

Manuscript Number: FQAP-D-11-00437R1

Title: Investigating individual preferences in rating and ranking conjoint experiments. A case study on semi-hard cheese

Article Type: Research Article

Keywords: Method comparison; Rating; Ranking; Conjoint; Self-explicated measures; Mixed Logit; Consumer segmentation; Cheese

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Abstract: Stated preference conjoint experiments and self-explicated measures based on rating and ranking approaches were conducted to investigate Norwegian consumers' choices among healthier and organically produced semi-hard cheeses. In the conjoint experiments, one group of participants (n=114) performed a rating task of eight cheeses whereas the other group (n=105) performed a ranking task of the same cheeses, all based on pictorial stimuli only. Then, all participants performed self-explicated rating and ranking evaluations of the cheese attributes. Conjoint rating data were analysed by mixed model ANOVA, while conjoint ranking data were analysed by mixed logit. The different approaches are compared in terms of data analysis methodologies, outcomes and practicalities for the experimenter as well as for the respondents. Rather than average population effects, focus is brought on individual preferences and consumer segmentation. Findings reveal that the two conjoint experiments lead to similar population effects and consumer segments. Consumers on average prefer cheeses of new (healthier) fat composition, organic production and lower price to cheeses of regular fat composition, conventional production and higher price. Two consumer segments are investigated. Consumers in the New fat segment are health-conscious, whereas consumers in the Regular fat segment are attracted by conventional cheese and lower prices. Self-explicated ratings of the cheese attributes corroborate these findings.

Highlights

- Conjoint rating, conjoint ranking and direct attribute evaluations are compared
- A new approach to investigate individual preferences in mixed logit is proposed
- Results from conjoint approaches corroborate direct attribute ratings
- Health conscious consumers prefer healthier-fat cheese to low-fat cheese

1 **Investigating individual preferences in rating and ranking conjoint experiments. A case**
2 **study on semi-hard cheese**

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20 **Abstract**

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22 ranking approaches were conducted to investigate Norwegian consumers' choices among
23 healthier and organically produced semi-hard cheeses. In the conjoint experiments, one group
24 of participants (n=114) performed a rating task of eight cheeses whereas the other group
25 (n=105) performed a ranking task of the same cheeses, all based on pictorial stimuli only.
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27 attributes. Conjoint rating data were analysed by mixed model ANOVA, while conjoint
28 ranking data were analysed by mixed logit. The different approaches are compared in terms of
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30 the respondents. Rather than average population effects, focus is brought on individual
31 preferences and consumer segmentation. Findings reveal that the two conjoint experiments
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34 regular fat composition, conventional production and higher price. Two consumer segments
35 are investigated. Consumers in the New fat segment are health-conscious, whereas consumers
36 in the Regular fat segment are attracted by conventional cheese and lower prices. Self-
37 explicated ratings of the cheese attributes corroborate these findings.
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33 Mixed Logit; Consumer segmentation; Cheese

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36 **1 Introduction**

37 Experimental approaches are widely used to study consumer responses to food products. A
38 first level of research on consumer experimental methods concerns the selection of a
39 methodology, comparing for example experimental auctions to conjoint studies (Grunert et
40 al., 2009; Sichtmann & Stingel, 2007), or combining such methods (Combris et al., 2009). A
41 second level of research concerns possible options within one methodology. This paper
42 addresses the latter by comparing an acceptance rating test to a preference ranking test in a
43 conjoint study on generic unbranded semi-hard cheese. More specifically, focus is brought on
44 modelling strategies with regard to the different nature of rating and ranking data. As
45 preference heterogeneity is a very relevant and natural element of food choice research,
46 described as “a key and permanent feature of food choices” (Combris et al., 2009), emphasis
47 is made on studying inter-individual preference variations and consumer segmentation.
48 Further, conjoint experiments may often be complex to design, time-consuming to perform
49 and costly to carry-out (Sattler & Hensel-Börner, 2003). A second aspect of this paper is thus
50 to compare conjoint approaches with self-explicated approaches, where the consumer is
51 plainly asked about preference levels for a product’s attributes (Sattler & Hensel-Börner,
52 2003).

53

54 *1.1 Rating and ranking scales*

55 Several rating and ranking scales have been developed and are commonly used in consumer
56 testing (Hein et al., 2008). We will here focus on the types utilised in the present conjoint
57 study: acceptance rating with a 9-point category scale ranging from 1 to 9, and preference
58 ranking with no ties allowed (forced choice). In acceptance rating, consumers evaluate each
59 product separately and rate these according to their degree of appreciation. Rating generates
60 an indirect measure of product distances. In preference ranking, consumers order products
61 according to their preferences from best to worst. Ranking involves performing a succession
62 of product choices where the consumer is forced to discriminate between products, but no
63 information regarding the degree of appreciation is obtained (Hein et al., 2008). Rating and
64 ranking methods have previously been compared in a number of studies (Villanueva, Petenate

65 & Da Silva, 2005), often with a general focus on mean population results comparisons. In a
66 comprehensive method comparison study, Hein et al. (2008) tested five common acceptance
67 and preference methods based on rating and ranking approaches: 9-point hedonic scale,
68 labelled affective magnitude scale, unstructured line scale, best–worst scaling and preference
69 ranking. Their main finding is that all five methods lead to the same conclusions regarding the
70 products, with slight performance differences observed in product discrimination power, ease
71 of use and perceived accuracy in favour of the best-worst scaling method. However these
72 authors worked with hedonic tests involving real food stimuli and the results may not
73 necessarily generalise to other contexts, such as pictorial stimuli in a web-based survey.
74 Further, their study neither investigated conjoint factors, nor compared the different methods
75 in terms of consumer segmentation. These issues will be addressed in the present paper in the
76 case of two rating and ranking approaches.

77

78 *1.2 Self-explicated and conjoint approaches*

79 Self-explicated approaches consist in testing consumer’s attitudes or preferences for product
80 attributes by directly asking about the attributes rather than presenting products. Such
81 approaches are often seen in comparison to conjoint methods, which by using a complex
82 design setup aim at collecting more reliable data than self-explicated measures. Among other,
83 it is believed that conjoint methods increase the similarity to real choice situations and
84 decrease the risk of collecting socially acceptable answers (Sattler et al., 2003). Sattler and
85 Hensel-Börner (2003), however, report that studies that compare conjoint and self-explicated
86 measures generally conclude that their performances are either equivalent, or different in
87 favor of self-explicated measures. It is therefore interesting to study how these methods
88 compare to each other when studying stated preferences for food choices.

89

90 *1.3 Data analysis*

91 Acceptance rating tests generate (nearly) continuous data, whereas preference ranking tests
92 generate ordinal, discrete data. Accordingly, in conjoint experiments with rating scales the
93 population effects from consumers’ evaluations are typically analysed by mixed model
94 ANOVA (ANalysis Of VAriance), that is to say an ANOVA model combining fixed and
95 random effects and usually assuming normal distributions for the random parts (Næs,
96 Brockhoff & Tomic, 2010a). In practice, ordinal measures can be approximated to continuous
97 measures, such that ANOVA is also frequently used on ranking data even though this method
98 is not designed for discrete data (Villanueva et al., 2005; Villanueva, Petenate & Da Silva,

99 2000). One must, in particular, be aware of the fact that the ranks are highly dependent on
100 each other in small studies and the assumptions underlying standard ANOVA may be strongly
101 violated. More appropriately, in the field of econometrics ranking data and other choice-
102 based data are routinely analysed by so-called discrete choice models. Discrete choice models
103 aim at understanding the behavioural process that leads to a consumer's choice (Train, 2009).
104 The approach consists in modelling Utility, that is to say the net benefit a consumer obtains
105 from selecting a specific product in a choice situation. These models emerged in the 1970s
106 and have undergone a rapid development from the original fixed coefficients models such as
107 multinomial logit, to the highly general and flexible mixed logit, also called Random
108 Parameter Logit (Ortúzar, 2010). Mixed logit is an advanced discrete choice model where one
109 may freely include random parameters of any distributions and correlations between random
110 factors. This flexibility allows writing models that better match real-world situations. By
111 including random parameters, mixed logit intrinsically models preference heterogeneity, i.e.
112 inter-individual preference variations. Further, mixed logit acknowledges the fact that any
113 food choice decision in the experiment, in this case any product ranking, may be dependent
114 on the consumer's previous decisions. Even though discrete data is common in sensory and
115 consumer science, there is no tradition in sensometrics for mixed logit, which was recently
116 introduced to the field by Barreiro-Hurlé et al. (2008), Jaeger and Rose (2008) and Ortúzar
117 (2010). We refer to the latter for a sound introduction to the mixed logit model and to Train
118 (2009) for a comprehensive description.

