

1 **Agro-biodiversity of Mediterranean crops: farmers' preferences in support of a**
2 **conservation programme for olive landraces**

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7

8 **Abstract**

9 The study focused on the willingness to participate in a conservation programme for olive
10 landraces by farmers in Apulia, Italy. The choice experiment approach through a latent class
11 model was carried out in order to investigate different characteristics of farmers which could
12 increase the effectiveness and efficiency of conservation strategies by policy makers.

13 The analysis identified three groups of respondents, each of which with very different
14 characteristics: capitalist farms with high profit level managed by farmers unwilling to take part
15 in a conservation programme; small and fragmented family farms managed by older farmers
16 fully in favour of the programme; young farmers with low capital input, but willing to engage
17 with a minimum participation in the programme.

18 Policy implications suggest the need to develop markets able to appreciate the characteristics
19 of the local olive oils, to involve farmers in marketing training programmes for a better placing
20 of local products in the market, to support the young farmers and family farming, to set suitable
21 policies which are able to trigger a more incisive involvement of women in conservation
22 programmes.

23 Such a holistic approach could generate welfare for all agents of the supply chain, in terms
24 of profit, environment, food security and nutritional aspects.
25

26 **Keywords:** Agricultural biodiversity; Apulia; Choice experiment; Latent class model; Olive
27 landrace.
28

29 **1. Introduction**

30 A prime role in matters of agricultural biodiversity is held by landraces, i.e. local varieties
31 of domesticated plant (but also animal) species that have adapted to the natural and cultural
32 local environment (Pascual et al., 2013; Krasteva et al., 2009; Scholten et al., 2009). Their
33 cultivation over the centuries in traditional systems enabled the production of food and forage,
34 the minimization of risk and the stabilization of yields, the improvement of soil structure
35 (Brussaard et al., 2007; Mahon et al., 2016), as well as the utilization of agricultural practices
36 based on low levels of technology and inputs (Altieri, 2004; Jackson et al., 2013; Caldeira et
37 al., 2001; Martin et al., 2009; Srivastava et al., 1996; Hammer and Diederichsen, 2009;
38 Veteläinen et al., 2009; Xie et al., 2011), in particular water, fertilizers, pesticides and fuel.
39 Furthermore, in modern agriculture, landraces could be used to develop, through plant breeding,
40 new varieties with increased yield, quality production and resistance to a wider range of biotic
41 and abiotic stresses (Mohammadi et al., 2015; Moreira et al., 2009; Cassman et al., 2003;
42 Ceccarelli, 1996), also in response to the ongoing climate changes (Mercer et al., 2012;
43 Vasconcelos et al., 2013; FAO, 2008), a threat particularly for the agricultural systems in
44 southern Europe (Thuiller et al., 2005).

45 However, over the last decades, agricultural ecosystems in several areas of the world have
46 increasingly lost their biological diversity based on local landraces for modern intensive
47 cropping systems based on monoculture farming, in order to increase the global food supply
48 through genotypes characterized by high yields, but also by high levels of inputs (Matson et al.,
49 1997; Evenson and Gollen, 2003). The most important anthropogenic cause of this loss is the
50 rapid change in land use, with subsequent reduction of habitat fragmentation and landscape
51 complexity in agro-ecosystems and wild lands, as well as loss of traditional knowledge
52 associated with the cultivation of the typical local varieties (MEA, 2005). This process stems
53 from the economic decisions of sector agents, namely farmers, agribusiness and governments
54 (Perrings et al., 2006), with significant implications for biodiversity conservation strategies in
55 agro-ecosystems. In this regard, private land use decisions by farmers regarding the level of on-
56 farm agro-biodiversity usually depend on food, fuel and fibre markets (Smale et al., 2001) and
57 on the assessment of the private net benefits (Pascual and Perrings, 2007). Moreover, the market
58 does not reward social benefits of crop genetic diversity and farmers have no private incentive
59 to its conservation (Perrings, 2001; Meinard and Grill, 2011; Nunes and Van den Bergh, 2001).

60 One of the solutions consists of the realignment of private interests of farmers with those of
61 society through a regulatory system, which allows creation of favourable conditions for the
62 investment in agro-biodiversity conservation by farmers (Bellon, 2004; Narloch et al., 2013;
63 Narloch et al., 2015; Wale, 2008; Smale et al., 2003; Bellon et al., 2015; Narloch et al., 2011).
64 On this point, an effective and efficient agro-biodiversity conservation strategy involves (i) a
65 detailed assessment of the financial resources for incentivizing the participation of farmers in
66 on-farm conservation programmes and (ii) the way in which a programme design influences
67 such participation. Indeed, the characteristics of a programme regard different groups of
68 stakeholders (farmers), which typically exhibit different expectations in terms of benefits. Such
69 a diversity of expectations requests information concerning the preferences of these groups, so
70 that decision makers could create strategies able to avoid conflicts generated by non-fair
71 compensations.

72 The assessment of incentives to farmers quantified on the characteristics of the conservation
73 programmes is desirable as only decisions based on stakeholder's preferences and expectations
74 can be used in agro-biodiversity conservation planning (Ruto and Garrod, 2009). These
75 characteristics (attributes) can be investigated via an economic valuation, whereby monetary
76 values are assigned to changes in the quantity/quality of the measured attributes related to
77 farmer preferences. Information on these preferences enables better informed decision making
78 through the setting of priorities and the highlighting of those attributes that affect stakeholders'
79 benefits. A possible valuation approach could be based on the choice experiment (CE) method
80 which, starting from the farmers' preferences, allows the outlining of better conservation
81 strategies, resulting in policies more focussed to the needs of farmers and consumers. Moreover,
82 such valuations can be used in broader benefit-cost analyses of public investment policies.

