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1 Extensive Mediterranean agroecosystems and their linked traditional 2 breeds: societal demand for the conservation of the Majorcan black pig

3 ABSTRACT

4 Extensive outdoor low-intensity livestock farming systems are the principal form of
5 management of high natural value farmland in Europe. Their marginalization and poor
6 recognition in policies and markets, can ultimately risk the future of sustainable farming
7 and their paired mosaic landscapes.

8 Traditional high-quality meat products from Mediterranean pigs are produced in
9 extensive-type production systems using native agro-pastoral resources. This is the case
10 of the *porc negre mallorquí*, the Majorcan Black Pig (MBP), a traditional extensive pig
11 breed native from Mallorca island (Balearic islands, Spain), characterized by its high
12 rusticity and adaptation to the Mediterranean climatic conditions.

13 In this study we assessed island dwellers' preferences for management options for MBP,
14 its agroecosystem and related products through a choice experiment valuation survey.
15 Our results show overall societal support for improved breed conservation status, tree
16 crop and product diversity. Outcomes of this study call for complementary policies to
17 support this breed and its coupled agroecosystem where breed conservation and
18 enhancement of landscape diversity through public funding is complemented with
19 product innovation and premium niche markets for overall agroecosystem viability.

20 **Keywords:** *choice experiment; societal preferences; extensive farming; latent-class*
21 *model; random-parameter model; rural landscape*

23 1 Introduction

24 Agricultural areas in Europe are known to support biodiversity conservation and the
25 provision of ecosystem services (Pe'er et al., 2017). However, the general decline in
26 biodiversity linked to agroecosystems (European Environmental Agency, 2015) threatens
27 the provision of a large segment of public goods and services stemming from farming
28 systems (Cooper et al., 2009). Extensive outdoor low-intensity livestock farming systems
29 are the principal form of managing high natural value farmland in Europe (Beaufoy and
30 Cooper, 2008). However, market forces and technological innovation have propelled
31 these systems down a route of restructuring towards either more profitable forms of land
32 use or land abandonment (Cooper et al., 2009) that can ultimately risk the future of
33 sustainable farming (e.g. Bauer and Johnston, 2013; Dale and Polasky, 2007; Kroeger
34 and Casey, 2007; Swinton et al., 2007; Zhang et al., 2007).

35 Traditional breeds are a key element in the maintenance of extensive farming systems
36 since they are adapted to marginal areas and due to their rusticity can thrive in low input
37 agricultural systems. They result from the long-term selection that livestock breeders have
38 made of their animal genetic resources (AnGRs) according to their own preferences and
39 needs, adapted to their local conditions and over thousands of years of domestication
40 (Anderson, 2003). AnGRs support agroecosystem resilience (Hajjar et al., 2008),
41 maintain socio-cultural traditions, local identities and traditional knowledge (Nautiyal et

42 al., 2008). Furthermore, they contribute to evolutionary processes, gene flow (Bellon,
43 2009) and conservation of cultural landscapes (Tisdell, 2003). This broad array of benefits
44 for society as a whole are usually delivered as positive externalities (i.e. side effects of
45 production decisions taken by the farmers for producing marketable outputs) (Madureira
46 et al., 2013), sharing the characteristics of public goods (Fisher and Kerry Turner, 2008).
47 In contrast, the private production dimension is linked to the products these animals
48 provide to their owners (Zander et al., 2009), including the private benefits associated
49 with using agrobiodiversity to minimize risks related to external shocks (Di Falco et al.,
50 2008). The significant private use component is a distinctive feature of the conservation
51 of traditional AnGR that gives it its impure public good characteristics (Narloch et al.,
52 2011).

53 Since AnGR play a crucial role in maintaining agroecosystems that deliver a broad array
54 of public goods, conservation policies have frequently been oriented towards direct
55 support payments to compensate farmers for the opportunity cost of maintaining such
56 breeds and their agroecosystems. However, the economic incentives provided by the
57 common agricultural policy (CAP) through its second pillar have not achieved the desired
58 environmental (Navarro and López-Bao, 2018) and rural development goals (Ragkos et
59 al., 2017). Furthermore, the need for long-term support raises issues related to the
60 sustainability of such approaches (Martin-Collado et al., 2014), especially in a post 2020
61 framework with diminishing CAP budgets.

62 The renewed search of consumers for products and services associated with tradition,
63 heritage and culture represents an opportunity for these farming systems to retain locally
64 the value generated and engage these areas in endogenous development dynamics that
65 render economically viable these farming systems (Jenkins, 2000). Innovation in
66 traditional products increasing their variety, can represent an opportunity to widening
67 their market (Kühne et al., 2010), accessing niche markets and increasing the added-value
68 of farm production, contributing to create business models that protect these areas from
69 depopulation (Avermaete et al., 2004). Purely private goods from these extensive
70 agroecosystems, whose benefit is appraised by the farmer/local community, can make a
71 decisive contribution to the maintenance of the agroecosystem and hence of its linked
72 public goods and services. Therefore, a mix of breed/farming conservation policies and
73 product innovation may work synergistically by compensating farmers for the positive
74 externalities they provide while simultaneously increasing farm profitability through
75 added-value products. This mix would address environmental conservation, product
76 quality, efficiency of resource use, and retention of value generated locally towards an
77 endogenous development (Jenkins, 2000).

78 Central to the claim for an agricultural policy agenda aimed to conserving and enhancing
79 these traditional farming models for public good provision (Navarro and López-Bao,
80 2018), is to provide estimates of the societal benefits (costs) of a policy intervention aimed
81 at improving the condition of those farming systems, their provision of public goods and
82 traditional product innovation. These estimates would be the assessment of whether the costs
83 of agro-environmental schemes or subsidies are justified from a societal welfare point of
84 view (e.g. Campbell, 2006; Górriz-Mifsud et al., 2016) as well as identify the optimal
85 level of policy intervention to correct the underlying market failure (Madureira et al.,
86 2013).

87 The discrete choice experiment (DCE) is a questionnaire-based method extensively used
88 to elicit the values and preferences of different societal groups, from farmers to citizens
89 or policy makers (Huber et al., 2010) for hypothetical changes in the provision level of
90 non-market goods or services due to policy development (Madureira et al., 2013).
91 Individuals participating in a DCE survey are invited to select their preferred alternative
92 from a fixed set of scenarios (choice sets) according to their own preferences and budget
93 constraints and where each choice set represents different combinations of welfare losses
94 and gains. The DCE has been extensively used to assess the multifunctional role of
95 agriculture (e.g. Bernués et al., 2015; Campbell et al., 2008; Domínguez-Torreiro et al.,
96 2013; Kallas et al., 2007; Ragkos and Theodoridis, 2016a; Rodríguez-Entrena et al.,
97 2014) or the societal values accrued by agricultural landscapes (e.g. Domínguez-Torreiro
98 et al., 2013; Hynes and Campbell, 2011; Grammatikopoulou et al., 2020; Kallas et al.,
99 2007; Ragkos and Theodoridis, 2016b; Rocchi et al., 2019; van Zanten et al., 2016a).