119
120 Following the study of mean population effects, a study of preference heterogeneity is often
121 required to identify trends within subgroups of the consumer sample. Various methods of
122 consumer segmentation may be applied, such as clustering algorithms, visual segmentation
123 based on Principal Component Analysis (PCA) (Almli et al., 2011) or fuzzy clustering
124 (Johansen, Hersleth & Næs, 2010; Næs et al., 2010a; Westad, Hersleth & Lea, 2004). It is
125 also possible to induce segments in a latent class model (Mueller et al., 2010; Hess et al.,
126 2011) or in a clustering around latent variables model (Vigneau, Endrizzi & Qannari, 2011;
127 Vigneau et al., 2001). Beyond the selection of a statistical approach, there are two main
128 strategies to choose from when addressing clustering purposes: one may either create
129 consumer groups of similar background such as gender, income, attitudes or purchase habits,
130 or create consumer groups of similar product preferences. The first strategy is sometimes
131 called a priori segmentation (Næs et al., 2010a) and is based on splitting the consumer group
132 into segments according to consumer characteristics and analysing the group preferences

133 separately or together in an ANOVA model. The second strategy is based on analysing the
134 actual preference, liking or purchase intent data to create segments, then relating segments to
135 consumer characteristics a posteriori. In the present paper the second strategy will be used. To
136 perform consumer segmentation based on individual acceptance ratings, a multi-step
137 approach introduced by Næs et al. (Endrizzi et al., 2011; Næs et al., 2010b) is applied. To
138 perform consumer segmentation in the case of preference ranking, a new approach is
139 presented based on individual model estimates from mixed logit and inspired by the method
140 in Næs et al. (2010b). In both cases, segmentation will be done based on visual interpretation
141 of PCA plots of the individual differences. The main advantage of such an approach is that
142 one can decide on which segments or groups of consumers one is interested in studying.
143 Another argument for such an approach is that using different automatic clustering methods
144 can give quite different results, and also results which are difficult to interpret in terms of
145 samples tested (see Endrizzi et al., 2014).

146

147 *1.4 Objectives*

148 The data presented in this paper are extracted from a large conjoint experiment conducted in
149 Norway in 2009 investigating the effect of health information on consumers' diet choices
150 (Øvrum et al., 2012). In the present paper, only the control group of participants who did not
151 receive health information are utilised. In particular, the study investigates consumer's
152 willingness to buy full fat vs. low fat cheese and cheese of regular fat composition vs. new fat
153 composition, which includes a higher unsaturated fat/saturated fat ratio. The factor
154 corresponding to a new, healthier fat composition is of major interest in this study and will
155 guide the consumer segmentation. This innovation was not present yet on the Norwegian
156 market at the time of the consumer experiment.

157 The objective of this study is threefold: (i) present and compare modelling strategies for
158 studying population effects and preference heterogeneity in conjoint rating and ranking
159 experiments, (ii) investigate consumers' stated preferences for various attributes in every day-
160 use semi-hard cheese at population and segment levels and (iii) compare conjoint and self-
161 explicated methods for eliciting consumers' acceptance.

162

163 **2 Materials and methods**

164 **2.1 Consumer test**

165 **2.1.1 Cheese samples**

166 Eight pictures of generic every day-use semi-hard cheese packages were generated according
167 to a 2^{4-1}_V fractional factorial design with variations in fat content (full fat vs. low fat), fat
168 composition (regular vs. increased unsaturated fat/saturated fat ratio), sustainable production
169 (conventional vs. organic) and price (NOK 42 vs. NOK 58 per 500 g) as presented in Table 1.
170 In this experimental design each two-way interaction is confounded with another one
171 (LowFat*NewFat + Organic*Price, NewFat*Organic + LowFat*Price and NewFat*Price +
172 LowFat*Organic) but not with main effects.

173 For each factor combination, the picture included the cheese's price as well as symbols
174 corresponding to factors organic production, low fat cheese and cheese with new fat
175 composition (Figure 1). By contrast, the absence of these symbols indicated full fat content,
176 regular fat composition and conventional production process, respectively. All three symbols
177 were present on the Norwegian market at the time of the experiment. In the following,
178 reference to the cheese samples will refer to the constructed photographs of cheese packages
179 with varying prices and symbols.

180
181 <Table 1>, <Figure 1>

183 **2.1.2 Consumers**

184 A sample of 219 Norwegian consumers across the country participated in a web-based
185 experiment. They were selected on the criteria that they eat semi-hard cheese at least once a
186 week, are frequently responsible for food purchases for the household and do not work in the
187 food or marketing sectors. Participants were potentially rewarded by the draw of three
188 universal gift coupons for a value of NOK 1000 (approx. € 125). In a first step, the study
189 consisted in either a rating or a ranking conjoint test on the eight cheeses presented in Table 1.
190 The assignment of participants to one or the other test was done semi-randomly by the
191 system, aiming at ensuring a balanced repartition according to gender, age, education and
192 region of residence. Table 2 presents key socio-demographic indicators for the rating (n=114)
193 and ranking (n=105) groups of consumers. The two groups present similar distributions in

194 gender, age, household size and household income. Participants of university education and
195 overweight participants are somewhat overrepresented in the ranking group compared to the
196 rating group. The total sample (n=219) compares to national census data for the targeted age
197 group (30-70 years old) in terms of gender composition and is slightly higher in mean age
198 (Table 2).

199
200 <Table 2>

201 202 **2.1.3 Test protocol**

203 The same cheese pictures were used both in rating and ranking conjoint experiments (Table
204 1). For all participants, the survey started with a welcoming introduction and a brief
205 presentation of the three symbols used on the cheese packagings to ensure a common
206 interpretation of the conjoint factors. Then, for the rating group eight successive screens
207 presenting the eight cheeses were shown in randomized balanced order. The consumers
208 evaluated their Willingness To Buy (WTB) the cheeses on 9-point scales anchored with “I
209 would definitely not purchase” and “I would definitely purchase”. For the ranking group, a
210 ranking test was organised in seven successive screens. A first screen presented all eight
211 cheeses and participants were asked to click on the four items they would most probably
212 purchase. The second screen showed these four selected cheeses and participants were asked
213 to indicate the item they would most probably purchase among the four. The third and fourth
214 screens showed the three (resp. two) remaining cheeses and participants were asked to
215 indicate the item they would most probably purchase among the three (resp. two). Then, the
216 procedure was repeated on the four rejected cheeses from the original eight. In the following,
217 these conjoint experiments will be referred to as “conjoint rating” and “conjoint ranking”.

218
219 Following the conjoint experiments, participants were questioned about the importance of
220 factors fat content, fat composition, organic production and price in self-explicated measures
221 (Sattler & Hensel-Börner, 2003). They first rated each factor on a 5-point likert scale
222 anchored from “Very little importance” to “High importance”, then ranked the same factors
223 from the most to the least important one. In the following, these evaluations will be referred to
224 as “self-explicated rating” and “self-explicated ranking”. These direct measures of factor
225 importance will be compared to the indirect measures obtained through the conjoint
226 experiments. Finally, the participants filled in a questionnaire including behavioural and

227 lifestyle items, attitudinal items from the Food Choice Questionnaire (Steptoe, Pollard &
228 Wardle, 1995) and socio-demographic items.

229

230 **2.2 Data analysis of conjoint rating**

231 **2.2.1. Mixed model ANOVA**

232 A mixed model ANOVA was run to identify significant effects for the total group of
233 consumers. This model includes low fat, new fat, organic, price and three interaction effects
234 between conjoint factors as fixed factors, and consumer as random factor (see the
235 confounding pattern of the experimental design in section 2.1.1 above). In addition, random
236 interaction effects between consumer and the four conjoint factors and their interactions were
237 included to account for individual preferences. The model is written:

238

239 $Y = \text{Mean} + \text{Consumer effect} + \text{Main effects for conjoint variables} + \text{2-Way interactions}$
240 $\text{between conjoint variables} + \text{2-Way interactions between conjoint variables and}$
241 $\text{Consumer} + \text{3-Way interactions between Consumer and 2-way interactions of conjoint}$
242 $\text{variables} + \text{random noise}$

243

244 More specifically,

$$245 \quad y_{ijkhmp} = \mu + \tau_m + \alpha_i + \beta_j + \chi_k + \delta_l + (\alpha\beta)_{ij} + (\beta\chi)_{jk} + (\beta\delta)_{jl} + (\tau\alpha)_{mi} + (\tau\beta)_{mj} + (\tau\chi)_{mk} + (\tau\delta)_{ml} \quad (\text{Eq. 1}),$$
$$246 \quad + (\alpha\beta\tau)_{ijm} + (\beta\chi\tau)_{jkm} + (\beta\delta\tau)_{jlm} + \varepsilon_{ijkhmp}$$

247 where μ is the intercept, τ is the consumer effect and α , β , χ and δ are the effects of factors
248 low fat, new fat, organic and price. Further terms represent interactions and residuals (ε). Note
249 that this model uses all available degrees of freedom for effects calculations and will therefore
250 give a random error equal to zero. This model is interpreted in terms of mean acceptance in
251 the total consumer sample. The model was run in Minitab 16 (Minitab Inc.).