83 In this regard, the paper investigates i) the farmers' attitude to participate in an on-farm
84 conservation programme for local olive landraces in Apulia, southern Italy, and ii) how the
85 socioeconomic and structural farm characteristics of farmers influence their preferences for the
86 programme. Due to the absence of market observations, we carried out a CE, a questionnaire-
87 based stated preference approach that allows understanding of farmers preferences and the
88 design of new agricultural markets (Lusk and Hudson, 2004; Windle et al., 2005). Based on

89 conjoint analysis and discrete choice theory (Louviere and Woodworth, 1983; Train, 2009), it
90 was applied for the first time for environmental goods (Adamowicz et al., 1994) at the
91 beginning of the 90s. The CE is able to estimate the total economic value (TEV), inclusive of
92 use and non-use values which, in the case of environmental goods such as agro-biodiversity,
93 are often prominent compared to the first ones (Provins et al., 2008). Unlike contingent
94 valuation (Rocchi et al., 2016; Krishna et al., 2013), another stated preference method in which
95 respondents are invited to express themselves on just two alternatives (status quo and
96 hypothetical scenario), the CE is based on more hypothetical scenarios in choice tasks, properly
97 selected from all the possible ones according to statistical design principles. Each choice task
98 is constituted of alternatives, defined by different combination of attributes and respective
99 levels. Hence the researcher asks respondents to choose, for each choice task, the preferred
100 alternative, i.e. the one which gives the greatest relative utility, in order to reveal their
101 preferences (Hensher et al., 2015). The aim is the assessment of the importance (weight) that
102 respondents place on each of the attributes, which define the alternatives. When applied to
103 agricultural producers, CE offers an alternative to the profit maximisation paradigm,
104 particularly in the presence of risk (Barry et al., 2009; Robison, 1982).

105 Several recent CE studies were carried out on the potential supply of environmental services
106 by farmers (Asrat et al., 2010; Birol and Rayn Villalba, 2006a; Beharry-Borg et al., 2013; Broch
107 et al., 2013; Christensen et al., 2011). In this paper we measured the willingness to accept
108 (WTA), which in a CE study can be less liable to strategic bias (Burton, 2010; Schläpfer and
109 Fischhoff, 2012), overall if respondents have a high degree of familiarity with the good in hand,
110 as well as with the participation to government programmes for the provision of environmental
111 services (Romy et al., 2014).

112 The paper contributes to the literature in two ways. First, no applied economic study
113 investigated the determinants of farmers' preferences and farms' structure for the conservation
114 of Mediterranean plant species in general, and in Italy in particular. Second, this study adds to
115 the growing literature that employs the CE method to estimate the farmer valuation of
116 Mediterranean agro-biodiversity components (Ndjeunga and Nelson, 2005; Birol et al., 2006b).
117 Findings have implications for debates concerning the conservation of Mediterranean species
118 and associated costs and benefits, allowing verification of the suitability of conservation
119 strategies in force and the designing of future ad hoc and cost-effective on-farm programmes.

120

121 **2. Olive biodiversity in Apulia**

122 The world olive production is ca. 20 million tonnes yr⁻¹ on 9.6 million hectares. In particular,
123 97% of production and 92% of area are in the Mediterranean countries, among which Italy is
124 the second most important producer (16% of production on 12% of area), behind Spain and
125 followed by Greece (FAOSTAT, 2011).

126 In Italy, Apulia has 33% (373.000 hectares) of the national olive area and 30% (1 000 000
127 tonnes) of the national olive production (ISTAT, 2010), confirming its leading role in the olive
128 sector of the country. In this region the olive tree is perfectly adapted to the local climate and
129 produces high quality olive oil (Fontanazza, 2005), thus making this cultivation an important
130 economic and employment resource. Moreover, the high number of farmers and the limited
131 availability of land has led, over the past years, to the establishment of a significant number of
132 small-sized farms of less than 1 hectare (ISTAT, 2010), often based on a family management.

133 This structural characteristic, indeed common to several territories in southern Italy, fostered
134 an olive oil production based mainly on local varieties, contributing to the maintenance of the
135 regional agro-biodiversity (Corrado et al., 2011). In this connection, Italy holds the largest
136 number of olive collections (17% of 2,629), followed by Spain, Iran and USA. Besides, there
137 are ca. 600 olive cultivars (Bertolini et al., 1998), mostly cultivated in limited local areas, while
138 in Apulia, in the last years, 75 olive landraces have been recognized (Apulia Region, 2015; pp.
139 697-698) and further 45 are cited in bibliographies but not yet identified (INEA, 2013).

140 The 2014-2020 Rural Development Programme of Apulia (Apulia Region, 2015) provides
141 funds to farmers in order to incentivize the on-farm conservation, reintroduction and production
142 of cereal, legumes, fruit, olive, vine and horticultural landraces (sub-measure 10.1.4). These
143 varieties are contained in a proper regional register and have been selected on the basis of the
144 genetic erosion risk (two classes). It concerns the speed by which the genomic variety is lost
145 and is calculated with reference to the greater difficulty for farmers in finding the reproductive
146 material and to the lack of demand. The premium per hectare/year is supplied to farmers who
147 undertake to cultivate the local varieties for at least five years. For the olive landraces (listed in
148 the Rural Development Programme, pp. 697-698), the monetary aids are 153 € ha⁻¹ (risk level
149 1) and 161 € ha⁻¹ (risk level 2). The payment is calculated on the additional costs and income
150 losses consequent to the cultivation of the local varieties with respect to the ordinary ones.

151

152 **3 Materials and methods**

153 **3.1 The questionnaire**

154 The survey questionnaire was divided into three sections. The first one collected the farmers'
155 opinions about some issues related to the Apulian olive landraces, such as farming technique,
156 market preferences, knowledge about the extinction risk, possible interventions for their
157 conservation, etc. At the end of the first section, respondents were informed about the current
158 state of the genetic erosion of the regional olive biodiversity. Therefore, the importance for its
159 conservation was argued in order to benefit sustainable agriculture, environmental protection,
160 food security and the promotion of the historical and cultural aspects for current and future
161 generations. Illustrative material about some olive landraces was shown.