100 In this study we conducted a DCE survey with the aim of assessing the societal
101 preferences of a sample of Majorcan dwellers for the conservation and enhancement of
102 the most relevant dimensions of the Majorcan black pig (MBP) farming system likely to
103 be improved by policy mixes of breed conservation and product innovation. Our survey
104 considers attributes of the MBP farming system that have impure public good features
105 such as breed conservation status or tree polyculture enhancement, as well as product
106 diversification that despite holding a private good character, is likely to be enhanced
107 through public policy support (Zander et al., 2013; Bernués et al., 2014). Our study
108 focuses on traditional breeds beyond their role as elements of rural landscapes (Hynes
109 and Campbell, 2011; van Zanten et al., 2016b) or their in-situ/ex-situ conservation options
110 (Pouta et al., 2014). It aligns with previous studies addressing societal preferences for
111 traditional breeds and their related landscapes and products (Zander et al., 2013; Bernués
112 et al., 2014; Martín-Collado et al., 2014). Differently from previous studies, we address
113 the breed existence in probabilistic terms and consider the type of breed management.
114 Furthermore, biodiversity in our study is not conveyed through iconic threatened species
115 (Bernués et al., 2014) but through agrobiodiversity expressed as the variety of tree crop
116 species. The most remarkable novelty in our work resides in that it estimates welfare
117 changes derived from hypothetical scenarios conveyed through attributes that can be
118 influenced by policy mixes of agroecosystem conservation and product innovation. We
119 explore preference heterogeneity through responses to attitudinal variables as well
120 through continuous and discrete modelling approaches in order to provide relevant inputs
121 for policy development. Differently from previous studies, we assess whether attitudes
122 towards available options for funding MBP agroecosystems, i.e. via taxpayer money
123 and/or via increased (premium) prices for meat-based products, can be a source of
124 preference heterogeneity.

125 This manuscript is organized as follows: The next section presents the description of the
126 case study area and the MBP farming systems in the island of Majorca. Section 3
127 introduces the econometric modelling approach and the survey design details. The results
128 section follows considering the details of the sampled population, the preference and
129 willingness to pay estimates. Section 5 discusses the results including their policy
130 implications and section 6 concludes the paper.

131 **2 Case study description**

132 Traditional high-quality meat products from Mediterranean pigs are produced in
133 extensive-type production systems using native agro-sylvo-pastoral resources (Silva and
134 Nunes, 2013). This is the case of the *porc negre mallorquí*, the Majorcan Black Pig
135 (MBP), a traditional extensive pig breed native from Majorca island (Balearic islands,
136 Spain), characterized by its high rusticity and adaptation to the Mediterranean climatic
137 conditions (Gonzalez et al., 2013; Tibau et al., 2019) and its ability to exploit the scarce
138 natural resources of the plains in the central part of the Island (Jaume and Alfonso, 2000).
139 This breed is reared in a mosaic landscape of tree polycultures with a positive interplay
140 between intermediate level of farming disturbances and land-cover complexity, endowed
141 with a rich bio-cultural heritage able to preserve a wildlife-friendly agro-ecological
142 matrix likely to house high biodiversity (Marull et al., 2015b).

143 Traditional MBP farms are mixed extensive farms with a density of 10 to 25 pigs per
144 hectare and where pig rearing has been one the income generation activities in family
145 farms (Gonzalez et al., 2013). Feeding regime is traditionally based on pasture, cereals
146 (barley), legume seeds, but also on figs, almonds, acorns and several Mediterranean
147 shrubs present in the typical MBP plots (Gonzalez et al., 2013; Tibau et al., 2019).

148 The island of Mallorca has followed similar pathways to other areas in the Mediterranean
149 where land-use intensification through urban sprawl and abandonment of rain-fed
150 arboriculture and spontaneous reforestation (Marull et al., 2015a) have taken place since
151 1950. The impact of tourism in the island entailed a strong socioeconomic
152 marginalization of farming (Marull et al., 2015a) and the decline of MBP population over
153 the last 150 years. Due to the efforts of the Majorcan Black Pig Producers Association,
154 the herd book of the breed was initiated in 1997 with 400 reproductive sows. The latest
155 census of MBP (August, 2016) registered 59 farms with less than 1,000 breeding sows
156 and 54 males. Exchange of genetic material across farms is encouraged as part of the
157 ongoing conservation program (Tibau et al., 2019). Its genetic diversity provides high
158 flexibility to adapt to changes in the production system while maintaining its high quality
159 traits (Muñoz et al., 2018).

160 The breed shows distinctively high-quality traits although with low productive efficiency
161 (Muñoz et al., 2018). The main meat product obtained from this breed is a specialty fat-
162 rich cured sausage Protected Geographical Indication (PGI-certified) since 1994 (Tibau
163 et al., 2019). The reduction in generational relay and the low financial performance of
164 these farms, call for the development of new products that can push the demand and their
165 added-value towards new niche markets that can improve revenues to producers
166 (Gonzalez et al., 2013; Kallas et al., 2019).

167 **3 Data and methods**

168 We implemented a discrete choice experiment (DCE) survey to analyse the
169 heterogeneous preferences of citizens for the improved provision of goods and services
170 that stem from the MBP agroecosystems that are likely to be improved by agroecosystem
171 conservation and/or product innovation policies. Most of them have an impure public
172 good character, such as breed conservation and management, tree and landscape diversity

173 conservation, while the increased variety of meat-based products based on product
174 innovation holds a more prevalent private character.

175 DCE is particularly well suited when the trade-offs that need to be considered relate to
176 agricultural policy, aimed at fostering a multifunctional agricultural sector with
177 multidimensional attributes (Hynes and Campbell, 2011), hence not involving a complete
178 loss or gain in the provision of a particular good or service, but rather compromises across
179 levels of provision (Bernués et al., 2015).

180 **3.1 Attribute selection**

181 The survey design covered the key goods and services namely with a mixed public-private
182 good character provided by the MBP agroecosystem that are likely to be improved by
183 conservation and product innovation policies. An initial list of relevant attributes was
184 devised through extensive literature review on valuation of endangered domestic animal
185 genetic resources (AnGRs), followed by in-depth discussion and exchange with
186 colleagues having intensively worked in socioecological transitions in Mallorca and the
187 MBP production system (breed quality traits and genetic features).