252

253 **2.2.2. Individual preferences and consumer segmentation**

254 First, a reduced mixed model ANOVA was run almost identical to the former model but
255 without interaction effects between consumer and conjoint factors, i.e. only the fixed effects
and the main consumer effect were retained. The residual vector ε was rebuilt as a

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256 consumers x products (114x8) residual matrix. Note that the model for each individual is
1 saturated, leading to a residuals matrix with column sums and row sums equal to zero
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3 (Endrizzi et al., 2011). Then, this matrix was used to extract consumer segments. It was
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5 chosen to define segments visually, corresponding to the distribution of consumers along a
6
7 relevant principal component in PCA. These segments are directly interpretable with regard to
8
9 the products projected on the PCA loadings plot. Finally, the consumer segments were
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11 characterised in terms of socio-demographics, attitudes and self-explicated responses with the
12
13 help of a Partial Least Squares Discriminant Analysis (PLS-DA) regression model relating the
14
15 segments to the questionnaire. Multivariate models were run in The Unscrambler X 10.1
16
17 (Camo Software AS). We refer to Almlı et al. (2011), Endrizzi et al. (2011) and Hersleth et al.
18
19 (2011) for similar approaches to modelling and consumer segmentation from rating-based
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21 conjoint analysis.
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23 24 25 269 **2.3 Data analysis of conjoint ranking**

26 27 270 **2.3.1. Mixed logit**

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29 The ranking data were first reshaped in the form of choice sets following the pattern presented
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31 in Table 3. For eight products, this gives seven choice sets of decreasing sizes from eight to
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33 two items, leading to a total of 35 data rows per consumer. It is to be noted that in mixed
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35 logit, the seven choice sets per consumer are modelled as dependent observations, i.e.
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37 correspond to *one* consumer. This is an advantage over for example rank-ordered logit, which
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39 treats each decomposed choice set as an independent observation.
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42 277
43 278 <Table 3>
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46 280 In the mixed logit model, the utility (i.e. the net benefit a consumer obtains from selecting a
47
48 281 specific cheese) of cheese j for individual m in choice occasion t is written:
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$$50 282$$
$$51 283 \quad U_{mjt} = \beta'_m \mathbf{x}_{mjt} + \varepsilon_{mjt} \quad (\text{Eq. 2})$$

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53 284

54
55 285 where β_m is a vector of individual-specific parameters accounting for preference
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57 286 heterogeneity, \mathbf{x}_{mjt} is a vector of conjoint factors (here: cheese attributes and interactions), and
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59 287 ε_{mjt} is a random error term which is assumed to be independent identically distributed (i.i.d.)
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288 extreme value (Train, 2009). Further, it is assumed that the β_m 's are random vectors
289 representing the individuals while β_{mean} will be the random population mean, representing the
290 mean of the distribution of β_m . In this way, both the individual effects and the population
291 average can be estimated.

292
293 More specifically, the cheese utility model in the present case may be written:

$$294 \quad V_{mjt} = \beta_{1m} Lowfat_{mjt} + \beta_{2m} Newfat_{mjt} + \beta_{3m} Organic_{mjt} + \beta_{4m} Price_{mjt} \\ 295 \quad + \beta_{5m} (Lowfat * Newfat)_{mjt} + \beta_{6m} (Newfat * Organic)_{mjt} + \beta_{7m} (Newfat * Price)_{mjt} \quad (\text{Eq. 3})$$

296
297
298 where V_{mjt} is the explained part of U_{mjt} in Eq. 2 and where the interactions follow the
299 experimental design's confounding pattern presented above (section 2.1.1). The mixed logit
300 model used here assumes random parameters with normal distributions for all conjoint factors
301 and two-way interactions. Thus, this model provides estimates of the mean (β_{mean}) and the
302 standard deviation of the random conjoint parameters and interactions. Note that the mean
303 coefficients for the population effects may be seen as counterparts for the fixed factors in the
304 mixed model ANOVA. Likewise, the individual effects (β_m) correspond to the random
305 interactions between the conjoint factors and the consumer effect in the mixed model
306 ANOVA. These individual parameters will be discussed below. Further, the assumption of a
307 random distribution for price in this model accommodates the expectation that different
308 people prioritise price differently in comparison to other product properties. This assumption
309 leads to a number of positive individual coefficient estimates for price, suggesting a
310 preference for the higher price level relative to the lower price level for a number of
311 participants. In practice, these may be interpreted as price indifferent consumers. The mixed
312 logit models were run in Stata 11 (StataCorp LP) using the *mixlogit* add-on developed by
313 Hole (2007).

314 315 **2.3.3. Individual preferences and consumer segmentation**

316 First, the matrix of individual parameter estimates β_m was extracted from the mixed logit
317 model (Eq. 2). This matrix of individual estimates is comparable to the residuals matrix from
318 the reduced mixed model ANOVA on the rating data in the sense that they both reflect
319 individual variations from population effects. Then, the β_m matrix was submitted to a visual
320 segmentation in PCA. These segments are directly interpretable with regard to the conjoint

321 factors projected on the PCA loadings plot. Finally, the consumer segments were
1 322 characterised in terms of socio-demographics, attitudes and self-explicated responses with the
2 323 help of a PLS-DA regression model relating the classes to the questionnaire, following the
3 324 same procedure as for conjoint rating data.
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7 325 8 9 10 326 **3 Results and discussion**

11 12 13 327 **3.1 Population effects**

14 15 16 328 *3.1.1 Main effects*

17
18 329 The ANOVA results studying population effects of factors low fat, new fat, organic and price
19
20 330 in conjoint rating of pictorial cheese-package stimuli are presented in Table 4. New fat,
21
22 331 organic and price present significant effects (p -values <0.01), while factor low fat is not
23 332 statistically significant at a 5% level. All effects are estimated positive except price, that is to
24
25 333 say that consumers on average prefer new fat composition, organic production and lower
26
27 334 price cheeses to regular fat composition, conventional production and higher price cheeses
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29 335 (Figure 2).
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31 336
32 337 <Table 4>
33

34 338 <Figure 2>
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36 339
37
38 340 A mixed logit model as described in section 2.3.1 was used to investigate population effects
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40 341 from conjoint ranking. Table 5 reports the mean coefficients and standard deviations for each
41
42 342 factor. In this model, price was coded as a 0/1 binary variable like the other factors in order to
43 343 allow coefficients comparisons. Similarly to the rating group, consumers in the ranking group
44
45 344 prefer new fat, organic and lower price cheeses to regular fat, conventional production and
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47 345 higher price cheeses. Here again, factor low fat is not significant. Factor price shows the
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49 346 largest mean coefficient, but the model also reveals a large consumer interest for attribute new
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51 347 fat: consumers on average valued new fat nearly four times as much as low fat and twice as
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53 348 much as organic.

54 349 Conclusively, population effects are consistent between the two conjoint experiments,
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56 350 revealing in particular a large interest for low price and new fat and a poor interest for low fat.
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58 351 Former studies have shown that consumers are often not willing to compromise on taste for
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60 352 health benefits (Tuorila & Cardello, 2002; Verbeke, 2006). New-fat cheese may have come
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353 through as an attractive product to the consumers as its regular fat content may give positive
1 354 sensory expectations, while at the same time its healthier fat quality (reduced saturated fat)
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3 355 may provide health benefits.
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7 357 <Table5>
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11 359 **3.1.2 Interaction effects**

12 360 None of the interaction effects are detected as statistically significant in the mixed model
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14 361 ANOVA from conjoint rating (Table 4), while one interaction is significant (*New fat * Price*
15
16 362 + *Low fat * Organic*) and another one is nearly significant (*Low fat * New fat + Organic *
17 363 Price*) in the mixed logit model from conjoint ranking (Table 5). The significant interaction
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19 364 coefficient is, however, smaller than the significant main effects coefficients. Unfortunately
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21 365 the specific identification of the interactions at play is not possible because of the
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23 366 confounding pattern of the design. In order to understand whether this difference in
24
25 367 interaction sensitivity lies in the modelling methods or in the data sets, a mixed ANOVA
26
27 368 using a continuous approximation of the eight product ranks and a mixed logit including
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29 369 parameter correlations instead of factor interactions were run on the conjoint ranking data
30
31 370 (Train, 2009). Both these models also detect significant interactions/factor combinations in
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33 371 the ranking data. All this indicates that the ranking data contains some interaction information
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35 372 that is not present in the rating data.
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37 373

38 374 **3.2 Preference heterogeneity and consumer segmentation**

39 375 **3.2.3 New fat and Regular fat segments**

40 376 In order to determine consumer segments based on individual preference patterns in the
41
42 377 conjoint rating and ranking groups, PCA models were run on ANOVA residuals and mixed
43
44 378 logit β_m estimates, respectively, according to the method descriptions in section 2.
45
46 379 The PCA bi-plot for conjoint rating includes consumers and products, and conjoint factors
47
48 380 were added on the plot to ease interpretation (Figure 3a). The PCA bi-plot for conjoint
49
50 381 ranking shows consumers as well as main effects and interactions of conjoint factors (Figure
51
52 382 3b). The results from these two PCAs are highly similar; in both models, each conjoint factor
53
54 383 spans one dimension from PC1 to PC4 in the following order: price, new fat, organic and low
55
56 384 fat. This order matches the relative importance of the factors at a population level indicated in
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385 the ANOVA and mixed logit results above. Note however that this structure in PCA is clearer
386 and shows higher calibration (fitted) and cross-validation variances (Martens and Næs, 1989)
387 in the case of ranking than rating results, with 85% of explained variance restituted on the
388 first two principal components for ranking data against 56% for rating data. Finally, for
389 conjoint ranking PC5-PC7 span the variations of the three interactions, however these are
390 negligible in comparison to the main effects.