162 In the second section, respondents were asked to make choices about possible action plans
163 aimed at preserving the local cultivars. For each choice task a question was inserted in order to
164 investigate the certainty of choice on a 0-5 scale. The section ended with a question about the
165 reasons behind the respondents' choice in order to identify protest answers, strategic attitudes,
166 etc.

167 Finally, the third section contained socioeconomic and structural questions on the farmers
168 and their own farms (sex, age, marital status, education level, farm characteristics, farming
169 experience, gross margin, machinery value, operating costs, etc.).

170 In this way, the analysis of farmers' attitude in relation to their participation in the
171 conservation programme focused on two aspects (Romy et al., 2014). On one hand the
172 characteristics of the programme, captured as attributes in the choice tasks, on the other the
173 farm and personal characteristics of respondents gathered through the third section of the
174 questionnaire. The latter ones were used in the model specification in order to investigate their
175 influence on the participation programme and to detect any source of heterogeneity.

176

177 **3.2 The choice experiment and the survey design**

178 In this study, because of the considerable sample size (Flynn et al., 2007), we applied the
 179 “pick-one” responses’ format which, capturing the first preference, resembles real life decision-
 180 making. On the number of alternatives, which has the second largest influence on error
 181 variances out of all design dimensions (Caussade et al., 2005), a 3-alternative design (with the
 182 “no option”) was adopted as it seems to generate more participation compared to a 2-alternative
 183 design (Rolfe and Bennett, 2009). The insertion of the “no option” also ensured conceptual
 184 validity of the design for the voluntary nature of participation in a payments-for-agro-
 185 biodiversity programme. The alternatives were unlabelled (Louviere et al., 2000) in order to
 186 better investigate the role of attributes by farmers. Moreover, unlabelled alternatives seem to
 187 increase attention of respondents (de Bekker-Grob, 2009).

188 The attributes and their levels (Table 1) were selected through 4 focus group meetings (each
 189 of circa 50 minutes) involving olive oil growers (3) and trade-union organizations (2). The
 190 meetings were conducted in four Apulian municipal territories with the highest olive utilised
 191 agricultural area (Andria, Bitonto, Cerignola and Ostuni; ISTAT, 2010). The objectives
 192 concerned the illustration of the research framing and the definition of the attributes and
 193 respective levels for the settlement of a programme bent on the conservation of the olive
 194 landraces in Apulia. Noteworthy is the typology of the attributes. In particular, the first two
 195 concerned some intrinsic farm characteristics (number of landraces and farm share dedicated to
 196 landraces), while the other two related to the characteristics of the hypothetical conservation
 197 programme. In this regard, the duration and the option of avoiding the participation were
 198 considered by the farmers as crucial elements of the programme. Since the monetary attribute
 199 has also a large influence on model outcomes (third largest influence on error variances out of
 200 all design dimensions; Caussade et al., 2005; Romy et al., 2014), the compensation levels were
 201 anchored to the calculation of the gross margin from the regional olive groves in the period
 202 2010-2015.

203

204 **Table 1**

205 Attributes and levels used in the choice experiment (the first level corresponds to the status quo).

Attribute	Definition	Levels
Olive landraces	Number of olive landraces cultivated in farm	0, 1, 2, 3
Farm share	Surface of farm used for the conservation programme (%)	0, 25, 50, 100
Duration	Duration of the conservation programme (Years)	0, 5, 10
Avoidance	Option to suspend the conservation programme	No, Yes
Remuneration	Annual payment received (€ ha ⁻¹)	100, 200, 300, 400, 500

206

207 An important step in the CE survey design concerns the definition of the experimental design,
 208 given the excessive number of alternatives resulting from the combination of the selected
 209 attributes and their respective levels. In this regard, while orthogonal designs are more prevalent
 210 in the literature, efficient designs have recently emerged leading to smaller standard errors in
 211 the model estimation (Bliemer and Rose, 2010; Bliemer and Rose, 2011). Furthermore, efficient
 212 designs are easier to find, often enabling much smaller designs in terms of number of choice
 213 sets. In this study we produced a D-efficient Bayesian design (Jaeger and Rose, 2008), which
 214 allowed the maximization of statistical efficiency by minimising D-error. Therefore, starting
 215 from 480 possible alternatives ($2^1 \times 3^1 \times 4^2 \times 5^1$), besides the “no choice” option, 42 profiles were

216 generated in Ngene (version 1.1.2, ChoiceMetrics, Sydney, Australia). Afterwards, 21 choice
 217 tasks were assembled and subdivided in 3 blocks of 7, so that each farmer completed one
 218 randomly assigned block (Table 2). The creation of blocks is necessary as a large number of
 219 choice sets could cause fatigue for the high cognitive effort of respondents (Weller et al., 2014).
 220 Finally, 600 interviews were planned, 200 for each block. They were stratified per province, on
 221 the number of olive-growing firms and on the related size classes (ISTAT, 2010).

222 Another critical aspect in choice modelling concerns the consistency between hypothetical
 223 and real choices (Hensher et al., 2012), which are assumed to be identical in theory. For this
 224 reason, a supplementary question was inserted at the end of each choice task (Brouwer et al.,
 225 2010) for investigating the certainty of the choice on a scale from 0 (very unsure) to 5 (very
 226 sure). In this way it is possible to account for the risk that respondents might attach to the choice
 227 of an alternative, improving the predictive power in the choice model (Hensher et al., 2012;
 228 Romy et al., 2014).

229 We used this overall design to survey 600 olive oil growers in Apulia in the period January-
 230 July 2015. Interviews were conducted face-to-face and lasted circa 40 minutes. Feedback on
 231 survey design, attributes and levels was gathered following each survey. However, a total of
 232 587 complete and coherent questionnaires were collected, while 13 were discarded as
 233 respondents did not complete the choice tasks or gave protest responses at the end of section
 234 two.