188 Two focus group sessions were held with island dwellers corresponding to urban and
189 rural profiles, respectively. These sessions were organized as a world café (Schieffer et
190 al., 2004), where attributes were grouped in three thematic conversation tables: breed
191 conservation and management, biodiversity and landscape and, product and
192 commercialization, respectively. During these sessions, we also checked their perception
193 of these attributes as final output/outcome attributes (Boyd and Krupnick, 2013) and
194 consequently we assume that the selected attributes are framed and perceived by the
195 sampled respondents as final outcomes. Respondents were then requested to rank
196 individually the five attributes that they considered more important to maintain the MBP
197 breed. As a result, some of the tested attributes were dropped out of the final design such
198 as bird species diversity. Since we hypothesized that institutional distrust may play a role
199 in raising protesting behaviour among the sampled respondents (Kassahun et al., 2020),
200 the final time slot was devoted to discuss with them different management options for the
201 hypothetical funds collected, ranging from regional and local administrations to the
202 breeders' association. Most of them were in favour of the latter option.

203 A group valuation session was held with 15 scholars for fine-tuning the questionnaire and
204 its visual aids, followed by pilot testing with 20 individuals. The pilot test allowed to
205 making final fine-tuning of the questionnaire to improve wording and fluency in some of
206 the questions; the estimates of the pilot test also served to improve the experimental
207 design of the attributes (see below).

208 The final list of attributes gathers a comprehensive combination of attributes that
209 characterize the MBP agroecosystem. The first attribute considered the future existence
210 of the breed. Discussion held with geneticists in the project, allowed identifying threshold
211 levels for breed survival: i. Below 200 sows; the population is linked with a high risk of
212 breed extinction, ii. Between 200-1000 sows' population sets risk in medium levels, while
213 iii. Surpassing 1000 sows' sets risk levels in a low status. Accordingly, these levels were
214 depicted to respondents conveying simultaneously risk levels and number of sows.

215 Traditional MBP is bred outdoors, allowing the animals develop their natural behaviour
 216 while improving the organoleptic features of the meat such as intramuscular fat (Tibau et
 217 al., 2019). Traditional extensive management systems sometimes provide a shelter to the
 218 sows in early mothering stages to reduce piglet mortality due to low temperatures. Hence,
 219 we included a level in the management attribute considering that the animals spend half
 220 of their time in sheltered spaces. Since intensification, understood as indoor breeding with
 221 external feeding inputs, is one of the pathways followed by these farming systems, we
 222 included an extra (hypothetical) level that considered indoor breeding to seize
 223 respondents' preferences for this option.

224 Two attributes considered the multifunctionality of the system at two levels. The tree
 225 diversity attribute considered diversity of domestic tree species (tree polycultures) that
 226 are also a key source of feed for MBP breed and confer to its products a distinctive flavour
 227 (i.e. almond, carob and fig trees); these are currently in a process of abandonment and
 228 diversity decrease (Marull et al., 2015b). The landscape attribute considered
 229 heterogeneity-homogeneity levels (conveyed as landscape "variety" to the respondents).
 230 This attribute was presented through photographs provided by landscape ecologists
 231 specialists on the MBP agroecosystem; these are a valid surrogate for assessing landscape
 232 preferences (e.g. Bateman et al., 2009; Hull and Stewart, 1992; Ode et al., 2009; van
 233 Zanten et al., 2016a).

234 An attribute was included concerning the product-related dimension of the MBP
 235 considering the innovation (Guerrero et al., 2009) and increase in product availability.
 236 This way we measured societal preferences for developing new products more aligned
 237 with nowadays consumers' demand (Kühne et al., 2010). The diversity of MBP meat-
 238 based products, despite having a pure private character, can be regarded as an outcome
 239 of policies supporting product innovation to make financially viable these extensive
 240 farming systems.

241 Finally, the monetary attribute considered six payment levels from €10 to €60. The
 242 payment vehicle was expressed as annual household payments for three years. Since the
 243 credibility of the payment vehicle is crucial for stated preference studies (Carson and
 244 Groves, 2007), we discarded an infinite payment vehicle since it would look improbable,
 245 thus reducing the incentive compatibility while one-time payment may yield higher
 246 estimates compared to annual payments (Richardson and Loomis, 2009). To make our
 247 survey incentive compatible, the payment vehicle was framed as a compulsory tax
 248 payment.

249 **Table 1. Description of attributes and levels¹**

ATTRIBUTE	VARIABLE NAME	DESCRIPTION
BREED EXISTENCE	H RISK*	HIGH risk of extinction (< 200 sows)
	M RISK	MEDIUM risk of extinction (200–1000 sows)
	L RISK	LOW risk of extinction (1000–2000 sows)
TYPE OF MANAGEMENT	OUTDOOR*	Most of the time outdoors
	OUT-IN DOOR	50% outdoors, 50% indoors
	INDOOR	Most of the time indoors
TREE CROPS	1 TSP*	1 tree species, low variety
	2 TSP	2 tree species, medium variety

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

	3 TSP	3 tree species, high variety
TYPE OF LANDSCAPE	LOW*	Low heterogeneity
	MEDIUM	Medium heterogeneity
	HIGH	High heterogeneity
PRODUCT VARIETY	LOW*	Low product variety
	MEDIUM	Medium product variety
	HIGH	High product variety
COST (€/household)	0*, 10, 20, 30, 40, 50, 60	

250 * Status quo level

251 3.2 Sampling strategy and questionnaire

252 Previous studies on societal preferences for rural landscapes have addressed contrasted
 253 samples of local-rural population and urban dwellers (i.e. living closely to the rural
 254 landscapes vs. living distant from the resources) (e.g. (Bernués et al., 2014; Domínguez-
 255 Torroiro et al., 2013; Hynes and Campbell, 2011). Usually local dwellers are more
 256 concerned with specific attributes related to the production systems (Bernués et al., 2014)
 257 and are more willing to move to scenarios different from the SQ (Hynes and Campbell,
 258 2011) while urban people have a more general view and concern (Bernués et al., 2014).
 259 In order to considering the influence of rural and urban profiles on the preferences for the
 260 MBP and its related agroecosystem, our sampling strategy attached equal weights to rural
 261 (< 20,000 inhabitants) and urban (> 20,000 inhabitants) populations. Each subsample was
 262 stratified according to population size, gender and three age groups.

263 The island of Majorca has 861,000 inhabitants; around 600,000 live in urban areas and
 264 with 400,000 located in Palma de Mallorca, the capital city (Ibestat, 2016). A total sample
 265 of 400 respondents was surveyed in April 2017 through face-to-face questionnaires. A
 266 quota sampling procedure was used to guarantee gender and age classes
 267 representativeness with proportional allocation to each stratum (see table 2). We sampled
 268 211 and 189 respondents in rural and urban areas, respectively. The urban share of the
 269 survey was undertaken in four towns with more than 20, 000 inhabitants plus the capital
 270 city Palma de Mallorca, where 150 respondents were interviewed. The rural sampling
 271 was undertaken in seven municipalities ranging from 2,000 to 5,000 inhabitants in the
 272 central part of the island where the MBP farms are located. Potential adult respondents
 273 were approached in public places such as squares, markets or schools, considering age
 274 groups and gender quotas.