391
392 Next, for each PCA model a visual consumer segmentation in two clusters was performed
393 along PC2 on the scores plots, separating the consumers that are most favourable to new fat
394 composition from those least favourable (Figures 3a and 3b). Here it was chosen to perform a
395 visual segmentation along PC2 rather than PC1 because of the particular interest for factor
396 new fat in this study. A visual segmentation easily allows for flexibility in targeting the
397 analysis towards the objective of the study. Moreover there is no clear separation between the
398 segments, indicating the strength of a visually-oriented approach. The consumer segments
399 consist of 47 and 67 consumers for conjoint rating and of 59 and 46 consumers for conjoint
400 ranking. In the following these segments are referred to as the “New fat” and “Regular fat”
401 segments, respectively.

402
403 <Figure 3a and 3b next to each other>

405 *3.2.3 Segments characteristics*

406 To describe the consumer segments in terms of socio-demographics, attitudinal characteristics
407 and self-explicated responses, identical approaches based on PLS-DA were used for conjoint
408 rating and conjoint ranking data. In the PLS regressions, jack-knifing and uncertainty testing
409 were used for variable selection and significance testing (Martens & Martens, 2000) and
410 Cross-Validation (CV) was run with 10 random segments. As the questionnaire consisted of
411 46 items covering very different areas of the consumer background (with possibly little
412 relation between them), a global PLS regression may have resulted in spurious variable
413 selections. To avoid this problem, several models were attempted with different sets of
414 predictor variables: (i) all questionnaire variables, (ii) socio-demographics variables only, (iii)
415 attitudinal variables only and (iv) self-explicated rating/ranking evaluations only. In these
416 models, category variables were recoded as binary or ordinal variables. Finally, a summary
417 model was built on the significant variables from these former models.

418

1
2 419 The final PLS-DA models from conjoint rating ($R^2=0.23$, $R^2_{CV}=0.20$) and conjoint ranking
3 420 ($R^2=0.21$, $R^2_{CV}=0.18$) are presented in Figures 4a and 4b. It should be mentioned that these R^2
4
5 421 values might be somewhat overoptimistic since the models are based on variable selection.
6
7 422 The results reveal that consumers in the New fat segment typically gave high ratings/low
8
9 423 ranks in self-explicated measures for the importance of fat type and the importance of fat
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11 424 content. In addition, consumers in the New fat segment from conjoint ranking typically gave a
12
13 425 high rank (i.e. little importance) to factor price in self-explicated measures. These results are
14
15 426 fully consistent with these consumers' belonging to the New fat segments. Further, these
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17 427 results show a good correspondence between the two conjoint approaches and self-explicated
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19 428 approaches.

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22 430 Socio-demographic variables were not significant in submodels (i) and (ii) and do not appear
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24 431 in the final model. This highlights the relevance of a segmentation approach based on
25
26 432 common preferences rather than common socio-demographic parameters, as the latter may
27
28 433 not always be pertinent. Regarding behavioural and attitudinal characteristics, consumers in
29
30 434 the New fat segments from both conjoint approaches may be described as health-conscious.
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32 435 However, the PLS-DA for rating reveals two significant variables only: having a healthy diet
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34 436 and being very physically active, whereas the PLS-DA for ranking reveals seven significant
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36 437 variables: having a healthy diet, importance to them that the food they eat on an ordinary day
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38 438 has a low fat content, is low in saturated fat, has few calories, helps them keep their weight,
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40 439 keeps them healthy and is good for the skin. These attitudinal statements may be related to the
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42 440 slight overrepresentation of overweight participants in the ranking group. A possible
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44 441 explanation for the lower number of significant variables in PLS-DA from conjoint rating is
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46 442 that these consumer segments may be less well-defined, due to a lower explained variance in
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48 443 PCA. Finally, by contrast to the New fat segments, the Regular fat segments include
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50 444 consumers that are less health-conscious, less physically active and more attracted by regular
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52 445 fat composition and full fat content products as well as by low prices. Conclusively, it seems
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54 446 that new-fat cheese appeals to existing consumers of low-fat cheese rather than attracts new
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56 447 consumer groups to the healthy market.

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58 450 <Figure 4a and Figure 4b next to each other >

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452 **3.3 Comparison of self-explicated and conjoint evaluations of factor importance**

1
2 453 Figure 5 (resp. 6) shows the results of self-explicated rating (resp. ranking) evaluations
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4 454 presented per conjoint consumer group and per consumer segment. Self-explicated rating
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6 455 results are highly consistent across conjoint conditions, showing the same patterns of factor
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8 456 importance between the two New fat segments, between the two Regular fat segments and
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10 457 between the two conjoint groups (Figure 5). Further, there is globally a good agreement
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12 458 between self-explicated rating and conjoint measures, corroborating the conclusions of Sattler
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14 459 and Hensel-Börner (2003). On average, consumers in the New fat segments rated fat
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16 460 composition and fat content in top positions, while consumers in the Regular fat segments
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18 461 rated price and fat content in the first positions. This is logical with their respective segment
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20 462 belongings. Note that the fact that fat content is highly rated in both segments may be due to
21
22 463 the ambiguity of the self-explicated questions, which enquired about the importance of fat
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24 464 content in general without specifying a low or high level of fat content. Fat content may be
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26 465 important both to consumers interested in low fat and to consumers interested in full-fat
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28 466 cheeses even though they belong to different segments.

27 467
28
29 468 <Figure 5>

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31 469
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33 470 Self-explicated ranking results on the other hand are rather inconsistent across conjoint
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35 471 conditions, showing different patterns of factor importance between segments (Figure 6).
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37 472 Some inconsistencies can also be seen between self-explicated approaches by comparing
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39 473 Figures 5 and 6. For example, in the New fat segment for conjoint ranking fat content is rated
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41 474 in first position in self-explicated rating, but ranked in third position in self-explicated
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43 475 ranking. A possible explanation for these inconsistencies is that self-explicated ranking is the
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45 476 only one of the four approaches in the present study that did not enable ties between factors in
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47 477 the consumer test.

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49 479 <Figure 6>

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481 **4 Method comparison discussion**

482 **4.1 Conjoint experimental setup and data analysis**

483 The same fractional factorial design was used in both the rating and ranking conjoint
484 experiments, allowing a method comparison based on stated preference measures of the same
485 eight cheeses. While orthogonal designs are state-of-the-art in the context of linear models
486 and still widely used in the context of stated choice models, Ortúzar (2010) and Jaeger &
487 Rose (2008) argue that “orthogonality between attributes is not even a desired feature” in
488 highly non-linear models such as mixed logit, and recommend the use of so-called efficient
489 designs. The selected samples may therefore not have been optimal for mixed logit modelling.
490 Further, multi-step approaches of equivalent complexity were chosen for the modelling of
491 conjoint rating and conjoint ranking. The mixed model ANOVA approach on rating data may
492 appear simpler in the sense that ANOVA is based on analysis of averages, which are
493 intuitively appealing, and is a well-known, widely spread modelling method in sensometrics.
494 Mixed logit is neither a standard tool in sensometrics nor in classical statistical software
495 packages. Further, complex mixed logit models can require a large computation time due to
496 the need for simulation algorithms (Ortúzar, 2010). However, computation time is seldom
497 decisive in the scope of a consumer experiment.
498 In this paper a visual segmentation approach was used as the clustering algorithm that was
499 originally attempted suggested clusters that did not show any interpretable trend in PCA. This
500 may be due to the fact that in this case there is not clear separation between consumers.
501 Segmenting consumers visually by help of PCA and using the experimenter’s product and
502 problem knowledge to define relevant classes is a simple approach which can sometimes be
503 more sensible than standard algorithms (see also Endrizzi et al, 2014).