235

236 **Table 2**

237 Example of choice set used in the face-to-face interviews.

Attribute	Option A	Option B	No option
Olive oil landraces	3	1	Neither A nor B.
Farm share	50%	25%	I do not want
Duration	5 years	10 years	participate to the
Avoidance	No	Yes	regional
Olive oil commercial brand	Yes	Yes	conservation
Remuneration	€ 400	€ 200	programme

238

239 **3.3 The statistical method**

240 The econometric analysis was carried out through the latent class model (LCM). This
 241 approach, originally introduced by Lazarsfeld and Henry (1968), was extended by Goodman
 242 (1974) through the development of the maximum likelihood (ML) algorithm (Vermunt and
 243 Magidson, 2004).

244 In this study, LCM allowed the performance of simultaneously sample segmentation and
 245 segment-specific estimation of model parameters. The identified segments highlighted different
 246 farmers' preferences and sensitivity to the price of the proposed conservation policy in
 247 connection with socio-demographic and attitudinal farmers' characteristics, as well as with
 248 farms' economic elements, with crucial policy implications (Wedel and Kamakura, 2000). This
 249 approach is possible because the LCM considers farmers heterogeneous in their preferences. In
 250 particular, it assumes that farmer's behaviour depends on additional factors beyond those that
 251 are directly observable (individual and farm characteristics). It captures preference
 252 heterogeneity across classes, i.e. segments of respondents, but assumes homogeneous
 253 parameter estimates within each class (Greene and Hensher, 2003). However, the LCM does

254 not make any assumption on the form of the underlying heterogeneity, instead it assumes that
 255 individuals are implicitly sorted into a series of Q classes, with the classification unknown (i.e.,
 256 unobserved) for a particular individual.

257 In formal terms and on the basis of the random utility model (RUM), the utility (U) of a good
 258 can be expressed by an indirect utility function consisting of a deterministic component (V),
 259 related to observable attributes of the good, and a random error term component (ε), concerning
 260 all non-observable features that affect the choices of farmers (Luce, 1959; McFadden, 1973).
 261 Hence, for the farmer i and the observed alternative j :

$$262 \quad U_{ij} = V_{ij} + \varepsilon_{ij} \quad [1]$$

263
 264 The farmer i will choose the alternative j if $U_{ij} > U_{ik}, \forall j \neq k$, and the probability of this choice
 265 is expressed as:
 266

$$267 \quad \pi_{ij} = \Pr ob \left(V_{ij} + \varepsilon_{ij} > V_{ik} + \varepsilon_{ik} \quad j \neq k, \forall k \in J \right) \quad [2]$$

268
 269 On the basis of the logit form, the conditional choice probability of finding the farmer i in
 270 the class q for the observed alternative j is:
 271

$$272 \quad \pi_{ij|q} = \frac{\exp(\beta'_q x_{ij})}{\sum_{q=1}^Q \exp(\beta'_q x_{ij})} \quad [3]$$

273
 274 where x_i denotes a set of characteristics that are associated with class membership and β_q are
 275 specific class-related coefficients to estimate (Boxall and Adamowicz, 2002). The conditional
 276 probability that farmer i chooses the alternative j is:
 277

$$278 \quad \pi_{ij} = \sum_{q=1}^Q \pi_{iq} \pi_{ij|q} \quad [4]$$

279
 280 Finally, in order to best explain the choices of farmers, the estimation of the parameter values
 281 is carried out through the maximization of the log likelihood function:
 282

$$283 \quad \ln L = \sum_{i=1}^N \ln \left[\sum_{q=1}^Q \pi_{iq} \left(\prod_{t=1}^{T_i} \pi_{it|q} \right)^{y_{ij}} \right] \quad [5]$$

284
 285 where y_{ij} is one or zero if farmer i chooses the alternative j or not, respectively.
 286

287 The LCM specifications were estimated using NLOGIT version 5. For the choice of the
288 number of classes, the Akaike Information Criterion (AIC), Bayesian Information Criterion
289 (BIC) and the Bozdogan AIC (AIC3) were used.

290 On the calculation of the WTA for each attribute, i.e. the price premium that farmers are
291 willing to accept for adopting a specific characteristic of the proposed conservation policy, if
292 the utility is a linear function of all attributes, the WTA for an attribute level in the latent class
293 q was calculated as:

$$295 \quad WTA_A^q = -\left(\hat{\beta}_A^q / \hat{\beta}_P^q\right) \quad [6]$$

296
297 where WTA_A^q was the price premium accepted for the preferred level of attribute A in the class
298 q , while $\hat{\beta}_A^q$ and $\hat{\beta}_P^q$ were the estimated coefficients of the proposed policy and premium
299 attributes. For binary attributes, the marginal implicit price formula became (Hu et al., 2004):
300

$$301 \quad WTA_A^q = -2\left(\hat{\beta}_A^q / \hat{\beta}_P^q\right) \quad [7]$$

302
303 In order to relax the assumption that WTA is symmetrically distributed (Hole, 2007), 95%
304 confidence intervals for WTA estimates were created by the parametric bootstrapping technique
305 proposed by Krinsky and Robb (1986). It was based on the simulation of a distribution of 1,000
306 observations for each WTA estimate by figuring out a normal distribution on the basis of
307 coefficients and variances obtained from the models. Results are analogous to those of the delta
308 method.

309

310 **4 Results**

311 **4.1 Sample characteristics**

312 The sample was constituted, on average, of male and married growers, with 3 household
313 members, 9 years of schooling and an experience level of 27 years (Table 3). The farm size was
314 2.5 hectares, constituted by 3 plots. Olive landraces were present in 32% of farms and in just
315 25% of them was practiced the organic farming. The machinery had an actual value of 10,000
316 € ha⁻¹, the gross margin was circa 1,000 € ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ and 18% of owners had an off-farm income.
317 In past years, 31% of farmers benefited of EU aids and 1 farm out of 2 was located in areas
318 with intensive agriculture, according to the classification of the Apulia 2014-2020 RDP. Finally,
319 referring to the main three regional macro areas of the olive sector, the sample appeared quite
320 balanced compared to the number of farms (ISTAT, 2010).

