestock
14 keepers are mere price-takers in a global economy where information asymmetry and
15 market imperfections have implications for breed diversity (Hoffmann y Scherf, 2010).

16 Sustainable production systems depend on, in terms of markets, the maintenance of the
17 characteristics of the final products and the defence of its genuineness (Silva y Nunes,
18 2013). Marketing extensively reared slaughtered pigs through the regular pathway would
19 retrieve almost zero economic gains because the carcasses do not conform to EU
20 standards and would hence be considered qualitatively inferior (Hill et al., 2004).

21 Because sustainable pig production systems in the Mediterranean region show marked
22 differences in relation to technologies and final products arising from intensive systems
23 (Silva y Nunes, 2013), developing alternative (and complex) marketing strategies is
24 necessary in parallel with a consumer informed of the advantages of the outdoor keeping
25 system and resulting quality of the product (Hill et al., 2004). Our results indicate societal
26 support for innovation in traditional product variety and may represent an opportunity to
27 increase the value added appraised by MBP farmers and hence contribute to the
28 sustainability of this traditional farming system.

29 **5.4 Limitations of our research and future pathways**

30 Protest behaviour in choice experiment studies has been broadly assessed in the literature
31 as discussed previously. Our study tackles the modelling perspective of it since the share
32 of protest respondents in our study was considerable and simply excluding these

1 observations would necessarily lead to biased estimates. Despite potential protest
2 behaviour was identified in world café sessions and it was tackled offering different
3 options for the payment vehicle to the respondents, the share of protesters remained still
4 relatively high. Our study tackles the modelling perspective and implications of it, but
5 one of the limitations of our study resides in the limited perspective that debriefing
6 questions offer on this behaviour. Greater understating of it would be needed. We also
7 consider that some institutional distrust may be behind a substantial share of this
8 behaviour (Kassahun et al., 2020), but we did not test for it.

9 Another potential limitation on our work resides on the description of the landscape
10 attribute and its levels, where artificially manipulated pictures or even virtual reality ones
11 would have allowed for a more homogeneous delivery of this attribute to the respondents.
12 The lack of significance of this attribute and its levels in almost all the models estimated
13 may also be due to this limitation and not solely to its lack of significance in shaping
14 people's preferences.

15 **Acknowledgements**

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