504

485 **4.2 Results consistency in different approaches**

486 **4.2.1 Conjoint experiments**

487 One of the results of this study is the overall equivalence of population effects obtained in
488 rating and ranking approaches, corroborating conclusions from Hein et al. (2008) and
489 extending these toward picture stimuli in conjoint experiments. It should be noted, however,
490 that the present results show a higher sensitivity to interaction effects in the ranking
491 experiment than in the rating experiment, and a generally higher structure in ranking data than
492 in rating data. Yet it is not known whether the stronger structure that is obtained better reflects

513 true consumer preferences or whether conjoint ranking might be forcing an artificial structure
1 514 in the data. Villanueva et al. (2000 and 2005) observed that ranking scales have a high
2 515 discriminating power on the condition that product differences are salient. In particular, the
3 516 ranking protocol consisted in first performing a partition of the set of eight products into two
4 517 groups. Thirty-four consumers out of 105 (32.4%) used the two levels of the price factor as a
5 518 criterion for this dichotomy stage, leading to a high explained variance linked to price in PCA
6 519 (64% explained variance on PC1, see Figure 3b). This reflects the fact that price is an
7 520 important factor of product choice for these consumers. In addition, the numeric information
8 521 for price may have been cognitively easier to process than the symbols representing
9 522 qualitative factors (Rayner, 2009).
10 523 Further, the consumer segments derived from the rating/mixed ANOVA approach and from
11 524 the ranking/mixed logit approach are similar in terms of self-explicated rating responses and
12 525 attitudes, but here again the results from conjoint ranking show more structure and detect
13 526 several additional significant characteristics to distinguish between segments.
14 527 From a global perspective, this study validates two unrelated multi-step modelling
15 528 approaches: one based on a mixed model ANOVA and study of residuals from conjoint rating
16 529 data, the other based on mixed logit and study of individual parameter estimates from conjoint
17 530 ranking data. Such multi-step approaches are challenging to validate by internal statistical
18 531 validation. By separately reaching the same conclusions, the two approaches serve as external
19 532 validations for each other.
20 533

39 534 *4.2.2 Self-explicated measures*

41 535 The study of factor importance by self-explicated evaluations revealed that self-explicated
42 536 rating globally gives consistent results with the conjoint experiments, while self-explicated
43 537 ranking did not fully capture the same information. Possibly, self-explicated ranking elicited
44 538 more mental deliberation from the consumers than self-explicated rating or conjoint
45 539 experiments, which are monadic tasks. In a series of preference experiments on Chinese
46 540 ideograms, paintings, jellybean flavours and apartments, Nordgren and Dijksterhuis (2009)
47 541 found that deliberation leads to the inconsistent weighting of information, resulting in reduced
48 542 preference consistency. Moreover, Lagerkvist (2013) compared attribute importance rankings
49 543 for labelling of beef from two formats of best-worst scaling (BWS) with those from direct
50 544 ranking. It was found that direct ranking showed poorer individual choice predictions than
51 545 BWS, and poorer transitivity of attribute importance.
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546 Further, as the evaluations obtained by self-explicated measures corroborate the conjoint
1 547 results, one may wonder whether a comprehensive conjoint experiment is necessary. Sattler
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3 548 and Hensel-Börner (2003) reviewed 23 publications comparing self-explicated to conjoint
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5 549 approaches and conclude that despite theoretical advantages in conjoint experiments, their
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7 550 analysis “fails to confirm the superiority of conjoint measurement”. Nonetheless, our study
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9 551 highlights three assets of conjoint analysis: firstly, information about attributes combinations
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11 552 is revealed. Secondly, in conjoint analysis there is no possible ambiguity when interpreting
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13 553 preferred levels for important attributes. Thirdly, contrary to self-explicated ranking, conjoint
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15 554 ranking always allows the possibility of ties occurring between attributes - even if ties
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17 555 between products are not allowed.
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21 557 **4.3 Respondents’ experience: time usage and monotony**

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23 558 A study of the respondents’ time usage reveals that the conjoint rating test was less time-
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25 559 consuming to perform than the conjoint ranking test, with averages of 83 seconds (median: 76
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27 560 seconds, Standard Deviation: 37) against 127 seconds (median: 116 seconds, S.D.: 54),
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29 561 respectively, after removal of extreme time values in each group (test time <10 seconds or
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31 562 >400 seconds). From a practical point of view, this difference in time usage is unexpected as
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33 563 both tests required nearly the same number of screens (one fewer for the ranking test) and
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35 564 mouse-clicks (one more for the ranking test). Based on time usage, it seems therefore that the
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37 565 rating task is simpler for the consumers than the ranking task. This corroborates Hein et al.
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39 566 (2008), whom in their study comparing five acceptance and preference methods report that
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41 567 preference ranking was identified by the consumers as “the least easy scale to use”. A
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43 568 possible explanation is that ranking requires making many comparative decisions between the
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45 569 cheeses and is thus more cognitively demanding than rating, which is a monadic task.
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47 570 Ranking may force consumers to establish a logical strategy while in rating consumers may
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49 571 rather answer by gut feeling. Finally, note that such time differences may possibly vanish or
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51 572 differ in acceptance tests involving tasting of products.

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53 574 Further, it is possible that some respondents got bored or even annoyed during the conjoint
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55 575 rating experiment, as it consisted in a monotonous succession of nearly identical screens
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57 576 requiring nearly identical tasks where only the picture of the cheese varied. Whereas
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59 577 consumers in conjoint ranking saw from the first test screen that eight cheeses were to be
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61 578 ranked, consumers in conjoint rating may have gone from screen to screen wondering when
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579 the test would be ending, thus losing focus and generating poorly structured data. An
1 580 indication of this is the presence of several consumers that did not fit well into the PCA model
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3 581 for conjoint rating and a generally poorer structure in the rating data than in the ranking data.
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5 582 It may be advisable in the future to inform consumers in a monadic (web-)experiment about
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7 583 the number of items that they will be evaluating. In contrast to conjoint rating respondents,
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9 584 the respondents performing conjoint ranking may have remained better focused on the task
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11 585 throughout the test as it consisted in the succession of varied screens requiring varied tasks
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13 586 (“select four out of eight cheeses”, “select one out of three cheeses”...). Finally, Hein et al.
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15 587 (2008) report that consumers “were more confident that they had provided accurate
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17 588 information” in preference ranking than in hedonic rating, probably due to the simultaneous
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19 589 presentation of samples instead of a monadic one.
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24 592 **5 Conclusion**

26 593 This study compared conjoint experiments and self-explicated measures based on rating and
27
28 594 ranking approaches in consumer testing of cheese attributes. The data from rating and ranking
29
30 595 conjoint experiments were modelled with two parallel multi-step approaches respecting the
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32 596 different nature of the data. Thus, rating data were analysed by a combination of mixed model
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34 597 ANOVA, PCA and PLS-DA, while ranking data were analysed by a combination of mixed
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36 598 logit, PCA and PLS-DA in a new approach. Findings show that the two methods give similar
37
38 599 conclusions both in terms of population effects and consumer segments. On average,
39
40 600 consumers favour cheese of new (healthier) fat composition, organic production and lower
41
42 601 price to cheese of regular fat composition, conventional production and higher price. The
43
44 602 consumer segmentation from conjoint ranking data reveals that consumers attracted by new
45
46 603 fat composition are described as health-conscious consumers who follow a healthy diet,
47
48 604 consume low-fat and low-calorie products and products that keep them healthy. The
49
50 605 consumer segmentation from conjoint rating data corroborates these results by indicating
51
52 606 consumers who follow a healthy diet and are particularly physically active. It seems therefore
53
54 607 that new-fat cheese may especially appeal to already health-conscious consumers. Seen from
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56 608 the respondents’ point of view, the conjoint ranking test is significantly more time consuming
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58 609 than the conjoint rating test but may be perceived as less monotonous and generates more
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60 610 structured data. Further, self-explicated ratings of the cheese attributes corroborate the
61
62 611 conjoint approaches, while self-explicated rankings differ from the three other approaches.
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612 Future research may further investigate modelling of individual preferences in conjoint
1 613 experiments, for example in choice-based conjoint. Finally, hedonic and revealed preference
2 614 studies may be conducted to better measure the potential of healthier semi-hard cheese on the
3 615 Norwegian market.
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7 616

9 617 **Acknowledgements**

10 618 This study was supported by TRUEFOOD (Traditional United Europe Food), an Integrated
11 619 Project financed by the European Commission under the Sixth Framework Programme
12 620 (Contract n° FOOD-CT-2006-016264) and “Quality labelling and consumer responses in the
13 621 Norwegian food sector” (Research Council of Norway, Contract nr. 178200/110). The
14 622 information in this document reflects only the authors’ views and the Community is not liable
15 623 for any use that may be made of the information contained therein.
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725 **Tables**

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2 727 **Table 1. Fractional factorial design used in the conjoint experiments**

Cheese	Code	Low fat	New fat type	Organic	Price (NOK/500g.)
1	1000	Yes	No	No	42
2	1011	Yes	No	Yes	58
3	0001	No	No	No	58
4	0010	No	No	Yes	42
5	1101	Yes	Yes	No	58
6	1110	Yes	Yes	Yes	42
7	0100	No	Yes	No	42
8	0111	No	Yes	Yes	58

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1 731 Table 2. Selected socio-demographic characteristics of the consumer groups

	Rating group n=114	Ranking group n=105	Total sample n=219	National census data per 01.01.2011
Gender (%)				
Female	52.2	49.5	50.9	50.9% ¹
Male	47.8	50.5	49.1	49.1% ¹
Age (%)				
30-39	20.3	23.8	22.0	26.4%
40-59	44.3	40.9	42.7	51.9%
60-70	35.4	35.3	35.3	21.7%
Mean in years (S.D.)	51.3 (11.2)	51.1 (12.3)	51.2 (11.8)	48.6 (n/a) ¹
BMI (%)				
< 18.5 (underweight)	0.9	0	0.5	(n/a)
18.5-24.9 (normal weight)	47.8	38	43.1	(n/a)
25-30 (overweight)	34.5	44.8	39.4	(n/a)
>30-34.9 (obese)	16.8	17.1	17.0	(n/a)
Household size				
Mean (S.D.)	2.5 (1.4)	2.5 (1.3)	2.5 (1.4)	2.2 (n/a) ²
Education (%)				
Secondary school or lower	2.6	0.9	1.8	
High school	31.9	24.8	28.4	
University	65.5	74.3	69.7	
Household income in kNOK/year (S.D.)				
	640 (241)	670 (250)	655 (246)	617.1 (n/a) ³

44 732 Source of national census data: Statistics Norway, www.ssb.no.