321 On the whole, the variables' ranges showed a considerable variation, concerning both the
322 socio-economic characteristics (level of schooling and farming experience) and some important
323 structural elements of the sampled farms (farm size, number of plots and machinery value). For
324 this reason a LCM was implemented as to better understand the nature of this heterogeneity.

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326

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328
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Table 3
Descriptive statistics of the CE variables.

Variable	Code	N.	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min.	Max.
Male (Yes/No)	Male	587	0.71	0.12	0	1
Married (Yes/No)	Married	587	0.72	0.24	0	1
Household size (n.)	Household	587	3.13	0.20	1	5
Level of schooling (year)	Schooling	587	9.56	2.89	5	19
Experience in olive growing (years)	Experience	587	27.30	5.62	2	48
Farm size (hectares)	Farm	587	2.46	2.90	1.14	22.37
Number of plots	Plots	587	3	0.71	1	8
Landraces in farm (Yes/No)	Landraces	587	0.32	0.08	0	1
Organic farming (Yes/No)	Organic	587	0.25	0.12	0	1
Machinery value (€ ha ⁻¹) *	Machinery	587	10,230.12	3,447.21	6,290	23,920
Gross margin (€ ha ⁻¹ yr ⁻¹) **	Margin	587	1,074	205.60	617	2,101
Off-farm revenue (Yes/No)	Off-farm	587	0.18	0.02	0	1
Past EU aids (Yes/No)	Aid	587	0.31	0.10	0	1
Olive groves of farmer in intensive agriculture area (Yes/No) ***	Intensive	587	0.49	0.13	0	1
Easy credit access	Credit	587	0.29	0.10	0	1
Foggia area	F	182			0	1
Bari area	B	196			0	1
Brindisi-Taranto-Lecce area	B-T-L	209			0	1

* Another economic variable, namely the recourse to extra-family labour, was investigated but it was kept out by the analysis for the high correlation with the machinery value.

** Gross margin corresponds to revenues minus operating costs, these latter defined as: specific costs (fertilizers, pesticides, water, etc.) and other non-specific operating costs (upkeep of machinery, energy, contract work, taxes on land and buildings, etc.).

*** From the classification of the Apulia 2014-2020 RDP.

330

331 **4.2 CE results**

332 Consistent with our hypothesis, for which different groups of farmers have different
333 preferences for conservation strategies, the latent class analysis revealed distinct segments,
334 whose number selection was based on several criteria. In particular, BIC was minimised at three
335 segments, while AIC and AIC3 highlighted improvements at four and five segments (Table 4).

336

337

338 **Table 4**

339 Measures of model fit for the Multinomial logit (MNL) and Latent Class Models (LCM).

Model	Log-Likelihood	AIC ^a	BIC ^b	AIC3 ^c
MNL	-3928.11	7878.22	3963.17	7889.22
LCM2	-3739.72	7533.44	3825.78	7560.44
LCM3	-3510.56	7107.12	3647.62	7150.12
LCM4	-3475.47	7068.94	3663.53	7127.94
LCM5	-3450.26	7050.52	3689.32	7125.52

^a Akaike information criterion: $-2(LL-P)$

^b Bayesian information criterion: $-LL+(P/2) * \ln(N)$

^c Modified Akaike information criterion (Bozdogan AIC): $-2LL + 3P$

340

341 However, these last two marginal improvements were very small and the respective models
 342 included classes with no significant utility coefficients, unlike the three-segment model selected
 343 by BIC. Moreover, Andrews and Currim (2003) pointed out that BIC does not over-fit, unlike
 344 AIC. Besides, over-fitting causes greater parameter bias than under-fitting. Hence the model
 345 with three classes was selected.

346 For comparative purposes, a multinomial logit model (MNL) was carried out, in which
 347 respondents were treated as a homogenous group and all attributes had a significant effect on
 348 choices (Table 5). Noteworthy was the positive sign of the remuneration variable as indicating
 349 WTA, in line with expectations. Besides, the ASC (alternative specific constant) was positive
 350 and significant, indicating respondents wanted changes in the current state.

351 On the LCM, instead, the analysis highlighted three groups of farmers. The first one
 352 identified respondents with no conservation attitude (LCM1), equal to 32% of the sample. For
 353 this group most of attributes and levels were non-significant. The attitude for the conservation
 354 programme was expressed just for the cultivation of 1 olive landrace on the 25% of the farm,
 355 variables however with a low significance (0.10). On the contrary, this group expressed evident
 356 and certain aversion for the involvement of the whole farm in the programme, as well as in the
 357 case of a 10-year conservation programme. The only attribute with a high and positive
 358 preference regarded the possibility to avoid the participation to the programme. However, the
 359 positive and significant ASC pointed out respondents wanted changes in the current state.
 360 Looking at the socioeconomic variables of farmers, as well as to the structural characteristics
 361 of their own farms, the group included respondents with a good level of farming experience and
 362 a considerable farm size, basically not fragmented. Landraces were never cultivated in farm
 363 and organic farming was never practiced. These firms were characterized by high machinery
 364 value, considerable contribution of extra-family labour and high annual gross margin. The total
 365 revenue derived solely by the olive-growing activity in farm. Besides, these firms were located
 366 in the northern intensive-agriculture areas of the region, obtained CAP (Common Agricultural
 367 Policy) aids in the past and periodically had an easy credit access, mainly for capital renewal.
 368 Overall, the group was characterized by intensive farms with high contribution of capital and
 369 high production and profit levels, so that they were well placed in market. The cultivation of
 370 local landraces was considered as a probable cause of income losses and farmers' strategy was
 371 focused on the massive recourse to labour and capital productive factors.