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

276

	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	

40-64	45.79	44.3	P($\chi^2 > 3.443$) = 0.179
>65	30.37	26.44	

277

278 The valuation questionnaire included questions on knowledge of the MBP agroecosystem
 279 and the perception of current status for the selected attributes. To minimize the incidence
 280 of protest responses, a question prior the choice cards was included so that respondents
 281 expressed their preferred institutions to manage taxpayers' money for support MPB.
 282 Then, they were asked to make their elections considering that this institution would
 283 manage their contributions towards the most preferred scenario. We adopted this
 284 approach based on the results of the world café sessions presented above where we
 285 identified that institutional distrust existed among some participants. Furthermore,
 286 respondents were presented with a short cheap talk² script to try to reduce hypothetical
 287 bias (Ladenburg et al., 2007; Varela et al., 2014b).

288 The debriefing section of the questionnaire collected standard socioeconomic data and
 289 included two attitudinal questions with statements to elicit respondent's agreement in a
 290 seven-point Likert scale (1-completely disagree, 7- completely agree) with funding the
 291 improvements in the MBP agroecosystem via MBP products' price increase and via an
 292 earmarked tax increase, respectively.

293 True zero bidders were disentangled from protesters through a close-ended question.
 294 Protesters were these respondents choosing one of these two options: "I already pay
 295 enough taxes and the government should use that money to fund this type of initiatives"
 296 or "I would collaborate if the way of raising funds would be different". Zero bidders were
 297 these choosing one of these two options: "I do not think any of the proposed measures
 298 would have any positive effect" or "Other measures should be implemented to protect the
 299 breed". 144 respondents out of 400 classified as protesters, i.e. 36% of the total and were
 300 removed from the sample for the ulterior econometric analysis. Despite the number of
 301 protesters in the sample is significant, it is within the range of similar studies (e.g.
 302 Castillo-Eguskitza et al., 2019; Valasiuk et al., 2017; Varela et al., 2014a). Significant
 303 differences were found in the protesting behaviour, where 45% of the rural subsample
 304 showed protesting behaviour while protesters in the urban subsample accounted for
 305 25.7% of this subsample (Pearson $\chi^2=16.291$ p= 0.000).

306 **3.3 The choice experiment**

307 Each respondent faced six choice cards where each of them displayed three alternative
 308 scenarios: the status quo scenario covered by the current level of tax payment (i.e. no
 309 extra cost) that was the same for all respondents and choice cards (see Figure 2) while
 310 alternative scenarios would entail an additional cost in terms of regional taxes. An
 311 experimental design with 24 alternatives distributed in four blocks was optimized
 312 employing Ngene (Choice Metrics 2012) for D-efficiency, retrieving a D-error of 0.064.

² A cheap talk is a script introduced just before the choice exercise in the questionnaire that described the hypothetical bias to respondents who are asked to revise downward their willingness to pay. The cheap talk script in our questionnaire read as follows: Before we start, I want to tell you a problem that we have found in similar surveys. When people indicate their preferred program, they sometimes tend to overestimate what they are willing to pay. Each of the programs we will show implies a cost. Therefore, we invite you to carefully consider each alternative in relation to your household income. The money spent on the program will not be available for other purchases. We ask you to consider if you are really willing to pay for it. If the cost is higher than what you are really willing to pay, then you should choose the status quo.

313 An efficient design aims to minimise the d-error derived from the variance-covariance
 314 matrix, which lastly results from the model estimation (Hensher et al., 2015).
 315 Constructing an efficient design requires from the use of prior information on the
 316 parameter estimates. As these and their related variance-covariance matrix are unknown
 317 when the design is set up, it is common practice to conduct a pilot study and use the
 318 estimates from it as priors for the final design. Accordingly, our experimental design
 319 followed a two-stage procedure. First, we assumed a zero value for all the coefficients of
 320 the attributes' levels and produced a D-efficient design for a multinomial logit
 321 specification for the pilot test. The parameter estimates for the attributes' levels obtained
 322 from the pilot tests were used as fixed priors to feed the modelling of the final
 323 experimental design which was optimized for a multinomial logit model (Rose et al.,
 324 2011; Rose and Bliemer, 2008).

325 **Figure 2. 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 

326

327 3.4 Econometric approach

328 Discrete choice experiments (DCE) base their econometric analysis on the evaluation of
 329 the utility that the sampled respondents derived from the choice of the best alternative
 330 among a set of multi-attribute management scenarios. The conceptual basis of DCE is
 331 grounded in the Random Utility Theory (McFadden, 1974) and Lancaster's Theory of
 332 Value (Lancaster, 1966) that assumes individuals will gain their utility not from the whole
 333 good or service but rather from its attributes and the levels these take.

334 The random utility model (McFadden, 1974) suggests that individuals ($i=1, \dots, I$) will
 335 choose the alternative ($j=1, \dots, J$) providing them with the highest utility. Accordingly, the
 336 utility that is obtained from each alternative is decomposed into a deterministic part V_j
 337 following a linear and additive function of $n=1, \dots, N$ attributes X_n , and a stochastic part
 338 not observable by the researcher, ε_j , that follows an extreme value type I distribution
 339 function, capturing the variance not explained by V_j :

340 $U_{ij} = V_{ij} + \varepsilon_{ij} = \sum_n \beta * X_{inj} + \varepsilon_{ij} \quad (1)$

341 where β represents the associate parameters of attributes X_{nj} that can be estimated by
 342 simulation with maximum likelihood using the conditional logit model (Train, 2003).

343 It is likely that preferences vary among individuals and that this heterogeneity may be
 344 relevant to understand the distributional implications of who will be affected by a
 345 management change, which can be of interest for policy analysis and development.
 346 Preference heterogeneity can be integrated in DCE through random parameter logit model
 347 (RPL) that allows for taste variation in the deterministic component of utility. This is
 348 undertaken by specifying the attribute parameters as random, with each one being
 349 characterized by a location (mean) and a scale parameter (variance or spread). The
 350 underlying distribution of the random parameters represents preference heterogeneity that
 351 cannot be explained by the observed variables, being therefore referred to as unobserved
 352 (random) preference heterogeneity. A complementary approach consists on incorporating
 353 sources of observed preference heterogeneity by introducing an interaction between the
 354 mean estimate of the random parameter and an individual characteristic (socioeconomic
 355 or attitudinal variable, for example)³ (Hensher et al., 2005; Train, 2003).

356 Accounting for these two types of heterogeneity involves including two additional terms
 357 in the utility equation. The term $\sigma_n * X_{inj}$ represents the standard deviation of the β
 358 parameter vector and accommodates the presence of unobservable preference
 359 heterogeneity (random taste among individuals); the term $\delta_n * z_i * X_{inj}$ intends to reveal the
 360 preference heterogeneity around the mean parameters estimates where z_i is a set of
 361 person-specific influences.