45 733 ¹ Age group 30-70 years old specifically.

46 734 ² All age groups confounded.

47 735 ³ Data from 2009 and all age groups confounded.

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Table 3. Reshaping ranking data of t products into choice sets for analysis with discrete choice models. Example for ranking order 4;2;6; ... t-1;t

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Choice set 1		Choice set 2		Choice set 3		...	Choice set t-1	
Sample	Y	Sample	Y	Sample	Y	...	Sample	Y
1	0	1	0	1	0	...	t-1	1
2	0	2	1	3	0	...	t	0
3	0	3	0	5	0	...		
4	1	5	0	6	1	...		
5	0	6	0	...	0	...		
6	0	...	0	t	0			
...	0	t	0					
t	0							

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1 747 Table 4. Mixed model ANOVA on conjoint rating data

Sources of variation	D.F.	SS	F-value	p-value
Low fat	1	8.685	3.54	0.063
New fat	1	58.510	21.05	0.000
Organic	1	14.001	7.35	0.008
Price	1	64.747	24.08	0.000
Low fat*New fat + Organic*Price	1	0.580	0.51	0.477
New fat*Organic + Low fat*Price	1	0.010	0.01	0.920
New fat*Price + Low fat*Organic	1	0.317	0.39	0.532
All consumer effects (main effect and interactions)	904	4046.149		
Error	0			
Total	911	4192.999		
<i>R-Square: n/a</i>				

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750 **Table 5. Mixed logit model on conjoint ranking data**

Factors	Coefficient	z	p-value
Mean			
Low fat	0.185	1.52	0.127
New fat	0.778	5.12	0.000
Organic	0.454	3.59	0.000
Price	-1.600	-6.53	0.000
Lowf*Newf+Organic*Price	-0.178	-1.85	0.064
Newf*Organic+Newf*Price	-0.149	-1.59	0.112
Newf*Price+Lowf*Organic	0.376	3.84	0.000
Standard deviation			
Low fat	0.775	4.09	0.000
New fat	1.088	5.58	0.000
Organic	0.786	4.19	0.000
Price	1.712	6.64	0.000
Lowf*Newf+Organic*Price	0.278	0.86	0.390
Newf*Organic+Newf*Price	0.010	0.03	0.974
Newf*Price+Lowf*Organic	0.006	0.04	0.971
<i>Number of choice observations: 735</i>			
<i>Number of consumers: 105</i>			
<i>Log likelihood at convergence: -989.040</i>			

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753 **Figure captions**

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Figure 1. Picture of cheese sample 1110 (Table 1): low fat (keyhole symbol to the left), new fat type (LHL symbol in the middle), organically produced (Debio symbol to the right) and low price (NOK 42).

Figure 2. Main effects of the four factors in conjoint rating

Figure 3. PCA bi-plots on (a) ANOVA residuals from conjoint rating and (b) individual mixed logit parameter estimates from conjoint ranking. □ Consumers in the Regular fat segment, ○ Consumers in the New fat segment

Figure 4. Correlation loadings from PLS-DA models in (a) conjoint rating and (b) conjoint ranking

Figure 5. Self-explicated rating of factors across conjoint groups and consumer segments

Figure 6. Self-explicated ranking of factors across conjoint groups and consumer segments

Figure 1
[Click here to download high resolution image](#)



Figure 2
[Click here to download high resolution image](#)