372 The LCM2 group (52% of respondents), on the contrary, showed a considerable attitude
 373 toward the conservation programme, hence with opposite characteristics compared to the first
 374 group.

375

376 **Table 5**

377 Multinomial logit (MNL) and Latent Class Model (LCM) estimates of utility functions.

Class probability	MNL		LCM1		LCM2		LCM3 (reference class)	
	Coeff.	t	Coeff.	t	Coeff.	t	Coeff.	t
Utility function								
Olive landraces 1	0.929	7.21 ***	0.596	2.10 *	0.823	2.41 **	0.504	2.39 **
Olive landraces 2	0.728	2.32 **	0.792	1.58	1.472	8.49 ***	0.862	1.48
Olive landraces 3	0.380	2.09 *	-0.326	-1.67	1.047	2.38 **	0.262	1.03

Farm share 25	0.719	2.39	**	0.311	2.05	*	0.114	0.94	0.915	2.55	**	
Farm share 50	0.934	2.61	**	0.214	0.22		0.882	3.55	***	0.491	0.52	
Farm share 100	0.201	2.30	**	-1.669	-2.63	**	0.325	2.60	**	0.333	1.13	
Duration 5	0.739	2.28	**	0.757	1.07		0.290	2.28	**	1.265	2.79	**
Duration 10	0.279	1.96	*	-0.902	-2.13	*	0.613	2.32	**	0.201	1.51	
Avoidance	0.634	5.88	***	0.865	5.33	***	-0.012	-2.77	**	0.713	6.91	***
Remuneration	0.004	7.02	***	0.008	2.70	**	0.005	6.25	***	0.004	5.90	***
ASC	1.293	6.43	***	1.182	6.27	***	1.773	7.44	***	1.003	7.20	***
Segment probability function												
Male				0.582	1.05		-0.361	-2.06	*			
Married				0.273	0.72		0.123	0.41				
Household				0.592	1.02		-0.447	-1.09				
Schooling				0.460	2.10	*	-0.237	-2.51	**			
Experience				0.595	2.66	**	0.907	6.24	***			
Farm				0.727	5.55	***	-0.635	-2.60	**			
Plots				-0.830	-6.12	***	0.721	4.02	***			
Landraces				-1.202	-5.81	***	0.879	5.92	***			
Organic				-0.733	-2.30	**	0.793	4.71	***			
Machinery				0.931	1.95	*	-0.872	-2.74	**			
Margin				1.036	6.83	***	-0.557	-3.11	***			
Off-farm				-0.356	-1.26		-0.680	-1.88	*			
Aid				0.442	2.41	**	0.215	4.79	***			
Intensive				0.892	2.44	**	0.183	0.93				
Credit				0.936	1.80	*	-0.450	-2.65	**			
F				0.137	1.95	*	-0.597	-1.14				
B				0.224	2.13	*	-0.492	-0.81				
B-T-L				-0.240	-3.11	***	0.448	2.06	*			
Obs.	4,109									4,109		
McFadden pseudo-R ²	0.22									0.36		

***: sign. 1%; **: sign. 5%; *: sign. 10%.

378

379 The positive and significant ASC revealed the respondents' willingness to change the current
380 state, i.e. in moving from the status quo. The variables concerning attributes and levels were
381 highly significant and bent on the conservation of the olive landraces. In particular, farmers
382 were mainly willing to the cultivation of 2 landraces on the 50% of the farm. The presence of
383 3 local cultivars on the whole farm, instead, generated a reduction of preferences, while the
384 involvement of just 25% of farm in the programme was not considered important. Interesting
385 was the attribute concerning the programme duration, whose levels caused great interest, overall
386 for the 10-year programme. Finally, the possibility of avoiding the participation to the
387 programme was negatively considered by farmers. About the socioeconomic and structural
388 characteristics, these respondents had good experience in farming and lower years of schooling.
389 It was also interesting to observe the gender variable (sign. 0.10), according to which the female
390 entrepreneurs had a better attitude in the conservation programme.

391 The farm surface was rather small and fragmented, often cultivated by organic farming. On the
 392 contrary, the machinery value and the gross margin were lower and the income derived
 393 exclusively from the farming activity. Also these firms, located in the southern provinces of the
 394 region, benefited of the CAP aids in the past, but their access to credit was difficult or even
 395 absent. Overall, this group was made up of elderly farmers, which managed small family farms
 396 and were less prone to farming and technological innovations, so that the contribution of capital
 397 was very small. However, these respondents were aware of the problem and were very
 398 responsive to the conservation of the typical olive landraces, providing their own land for the
 399 conservation of this natural, economic and historical resource.

400 Finally, the LCM3 group (16% of respondents) was a reference class characterized by
 401 farmers with a good inclination towards the change in the status quo through the conservation
 402 programme (ASC positive and significant), but clearly preferred lower levels of the proposed
 403 attributes. In particular, these farmers were willing to cultivate just 1 olive variety on 25% of
 404 their own farms for 5 years, on condition, however, that the participation could be avoided.
 405 They were younger farmers with low experience operating in small farms in which olive
 406 landraces were cultivated and organic farming often practiced (sign. 0.10). Their agricultural
 407 activity was not profitable, so that off-farm earnings represented an important economic
 408 component. Besides, these farms benefited of EU premiums in the past, but their access to credit
 409 was difficult.

410 The remuneration variables in all 3 classes were positive and significant, as expected
 411 (WTAs). Table 6 shows the benefit measures for the models considered in the study. In this
 412 regard, the WTA for the conservation policy was 235 € ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ for the MNL model and 291 €
 413 ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ for the highest utility level in LCM2. For the other two classes, the welfare measure
 414 varied from 75 € ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ for LCM1 to 126 € ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ for LCM3.

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Table 6
 Mean WTAs (€ ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹), with 95% confidence interval in parenthesis.