362
$$U_{ij} = \alpha_j + \sum_n [\beta * X_{inj} + \sigma_n * X_{inj} + \delta_n * z_i * X_{inj}] + \varepsilon_{ij}$$

363 α is an alternative specific constant (ASC) for each alternative k that captures the average
 364 of the unobserved effects not captured by the systematic component of the utility (i.e.
 365 attribute parameters) (Hensher et al., 2005). In studies like this where the status quo option
 366 is included in the set of alternatives, it can cause respondents to regard the status quo
 367 alternative in a systematically different way from these alternatives involving changes
 368 since the status quo is actually experienced (Campbell, 2006). Therefore, the utilities of
 369 the hypothetical alternatives are more correlated amongst themselves than with the status
 370 quo. In this situation, the inclusion of an ASC captures the tendency to choose either the
 371 status quo or an alternative scenario. This constant was kept fixed and coded as a dummy
 372 variable with value 1 for the status quo option and 0 otherwise. Thereby *ceteris paribus*,
 373 positive values indicate overall preference to stay in the current situation while negative
 374 estimates of the ASC indicate willingness to depart from it. Coefficients β vary across
 375 respondents and follow a distribution with density $f(\beta)$, that is the multivariate probability
 376 density function of β given the continuous distributional assumptions adopted by the
 377 researcher. If we assume independence over choice-tasks made by the same individual,
 378 the joint probability of an individual making a sequence of choices is the product, in our
 379 case, of six probabilities. Each of them represents the probability of choosing an

³ Interactions can also be considered between socioeconomic variables and the constant. For a recent example see Grammatikopoulou et al. (2020).

380 alternative over the choice task and it is a weighted average of the logit formula evaluated
381 at different values of β .

$$382 \quad P_{ij} = \int \frac{\exp(x_{ij}\beta')}{\sum_{j=1}^J \exp(x_{ij}\beta')} f(\beta) d\beta$$

383 Since the integral does not have an analytical solution, assumptions have to be made about
384 the distribution of the β parameters across the population and then take a set of draws
385 from the distribution and calculate the logit probability for each of them. The RPL model
386 can be further specified to handle panel data in order to accurately measure interpersonal
387 heterogeneity.

388 All non-monetary attributes were coded using dummy coding (Daly et al., 2016),
389 considering the status quo as the base level, except the number of tree species which was
390 continuously coded. All the non-monetary attributes plus the ASC were specified to
391 follow a triangular distribution while cost parameter was modelled as constrained
392 triangular distribution, i.e. the mean and standard deviation are assumed to be equal
393 (Grammatikopoulou et al., 2020), to restrict it to be negative. Initially an RPL model was
394 estimated with no interactions and gradually interactions between attributes and the
395 socioeconomic and attitudinal variables (covariates) of interest were introduced. The
396 covariates included in the final model consider the answers to the two statements on
397 available funding options for the MBP agroecosystems (i.e. funding via price increase
398 and via tax increase). These were recoded into two dummy variables respectively with
399 value 1 for agreement and 0 otherwise. The selected RPL model is reported in Table 3.
400 The model was estimated using NLOGIT5 and distribution simulations were based on
401 500 Halton draws.

402 While the RPL model allows to analyse unobserved heterogeneity through a continuous
403 representation, assuming that each member in the sample has a different set of utility
404 parameters (Train, 2003), latent class (LC) models offer an alternative view (Greene and
405 Hensher, 2013). In LC models heterogeneity in preferences is addressed by a discrete
406 distribution of these into a finite number of classes or segments of individuals (Hynes
407 et al., 2008; Scarpa and Thiene, 2005). This approach is suitable when preferences can be
408 explained in the form of clusters or discrete groups. Heterogeneity is addressed by
409 simultaneously dividing individuals into behavioural groups or latent classes and
410 estimating a choice model for each of these classes. LC modelling does not require
411 making specific assumptions about the distribution of parameters across individuals
412 (Hensher et al., 2015). Despite LC models can adopt random parameter distributions
413 within each class, we have opted for the standard LC model approach, considering fixed
414 parameters within the segments⁴.

415 In the LC variant of the conditional logit model, we assume that individuals are
416 probabilistically allocated to different classes that differ with respect to the β parameters.

⁴ We found that for the data set analysed, if attribute processing is handled through discrete distributions defined in a sufficiently flexible way, the extra layer of taste heterogeneity through random parameters within a latent class did not help in successfully identifying the classes. As Hensher et al. (2015) indicate, a random parameter treatment in this setting may be confounding with attribute processing; including attribute processing in the absence of continuously distributed random parameters is preferred to including continuously distributed random parameters in the absence of attribute processing.

417 Thereby, the LC model can be seen as a discrete form of the mixing distribution where β
 418 with probability s_m of being in segment m , takes on the value b_m , $m = 1, \dots, M$ and $f(\beta)$
 419 $= s_m$ for $\beta = b_m$, and the choice probabilities can be written as (cf. Train 2009):
 420

$$421 \quad \Pr(kin) = \sum_{m=1}^M s_m \prod_{n=1}^N \left(\frac{\exp(b'_m x_{ik})}{\sum_j \exp(b'_m x_{ij})} \right)$$

422 s_m is the probability of membership of segment m and can be written as:

$$423 \quad s_m = \frac{\exp(\lambda_s Z_i)}{\sum_{s=1}^S \exp(\lambda_s Z_i)}$$

424 Where Z_i is a vector of socioeconomic characteristics and/or attitudinal variables and λ is
 425 a vector of parameters (Boxall and Adamowicz, 2002). The number of classes in LC
 426 model has to be specified before evaluating the parameters since its identification is not
 427 part of the maximization process. We tested the model with number of classes varying
 428 between one and seven. A balance between statistical information criteria (BIC, AIC and
 429 AIC3), reasonable parameter estimates and sound standard errors and class probabilities
 430 was considered in order to select the final number of classes (Boxall and Adamowicz
 431 2002; Scarpa and Thiene 2005).
 432

433 LC models have become popular to investigate the role of various processing heuristics
 434 such as attribute non-attendance (ANA), imposing restrictions on particular parameters
 435 within the different latent classes in order to investigate attribute processing rules (e.g.
 436 Scarpa et al., 2009; Campbell et al., 2011; Nair et al., 2012). We have considered a 4-
 437 class model where three of the classes are specified as full attribute attendance (FAA),
 438 allowing beta parameters to freely distribute across and within them, while the fourth
 439 class introduces ANA for the cost parameter. This strategy allows optimal allocation of
 440 zero bidders to class 4 and improves overall fit and model outcomes⁵. Furthermore, we
 441 considered the attitudinal variables related to funding options for the MBP
 442 agroecosystems and the income level of the respondents as covariates that contribute to
 443 explain the probabilistic membership of respondents to the different latent classes. The
 444 LC model is reported in Table 4 and it was estimated using Latent Gold software.
 445

446 Since the DCE method is consistent with utility maximisation and demand theory
 447 (Bateman et al., 2003), parameter estimates can be used as input for welfare estimating to
 448 calculate the monetary value that individuals allocate to certain changes from the current
 449 situation.