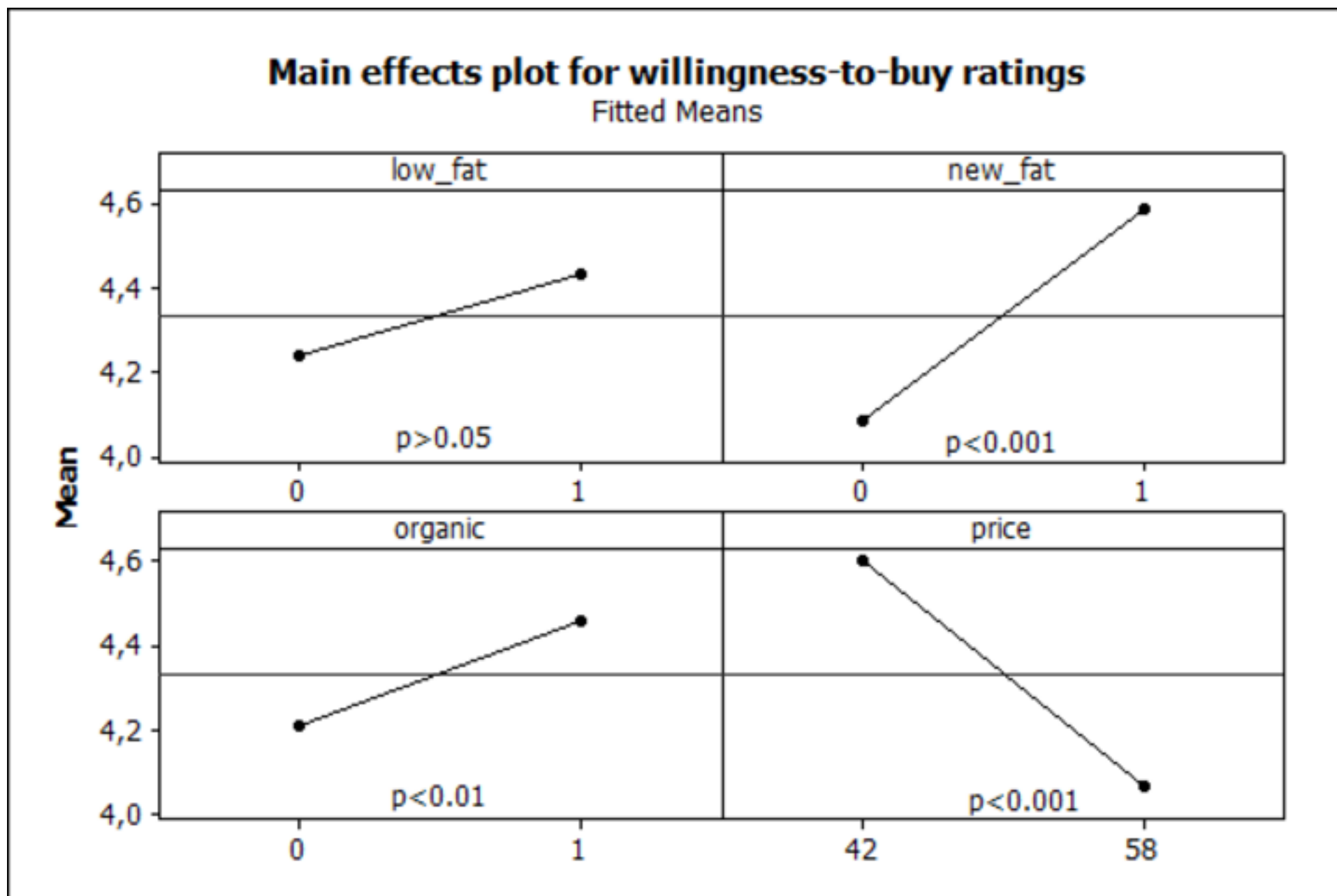


Figure 3a

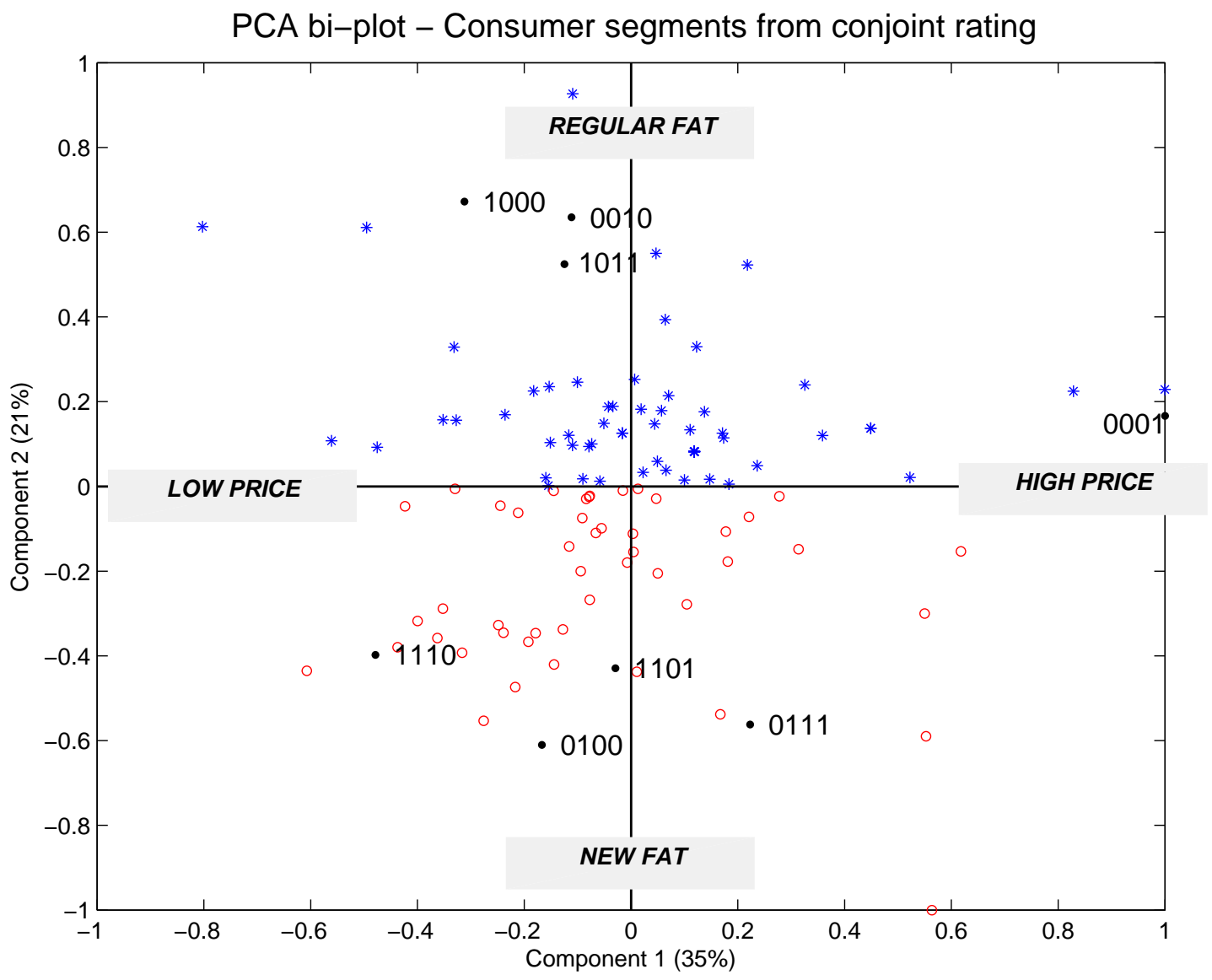


Figure 3b

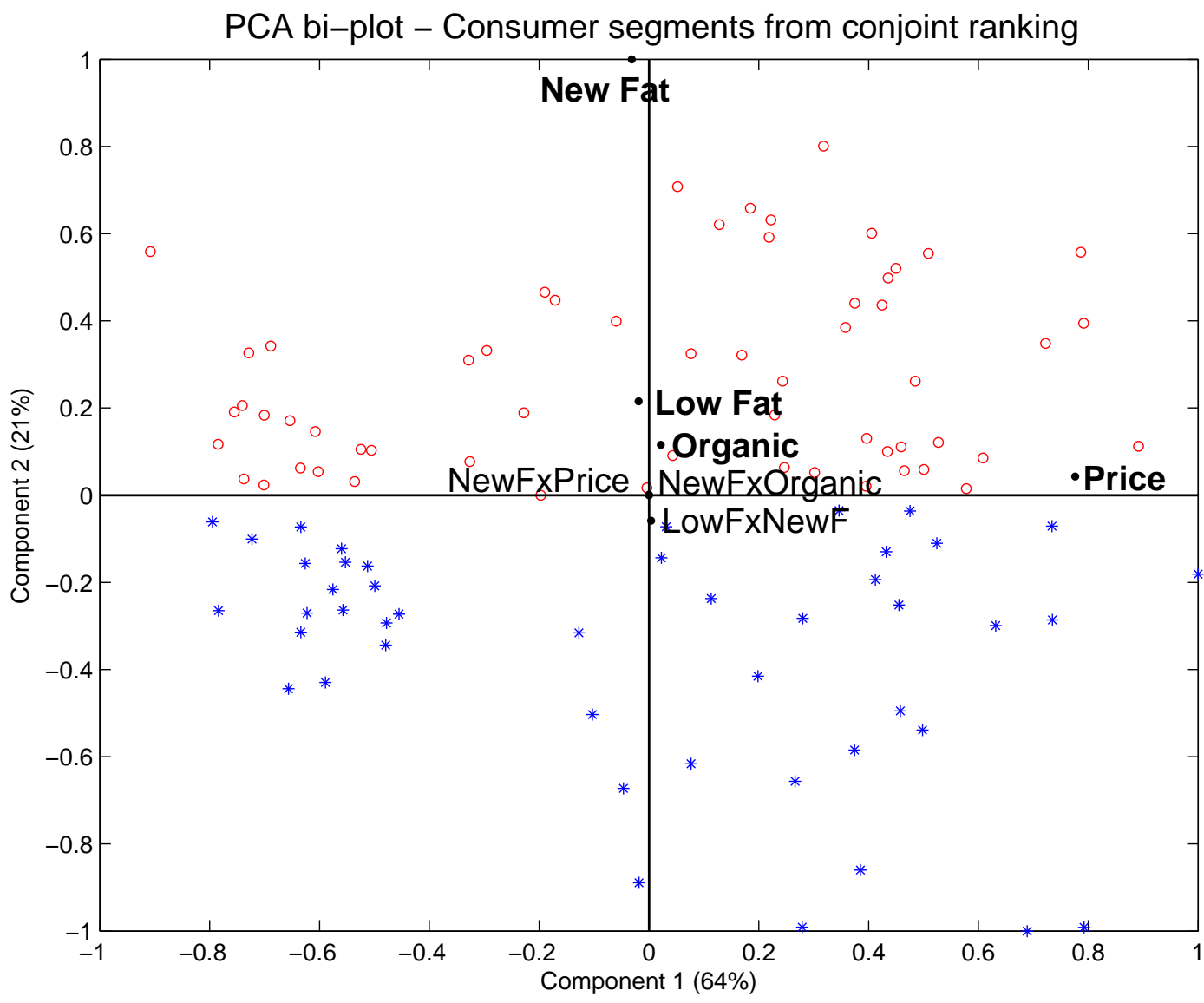


Figure 4a