	MNL	LCM1	LCM2	LCM3
Olive landraces 1	235.4 (119.3, 346.9)	75.7 (39.2, 101.7)	165.5 (94.4, 212.7)	126.1 (54.6, 182.9)
Olive landraces 2	186.2 (99.1, 267.5)		291.4 (211.3, 352.4)	
Olive landraces 3	91.8 (44.1, 130.7)		230.6 (129.8, 311.3)	
Farm share 25	178.3 (91.3, 262.8)	41.6 (22.5, 58.7)		224.6 (127.0, 302.2)
Farm share 50	234.6 (115.0, 324.7)		173.0 (91.7, 268.8)	
Farm share 100	55.6 (23.6, 72.4)	-202.5 (-112.3, -275.7)	80.5 (46.2, 110.4)	

Duration 5	180.9 (95.2, 261.7)		59.6 (28.5, 88.8)	321.8 (161.4, 412.0)
Duration 10	69.4 (38.8, 103.6)	-115.6 (-68.5, -180.9)	118.5 (64.4, 185.7)	
Avoidance	151.6 (72.2, 201.4)	109.0 (53.4, 148.3)	-2.2 (-3.1, -0.5)	182.5 (90.4, 251.6)

424

425 ***4.3 Discussion and policy implications***

426 The analysis highlighted important issues concerning the conservation strategy of the olive
427 landraces in Apulia. Firstly, the valuation approach showed the presence of 3 different groups
428 of stakeholders that managed as many farm types, namely middle-aged farmers in high-
429 intensive farms, aged farmers in family farms, and young farmers in low-capital farms.

430 Among these groups, sensibility on the olive biodiversity was substantially different. In the
431 large capitalist farms of the northern Apulia (LCM1) the interest in the protection programme
432 was substantially absent, in spite of the positive and significant ASC. Moreover in the first
433 section of the questionnaire, 85% of farmers in the group were aware of the need to pursue
434 conservation strategies for the regional olive biodiversity. So, the aversion to the programme
435 could be justified by the absence of a market concerning the olive oils obtained from the local
436 cultivars. Indeed, these ecotypes are often characterized by lower yields and the respective olive
437 oils are sold within the same commercial channels of products obtained from traditional
438 varieties, so that profit is lower. A solution could follow from the investigation of specific omics
439 and nutraceutical properties of these products or their promotion for the lower environmental
440 impacts required in the cultivation phases, in order to ensure the development of new markets
441 and therefore higher profit for producers. It follows that the study of biological aspects of the
442 olive oils obtained from local varieties, jointly with the development of appropriate marketing
443 plans also based on characterization, traceability and authentication (Pinelli et al., 2003;
444 Reboredo-Rodríguez et al., 2016; Laincer et al., 2016), could contribute to a more profitable
445 involvement of the intensive farms. Hence, it would be appropriate on one hand the
446 development of new research in the biological and transformation fields (characterization of
447 the typical olive oils and analysis of their nutritional properties), on the other hand the carrying
448 out of ad hoc marketing strategies promoted by policy makers and to which farmers must be
449 trained.

450 Olive growers who managed family farms in the southern Apulia (LCM2) were the most
451 favourable to the participation in the landraces' conservation. Willing to allocate 50% of their
452 own land also for a ten-year programme, their WTA was 291 € ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹, higher than the
453 premium quantified by the Apulian 2014-2020 RDP. These results is substantially in line with
454 other studies carried out in Italy (Negri, 2003) and in other countries (Trinh et al., 2003), for
455 which local varieties are mostly grown by elderly farmers in small farms or home gardens
456 through traditional farming systems characterized by a low use of technology and chemical
457 fertilizers.

458 Finally the young regional farmers (LCM3) had certain sensitivity to the conservation
459 programme of the local olive germoplasm, so that the ASC of this group was highly positive
460 and significant. However they agreed only on the base levels of the proposed attributes. This
461 attitude could derive from the weak economic performance of their own firms, the structural
462 crisis of the Italian olive sector and the high risk level consequent to the absence of an olive oil

463 landraces' market capable to appreciate benefits of products obtained from the local varieties,
464 as pointed out for the LCM1 group.

465 With regard to the characteristics of respondents and their own farms, the study showed a
466 higher sensitivity of women entrepreneurs operating in family farms in the conservation
467 programme (LCM2), contributing thus to enrich the evidences on the essential role of women
468 in the agricultural enterprises (Hill and Vigneri, 2009; Abdelali-Martini et al., 2008; World
469 Bank, 2009). In particular, their exact impact is often difficult to assess for its high degree of
470 variation across countries and regions, so that policies must be based on sound data and gender
471 analysis (FAO, 2011). On this aspect, this study provides basic information to valuate where
472 and how much the women participation in agriculture can contribute to a better implementation
473 of the conservation policies for the olive biodiversity. In addition, there was a significant
474 influence of land fragmentation on the conservation of local landraces. Non-fragmented farms
475 are characterized by a high provision of capital and inputs (LCM1 group), generating an
476 intensive agriculture more attentive to income aspects rather than to environment, local
477 traditions, etc. Studies in this research field show that such a management approach ensures
478 greater results in terms of economic efficiency (Theesfeld, 2005; Dirimanova, 2006). On the
479 contrary, land fragmentation reduces farm profitability and efficiency, but, on the other hand,
480 fosters crop diversification (Di Falco et al., 2010). This phenomenon is present in the LCM2
481 group, characterized by small and fragmented farms in which are also cultivated local landraces,
482 often by organic farming. Hence, olive growers of small and fragmented farms are prone to
483 conservation strategies. However, as aforesaid, also farmers in the LCM1 group could be
484 important actors in the conservation programme if suitable marketing plans are developed and
485 farmers are properly trained on them, so as to ensure the participation and the economic
486 efficiency of the capitalist farms in the presence of olive landraces.