450 For the linear utility index, the marginal rate of substitution between income and the
 451 attribute in question, i.e. the marginal WTP for a change in the attribute or implicit price
 452 for attribute, can be represented as the ratio of the coefficient for any attribute to the
 453 negative of the coefficient for the price attribute with all else remaining constant
 454 (Louviere et al., 2000).

$$455 \quad WTP = -\beta / \beta_{cost}$$

⁵ We are grateful to one of the reviewers for suggesting this modelling option.

456 In the case of the LC model, the WTP has to be averaged across classes to produce a
457 global estimate. This is undertaken by using the posterior probabilities as weights.

458 **4 Results**

459 **4.1 Preference for the DCE attributes: RPL model**

460 Table 3 reports the results of the RPL model. These indicate that four attributes
461 contributed to shape the preferences of the respondents, two of them related to the breed
462 and its management while the remaining two concerned the agroecosystem. The
463 parameter for the ASC indicated an overall preference for the status quo option, else
464 equal. Reducing the risk of extinction for the breed to medium and low levels contributed
465 significantly to shape the preferences of the respondents, with the latter determining their
466 preferences to a higher extent. The indoor breeding of the MBP retrieved negative
467 preference estimates, indicating that this type of management reduces the utility of the
468 respondents and that societal support existed for the base level, which is traditional
469 outdoor extensive management. Increasing the diversity in tree polycultures also
470 contributed to positively shaping the preferences of the respondents.

471 The significant and high value of the standard deviation of the ASC parameter implied
472 that not all individuals within the sample may prefer the current scenario. The standard
473 deviation was also found statistically significant for low risk of extinction, high landscape
474 heterogeneity, indoor management and medium product variety. Its magnitude for the
475 three latter attributes indicates that beyond mean negative estimates, positive preferences
476 may also be found across the sampled respondents. These estimates presume high
477 variation in preferences for some of the attributes and led us to explore them from a
478 discrete perspective employing LC modelling.

479 Finally, the significant interaction terms between the medium and low risk of extinction
480 levels with the funding options for the MP agroecosystems indicated relevant
481 heterogeneity around the mean estimates of these attribute levels. More specifically,
482 breed conservation was positively considered by the individuals willing to contribute via
483 taxes and negatively regarded by the supporters of increases in product prices.

484

485

486 **Table 3. Results of the random parameter logit model**

	Estimate	Std. deviation ^a
ASC	2.4315***	14.9464***
Breed existence: M_RISK	0.9196***	0.0307
Breed existence: L_RISK	1.3794***	1.0768***
Type of management: OUT-IN DOOR	-0.3149	0.1838
Type of management: INDOOR	-0.5548***	1.1693***
Tree crops: number of tree species	0.3291***	0.0496
Type of landscape: MEDIUM heterog.	-0.3487*	0.0991
Type of landscape: HIGH heterog.	-0.1925	0.4149*
Product variety: MEDIUM	-0.1542	1.3697***
Product variety: HIGH	0.0885	0.3937
COST	-0.0258***	0.0258***
Non-random parameters in utility functions		
M_RISK * PAY_PRICE	-0.65027**	
L_RISK * PAY_PRICE	-0.6819*	
L_RISK * PAY_TAXES	0.9789***	
<i>Model diagnostics</i>		
Loglikelihood	-1224.948	
McFadden's pseudo-R2	0.5352	
AIC	2497.9	
AIC/n	1.041	
Observations	2400	
Number of draws	500	

487 ***1% significance level. **5% significance level. *10% significance level.

488 ^aThe standard deviation is estimated based on the spread (s) of the distribution estimates.

489 The standard deviation equals $s/\sqrt{6}$.

490 **4.2 Preference for the DCE attributes: LC model**

491 A 4-class LC model with fixed parameters and where the cost attribute was modelled as
 492 equal to zero and non-significant in the fourth segment was selected as the best performing
 493 model and it is displayed in table 4. This model allowed exploring heterogeneity in
 494 preferences from a discrete perspective, in contrast with the previous RPL model where
 495 preferences are modelled in a continuous fashion. The estimates of the cost parameter are
 496 significant and of the expected sign in the three classes where full attribute attendance
 497 was allowed in the modelling phase.

498 Class 1 comprised 47% of the respondents. The value of the constant was positive and
 499 significant, indicating an overall preference for alternative management scenarios.
 500 Significant preferences were also found for reducing the risk of extinction of MBP to
 501 medium and low levels. Respondents in this class rejected indoor breed management and
 502 showed a positive preference for increasing the tree crop species as well as the variety of
 503 MBP products to high levels. This class was best described as “agroecosystem
 504 conservationist” since different dimensions from breed to management, trees or products
 505 determined their preferences.

506 Class 2 comprised 14% of the sample. Preferences of respondents in this class were
 507 determined by a narrower list of attributes. While they showed positive preferences for

508 increasing tree and product diversity, they rejected the high landscape diversity. This class
509 was named as “breed indifferent”.

510 Class 3 gathered 12% of the sample. In contrast with the previous class, preferences of
511 respondents were strongly driven by medium and low extinction levels for the MBP
512 breed. They also showed positive and significant preferences for indoor management and
513 rejected improvements in tree species, landscape and product diversity. Thus, we named
514 this class as “breed conservationists”.

515 Class 4 comprised 27% of the sample and the estimate of the cost attribute was equated
516 to zero prior to the model estimation in order to deterministically identify zero bidders.
517 The non-monetary attributes in this class retrieve non-significant estimates.

518 Considering the effects of the covariates (attitudinal and income variables) on the
519 individuals’ class assignment, it should be noted that Class 1 represents the reference
520 group. Therefore, the interpretation of the significant covariate coefficients should be
521 made considering that an individual is more (or less) likely to belong to the given class
522 than to class 1. Respondents that agree with financing conservation policies via product
523 price increase are more likely to be found in Class 2 (breed indifferent class). Individuals
524 preferring financing it via tax increase are more likely to be found in class 3 (breed aware
525 group) and less likely to be found in classes 2 and 4 (breed indifferent and zero bidders
526 classes, respectively). The higher the income, the more likely it is to find these individuals
527 in class3 while the opposite applies for class 4.