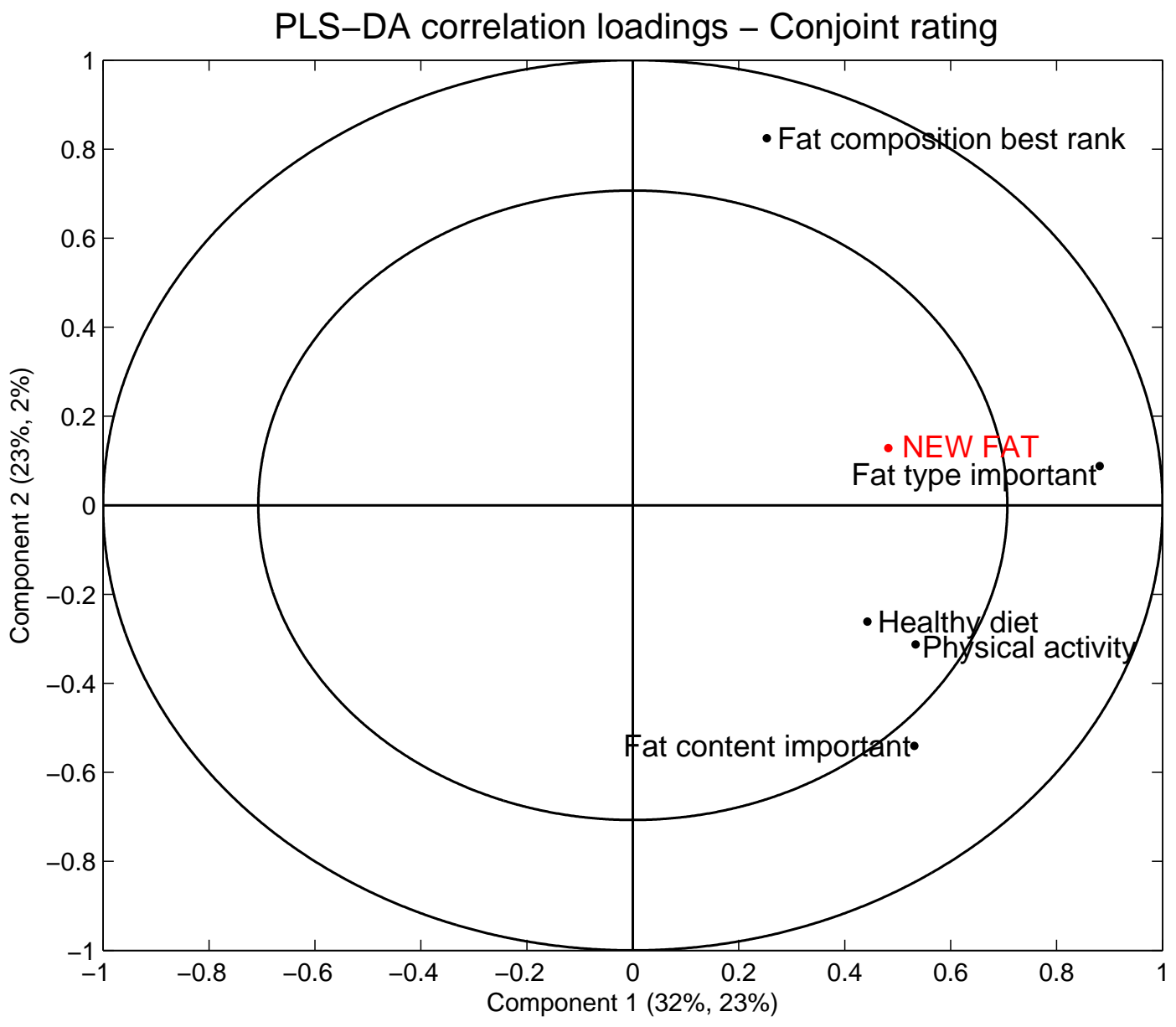


Figure 4b

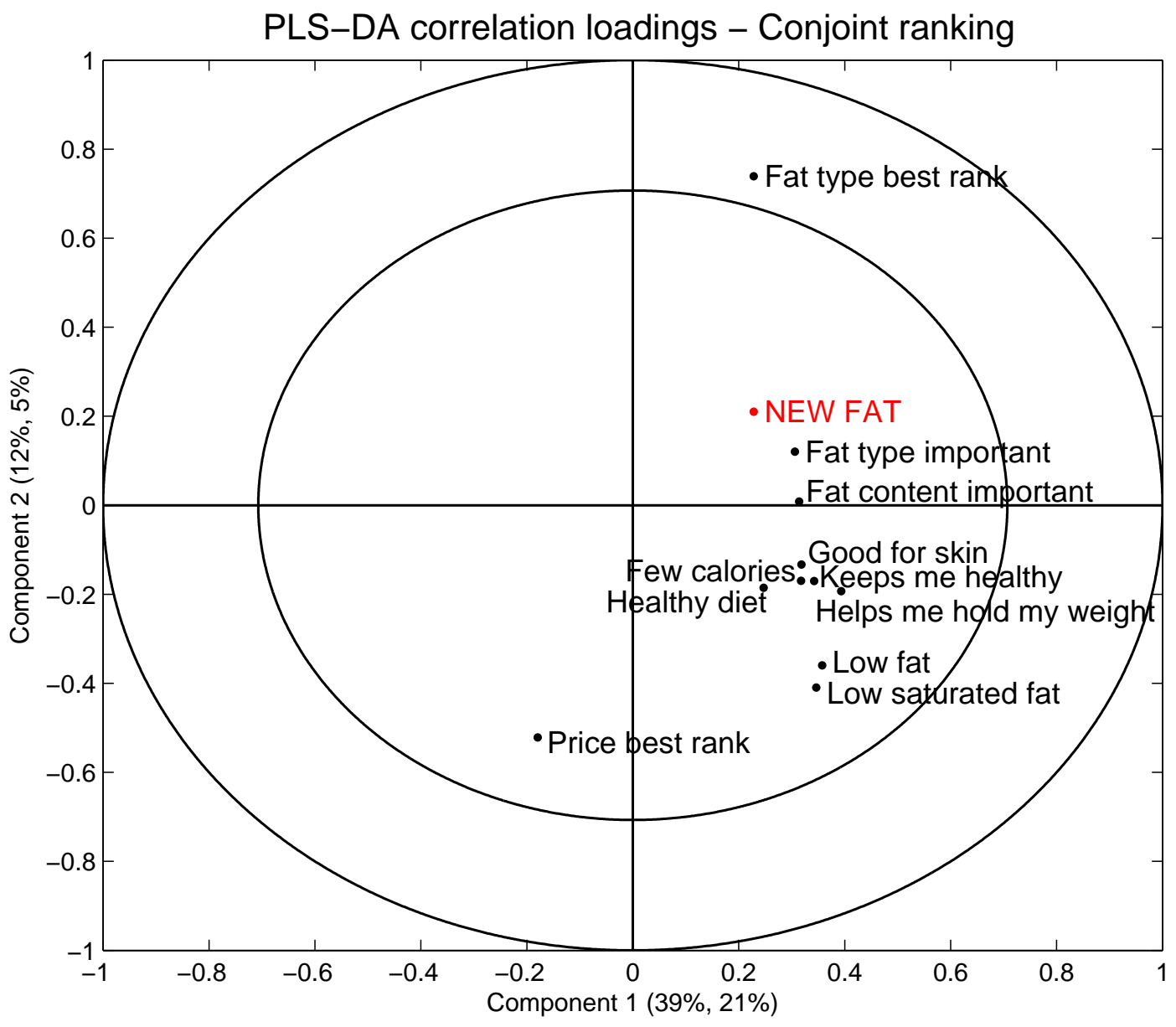


Figure 5

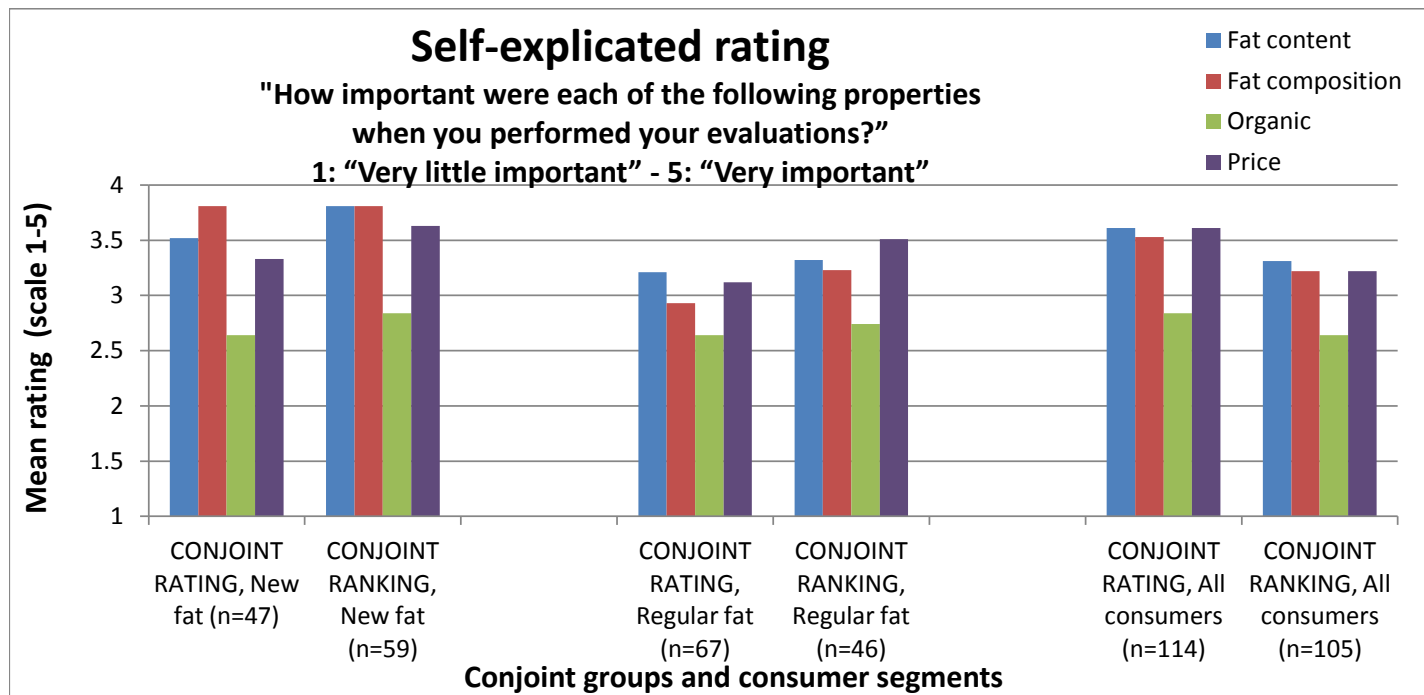


Figure 6