487 Overall, the relevance of results lies in the importance that farmers give to the local landraces
488 in the Mediterranean area, providing useful information for increasing the effects of proper on-
489 farm conservation programmes. Indeed, the value of local varieties is not limited just to the
490 private farmer's profit, but it concerns also a wide set of quasi-public benefits, i.e. positive
491 externalities, in term of production, environment, food safety and cultural heritage (Pascual et
492 al., 2013; FAO, 2010; Varshney et al., 2010). In this respect, findings allow for the advancement
493 of further considerations on some environmental issues, i.e. water stress tolerance and pest
494 resistance, that in the region are playing an important role overall in recent years. On the first
495 aspect, Apulia is the fifth most important agricultural region in Italy in terms of irrigated area
496 and volumes of water used for crops (ISTAT, 2010). This implies a substantial water demand
497 which, however, is not being satisfied by the several regional consortia as their provided
498 volumes are equal to just 31% of uses and 23% of the total estimated demand (INEA, 2009).
499 Such a structural condition compels most of farmers to make use of groundwater which, if
500 exacerbated, entails negative alterations of soil and crops characteristics, with consequent risk
501 of desertification. Indeed, this threat is shared with other southern Italian regions and
502 Mediterranean countries (Sikaoui et al., 2007) and the evaluation of possible water saving
503 strategies is essential for ensuring the optimal use of allocated water. Hence, the implementation
504 of suitable conservation programmes for local olive landraces could preserve and foster related
505 olive farming practices characterized by a higher water-use efficiency. The second aspect
506 concerns an important and recent regional matter, namely the need of carrying out effective and

507 efficient pest control strategies in the light of the rapid spreading of *Xylella fastidiosa* subsp.
508 *Pauca*. It is a quarantine bacterium able to cause the death of olive plants, initially detected in
509 the olive trees of the Lecce province and now spreading toward the north of the region (Martelli
510 et al., 2016). Recent and pioneer studies on the most widespread olive varieties in the affected
511 area (Leccino and Cellina di Nardò) have effectively highlighted interesting differences
512 between these cultivars on the resistance to the pathogen (Saponari et al., 2016; Saponari et al.,
513 2014). Besides, the experimentations involving local landraces are about to start and its results
514 could be used by decision makers and farmers in the prospect of a positive solution of this
515 serious situation which is threatening the olive sector not only in Italy but also in the entire
516 Mediterranean area. Obviously, a crucial role will be held by research, supported by farmers
517 which have already expressed a positive consensus on that matter. Finally, the results could
518 suggest proper considerations on the use of the super-intensive olive orchards in Apulia and,
519 more in general, in the Mediterranean areas characterized by a rich agricultural biodiversity.
520 Based on more productive and exotic varieties (Arbequina, Arbosana and Koroneiki), this
521 system typology is being promoted in Apulia in recent years as, through the higher density of
522 plants per hectare (ca. 1,700) compared to the traditional systems (ca. 400), it allows similar
523 yield but a reduction of operating costs (ca. -20%), increasing profits. However, it is
524 characterized by higher input quantities (water, pesticides and fuel) and environmental impacts
525 (De Gennaro et al., 2012). Furthermore, it could simplify the mosaic structure of the agricultural
526 ecosystems at the basis of the typical regional landscape, whose complexity is recognized as
527 crucial for the on- and off-farm conservation strategies (Jackson et al., 2013; Perrings, 1998).
528 Besides, it could trigger the conversion to monoculture and, if extended on large areas, this crop
529 system could worsen pest control strategies and amplify pest damage in crops (Matson et al.,
530 1997; Bianchi et al., 2006). Hence, a deeper decision making should be made on the opportunity
531 to resort to such a productive solution on regional scale in the light of the risk to which olive
532 biodiversity, in addition to environmental and landscape preservation, could be exposed.

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536 **5 Conclusions**

537 The LCM singled out three very different groups of farmers, namely capitalist (in large and
538 high-profit farms), aged (in small and family farms) and young (in small and low-capital farms)
539 olive growers with very different levels of sensibility to olive landraces conservation. Outcomes
540 highlighted that age, schooling level, gender and experience of farmers strongly affect the
541 structural, management and productive characteristics of olive firms in terms of farm size,
542 varieties cultivated, level of productive factors (labour, machinery, pesticides, fertilizers, water,
543 etc.), profit, access to credit, use of organic farming, etc. These aspects, in turns, influence the
544 farmer's propensity to the conservation programme, so that the final degree of participation
545 results from the combination of the aforesaid characteristics. Being this the starting point, really
546 very heterogeneous, anyway there are concrete possibilities to converge all olive growers in an
547 effective and efficient conservation strategy through targeted interventions based exactly on the
548 mentioned structural, management and productive aspects. Hence, the general need to include
549 socioeconomic characteristics of farmers, as well as economic elements of their own farms in

550 studies bent on the setting of agro-biodiversity conservation programmes, should be strongly
551 considered by policy makers.

552 For the aim of this study and according to outcomes, a proper conservation strategy in the
553 examined area should provide for (i) the development of new markets able to appreciate the
554 characteristics of the typical olive oils, ensuring higher profits to olive growers; (ii) the boost
555 of genetic and transformation research fields in order to study the nutraceutical properties of
556 local products which could be used in market strategies based, for example, on specific brands;
557 (iii) the involvement of farmers in marketing training programmes for a better placing of local
558 products on market; (iv) the support for the young farmers and family farming; (v) the setting
559 of suitable policies which are able to trigger a more incisive involvement of women in
560 conservation programmes and, in general, in the agricultural entrepreneurship.

561 These issues, if duly confronted, could reduce the risk of genetic erosion in the region and
562 even determine a diffusion of local varieties on a large scale, generating a widespread welfare
563 for all the actors of the supply chain, in terms of higher profits for farmers and oil millers,
564 improved environmental conditions for community, as well as a better food security and safety
565 for consumers, also with positive repercussions on the preservation of the Mediterranean Diet
566 principles.

567

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573

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