528

Table 4. Results of the latent class model

	CLASS 1	CLASS 2	CLASS 3	CLASS 4	OVERALL	
Class Size	0.47	0.14	0.12	0.27	Wald p-value	Wald (=) p-value
ASC alternative 1	4.1261***	0.4716	-4.8757	-9.8824	0.000	0.001
ASC alternative2	4.404***	0.3407	-6.1975	-8.0931		
Breed existence: M_RISK	0.5589***	-0.0212	19.206***	-1.2141	0.000	0.19
Breed existence: L_RISK	0.9347***	0.2386	19.3933***	1.0734		
Type of management: OUT-IN DOOR	-0.2793	0.477	-5.8175**	-0.8541	0.017	0.066
Type of management: INDOOR	-0.2978**	-0.4487	4.0247***	-1.652		
Tree crops: number of tree species	0.207**	0.5639**	-1.0399*	1.6251	0.037	0.11
Type of landscape: MEDIUM heterog.	-0.2834	-0.143	-4.363*	-1.2035	0.022	0.024
Type of landscape: HIGH heterog.	-0.0792	-0.9359**	1.7242	-1.6142		
Product variety: MEDIUM	0.0232	0.424	0.7692	-0.3059	0.029	0.086
Product variety: HIGH	0.2671**	0.698**	-2.6009**	2.0003		
COST	-0.0142***	-0.0284**	-0.1739***	0	0.0000	0.0000
Covariates						
Finance via prices:PAY PRICE	ref	2.268***	-0.870	1.875		
Finance via taxes: PAY TAXES	ref	-2.703***	1.600***	-2.582***		
Income	ref	-0.187	0.376**	-0.224**		
Log likelihood	-1009.7405					
BIC	2347.1056					
AIC	2137.481					
AIC3	2196.481					
R2	0.532					
Respondents	257					
Parameters	59					

531 **4.3 WTP estimation**

532 Estimates for WTP are reported jointly for the RPL and LC model in table 5. The last
533 column corresponds to overall estimates for the LC model considering posterior
534 probability weights for the latent classes. The RPL model retrieved positive and
535 significant estimates for reducing the breed risk of extinction. The low risk of extinction
536 level obtained the highest welfare estimates, with 53.45€ per household and year. This
537 value would be reduced in 26.42€ for these individuals willing to pay a higher price in
538 MBP products to support conservation programs and increased in 37.93€ for those
539 respondents willing to support the agroecosystem through tax increases. The medium risk
540 of extinction on average increased the welfare of respondents in 35.63€ with respect to
541 the status quo situation. This value, however, was reduced in 25.19€ on average for the
542 respondents willing to pay higher prices for MBP products. Finally, the increase in tree
543 species also obtained positive significant estimates with 12.75€. Indoor management on
544 average produced a disutility in the respondents, -21.49€ per household, who should be
545 theoretically compensated.

546 The WTP estimates obtained for the LC model revealed similar patterns to these shown
547 in the preference analysis. Respondents in class 1 and 3 showed high estimates for
548 supporting breed conservation, with the later revealing estimates beyond 110 € per
549 household and year for both attribute levels. Differently from RPL outcomes,
550 management levels were significant only in class3, where indoor management retrieved
551 positive estimates. Improving the number of tree species was supported by individuals in
552 class 1 and 2 while landscape attribute levels were either not contributing to welfare gains
553 or resulted in negative and significant estimates in class 3 for high heterogeneity levels.
554 The high variety of products positively contributed to the welfare of respondents in class1
555 and class2 (18.82€ and 24.56 €, respectively) while the opposite applied for class 3
556 respondents (-14.95€ per household).

557

558

Table 5. Implicit prices (€/household year) and 95% confidence intervals of WTP estimates

	RPL model	LC model				
		CLASS 1	CLASS 2	CLASS 3	CLASS 4	OVERALL
Breed existence: M RISK	35.63***(18.36, 52.90)	39.37*** (12.32, 66.41)	-0.75 (-30.87, 29.38)	110.42*** (54.38, 166.47)	0.00	32.15
Breed existence: L RISK	53.45*** (32.17, 74.72)	65.84***(30.70, 100,99)	8.40 (-23.61, 40.40)	111.50*** (55.76, 167.24)	0.00	44.71
Type of management: OUT-IN DOOR	-12.20 (-33.35, 8.95)	-19.68 (-58.20, 18.84)	16.78 (-14.27, 47.83)	-33.45*** (-47.81, -19.08)	0.00	-4.14
Type of management: INDOOR	-21.49** (-42.30, -0.69)	-20.97 (-52.18, 10.23)	-15.79 (-48.86, 17.28)	23.14*** (14.66, 31.62)	0.00	2.86
Tree crops: number of tree species	12.75*** (4.42, 21.09)	14.58** (-0.19, 29.36)	19.84** (0.74, 38.94)	-5.98 (-13.57, 1.61)	0.00	9.54
Type of landscape: MEDIUM heterog.	-13.51 (-30.32, 3.30)	-19.96 (-53.36, 13.44)	-5.03 (-39.55, 29.49)	-25.08*** (-40.07, -10.10)	0.00	-3.10
Type of landscape: HIGH heterog.	-7.46 (-23.42, 8.51)	-5.58 (-31.98, 20.82)	-32.93 (-76.69, 10.84)	9.91 (-8.01, 27.84)	0.00	n.s.
Product variety: MEDIUM	-5.97 (-23.37, 11.43)	1.63 (-28.07, 31.34)	14.92 (-14.26, 44.10)	4.42 (18.19, 17.03)	0.00	n.s.
Product variety: HIGH	3.43 (-6.64, 13.50)	18.82** (1.42, 36.21)	24.56** (0.86, 48.25)	-14.95*** (-23.19, -6.72)	0.00	10.32
M RISK * PAY PRICE	-25.19* (-51.84, 1.46)					
LOW RISK * PAY PRICE	-26.42* (-57-33, 4.50)					
LOW RISK * PAY TAXES	37.93*** (9.29, 66.57)					

559

561 **5 Discussion**

562 The MBP and its related agroecosystem represent a traditional management model
563 hosting high biodiversity levels and providing ecosystem services to society that are
564 however, threatened by abandonment due to its reduced profitability (Marull et al. 2015b).
565 This study assessed through a DCE valuation survey, the social preferences for key
566 dimensions of the MBP agroecosystem through attributes that have an impure public good
567 character, accrue several relevant values for society and, importantly, can be influenced
568 by policy mixes of agroecosystem conservation and product innovation.

569 **5.1 Societal demand for MBP agroecosystems**

570 Our results identify a majority in the sampled respondents that supports the enhancement
571 of breed conservation status, the tree species diversity and the increase in product
572 diversity. In contrast, the high preference heterogeneity found in some of the attributes
573 may contribute to the larger variances of the data (Pouta et al., 2014; Sælensminde, 2006;
574 Zander et al., 2013). In this situation, the complementary views offered by discrete (RPL)
575 and continuous (LC) modelling approaches may provide insights into the results obtained.

576 Furthermore, the distinctive way that covariates enter the two models, allowed us to
577 disentangle the role played by tax and product price increase in determining preferences
578 for breed conservation status (RPL) while identifying the membership of the respondents
579 agreeing with each of the funding options proposed (LC) to different preference patterns.
580 Our results show that these respondents agreeing with tax increase to improve the MBP
581 agroecosystem conservation are highly concerned with breed conservation status (RPL)
582 and have a narrow preference scheme (LC- class 3), where the high concern about the
583 breed overrides the rest of elements of the agroecosystem in their preference framing.
584 This result reinforces the necessity to inform wide audiences about the linkages between
585 breed and agroecosystem conservation. The preservation of the MBP breed, tightly linked
586 to the heritage of the island, may raise high social concern and hence respondents being
587 inclined to favour what they considered as a moral duty over their budget restrictions.
588 This type of behaviour may be explained by either simplified heuristics or real preferences
589 (Sælensminde et al., 2006). Both the positive and significant value of the interaction
590 between low risk of extinction and tax increase together with the higher likelihood of
591 finding these respondents in class 3 add evidence to the latter.

592 In contrast, the respondents that agree on price increases in MBP products to fund
593 improvements in the MBP agroecosystem are less concerned about breed conservation
594 (RPL) and are more likely to be found in class 2, where the highest WTP estimates are
595 obtained for high product variety. These results would suggest that beyond standard
596 considerations of extrinsic quality dimensions such as heritage and culture (Ilbery and
597 Kneafsey, 1999), it may also be important to strive for superior sensory properties when
598 innovating in traditional product variety (Bernués et al., 2015; Kallas et al., 2019) to
599 expand the market of potential buyers. Indeed, the special qualities of MBP meat appeals
600 to niche buyers and it may command a substantial price premium compared against
601 mainstream alternative products (Balogh et al., 2016; Kallas et al., 2019).

602 Insensitiveness of respondents to the cost of the alternatives and exhibition of
603 lexicographic preferences has been reported previously in studies assessing societal
604 preferences for biodiversity conservation (Hanley et al., 1998; Sælensminde, 2006) or
605 environmental public goods linked to farming activities (Campbell, 2006; Pouta et al.,
606 2014; Scarpa et al., 2009; van Zanten et al., 2016b). The LC approach is particularly well
607 suited to identify non-compensatory decision rules that are frequent when respondents
608 express their values (Rosenberger et al., 2003) or when an attribute is considered of
609 relatively high importance (Blamey et al., 2002; Luce et al., 2000). In our study, we set a
610 deterministic rule in the LC model to allocate to class 4 these respondents that did not
611 attend the cost attribute. Similarly to previous studies on societal preferences and
612 traditional breeds (Pouta et al., 2014; Zander et al., 2013), approximately one third of the
613 sampled respondents are identified as zero bidders while some other studies report even
614 a higher share of respondents selecting this option (Martin-Collado et al., 2014). In the
615 study by Pouta et al. (2014) these respondents considered that farmers held a higher
616 responsibility than citizens on conservation programs. Similarly, in our study these
617 respondents that preferred conservation programs to be supported via taxes are less likely
618 to be found in this group. Lower income respondents are more likely to be in this group
619 what somehow aligns with the lower education profiles in the study by Pouta et al. (2014)
620 that showed this preference pattern.

621 The large standard deviations found on indoor management estimates in RPL are further
622 disentangled through LC modelling, where 12% of the sample considered it positively.
623 The average negative preference pattern identified in the RPL model for indoor breeding
624 most likely is linked with meat quality concerns and not with outdoor breeding as a proxy
625 for welfare (Burnier et al., 2021). This may also contribute to explain the results obtained
626 in Class3 where respondents may presumably have little knowledge about the MBP
627 agroecosystem.

628 In the case of the landscape attribute, we obtained similar results to these of Martin-
629 Collado et al. (2014) where respondents were indifferent towards improvements on this
630 dimension. Indeed, some of our respondents showed negative values for increases in
631 landscape heterogeneity that would deserve further exploration. The pictures employed
632 in the survey were selected by landscape ecologists working in the island and thoroughly
633 tested in focus group sessions and in the pilot survey; hence, we do not consider that a
634 lack of understanding is the reason underpinning these estimates. Rather, another
635 potential interpretation is that given the decreasing share of heterogeneous landscapes in
636 the central part of the island (Marull et al. 2015a), a negative perception among the
637 participants of these landscapes may be due to a lack of identification may be present
638 (Schaak and Musshoff, 2020). Another possible explanation as stated by some of the rural
639 dwellers in the focus group sessions is that the less diverse landscapes are more amenable
640 to crop cultivation presenting less burden to mechanization. This can be one of the
641 preference drivers among the rural share of the sample.

642 **5.2 Land use and policy implications**

643 Rendering these breeds and their agroecosystems viable relates to multidimensional
644 policies and mechanisms that, on the one hand reward for the provision of public goods

645 and the opportunity costs related to maintaining and enhancing these breeds while on the
646 other hand, support strategies aimed at increasing their profitability.

647 Our findings show that societal support exists for both taxpayer money to support breed
648 conservation and price increase in premium products to stimulate innovation in meat –
649 based products from traditional breeds. Where linked with premium quality, niche
650 product opportunities may also be worth exploring, reinforcing their cultural dimensions
651 (Martín-Collado et al., 2014) to attract wider audiences that are concerned about breed
652 conservation but are unaware of its linkage with the environment.

653 A complementary approach would be to apply market-based incentives such as payments
654 for environmental services (PES) for the conservation of genetic resources (Narloch et
655 al., 2011) that can be framed as conservation contracts for supplying farm animal genetic
656 resources (Wainwright et al., 2019) as well as agroecosystem conservation.

657 **6 Conclusions**

658 Traditional breeds are tightly linked to extensive agrarian systems and are related to high
659 natural value farming areas. Their vulnerability due to present economic conditions also
660 threatens the landscapes where they thrive since their adaptive traits render marginal lands
661 economically viable (Gandini and Villa, 2003; Hoffmann and Scherf, 2010).

662 The Majorcan black pig farming system is a paragon example since evidence suggests
663 that a great deal of the biodiversity currently existing in the island may actually be
664 associated to the remaining agricultural and forest mosaics still worked by the local
665 peasantry (Marull et al., 2015a). The protection of values tied to traditional breeds and
666 cultural landscapes calls for approaches directly targeted at agricultural policy with the
667 integration of effective support for low-intensity use (Hill et al., 2004).

668 Despite some categories of value are incommensurate and thus not easily amenable to
669 trade-offs (Adamowicz et al., 1998), our results on societal preferences for the MBP
670 breeding agroecosystem call for a policy mix where breed conservation and enhancement
671 of landscape diversity may work synergistically with product innovation by
672 simultaneously addressing public funding and premium niche markets for overall system
673 viability.

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