

1 Citizen science informs demand-driven breeding of 2 opportunity crops

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31 Abstract

32 CONTEXT: Opportunity crops, also known as neglected and underutilized species (NUS), offer
33 benefits to diversify food systems with nutritious and climate-resilient foods. A major limitation
34 to incorporate these crops in farming systems is the lack of improved varieties impedes farmers
35 accessing quality planting material of these crops.

36 OBJECTIVES: The study explored how citizen science methods can support demand-driven
37 breeding and seed production of opportunity crops using leafy amaranth – a nutritious and
38 hardy vegetable- as a case study. The study identified farmer preferences and market
39 segments, with particular attention to gender and social differentiation.

40 METHODS: We used the tricot approach to conduct participatory on-farm trials of 14 varieties
41 with 2,063 farmers from Benin, Mali, and Tanzania. We then analyzed farmer trait and varietal
42 preferences in aggregate and among segments of farmers, generated using cluster analysis.

43 RESULTS: Farmers' overall preferences for amaranth varieties was driven principally by plant
44 survival, yield, leaf size, taste, and marketability. Distinct farmer segments (older women
45 generalists, young women specialists, older men generalists, and young men specialists)
46 preferred different varieties depending on gender, business-orientation.

47 DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION: The farmer segments identified here, along with their unique
48 variety preferences provide valuable information for breeders and seed enterprises, and
49 support demand-driven amaranth breeding and seed system development. We specifically
50 noted the need for breeding programs to understand the preferences of young amaranth
51 specialists, both men and women, and to explore organoleptic and market-related properties of
52 amaranth.

53 SIGNIFICANCE: Our findings on differentiated producer preferences will support scaling seed
54 supply of amaranth in Africa to diversify farming systems with a climate-resilient and nutritious
55 crop. The methods used and lessons learned from our citizen science exercise can be applied to
56 enhance breeding and seed supply of other opportunity crops that are underutilized in Africa or
57 other continents.

58 Keywords

59 African traditional vegetables, data-driven agriculture, neglected and underutilized crops,
60 market segmentation, socioeconomic heterogeneity, tricot approach, amaranth

61

62 Highlights

- 63 • Farmer citizen science methods reveal seed market insights for opportunity crops
- 64 • Amaranth variety preferences vary widely across gender, age, and countries
- 65 • Young amaranth producers focus on market and sensory traits compared to old
66 producers
- 67 • Large-scale farmer feedback guides opportunity crop breeding for diverse segments

68 Introduction

69 Supporting diversified farming systems that incorporate fruits and vegetables is an important
70 response to challenges of malnutrition and climate vulnerability in Africa (Covic & Hendriks,
71 2016; FAO et al., 2021; Harris et al., 2022; Keatinge et al., 2011; von Grebmer et al., 2014). Of
72 particular interest are opportunity crops or neglected and underutilized crop species (NUS),
73 which include native and indigenized vegetables (Mwadzingeni et al., 2021; Van Zonneveld et
74 al., 2023). These species are hailed for their high levels of vitamins, minerals, antioxidants, and
75 dietary fibers (Aworh, 2018; Kanga et al., 2013; Odhav et al., 2007; Yang & Keding, 2009), their
76 contributions to agrobiodiversity and climate resilience (Harris et al., 2022; Mwadzingeni et al.,
77 2021; Slabbert et al., 2004; Van Zonneveld et al., 2023), and their suitability for African
78 smallholder systems under a changing climate (Aworh, 2018; Mwadzingeni et al., 2021;
79 Schreinemachers et al., 2018; van Zonneveld et al., 2023).

80
81 Although NUS have long been part of diets in Africa, vegetable consumption in Africa is among
82 the lowest in the world and has been relatively static over time (Afari-Sefa et al., 2012; Afshin et
83 al., 2019; Kalmpourtzidou et al., 2020; Schreinemachers et al., 2021). Vegetable supply is
84 generally insufficient to meet dietary recommendations (Kalmpourtzidou et al., 2020), despite
85 sales of NUS throughout sub-Saharan Africa (Weinberger & Pichop, 2009). Evidence suggests
86 that NUS supply is insufficient to meet year-round demand (Okello et al., 2015; Tatsvarei &
87 Rukasha, 2022), which appears to be increasing among growing urban and peri-urban
88 populations (Dinssa et al., 2016; Karanja et al., 2012; Okello et al., 2015; Tatsvarei & Rukasha,
89 2022). Supporting expanded production of climate-resilient NUS is therefore a promising means
90 to address nutrition challenges and potentially boost smallholder incomes.

91
92 Bolstering NUS production and consumption likely requires a range of interventions, including
93 awareness-raising and demand creation among consumers, reforms to policies and subsidy
94 programs to support NUS cultivation and agronomic advances to improve production,
95 infrastructure development related to post-harvest handling, and expanded breeding to ensure
96 NUS meet producer and consumer needs (McMullin et al., 2021). These intervention points

97 emerge from the many factors underlying the underutilization of NUS, including social stigma
98 around NUS consumption and the deprioritization of NUS in policies, research, and
99 development relative to staple crops (Kansiime et al., 2018; Keatinge et al., 2011, 2015;
100 McMullin et al., 2021; Schreinemachers et al., 2018).

101
102 We focus here on breeding of neglected vegetables and access to quality seed as critical
103 components of expanded production and consumption. Farmers need access to seed that
104 meets their needs, priorities, and constraints, aligns with consumer demand, and supports their
105 adaptation to climate stresses (Kansiime & Mastenbroek, 2016). However, limited access to
106 quality planting material often undermines the success of NUS interventions (McMullin et al.,
107 2021). While informal seed systems are often the most accessible and affordable for
108 smallholder farmers (Afari-Sefa et al., 2012; Keatinge et al., 2015; McGuire & Sperling, 2016),
109 informed varietal selection is not always possible, and the quality of seed is a frequent
110 concern—including for NUS (Ayenan et al., 2021). Farmers' current access to improved NUS
111 varieties of vegetables is largely through seed kits distributed by the World Vegetable Center
112 (WorldVeg) (N'Danikou et al., 2022). However, limited commercial offerings of improved NUS
113 varieties leave many farmers to cultivate NUS varieties with lower yield potential or those at
114 relative risk from climate change, pests, and diseases (Adebooye et al., 2005; Mwadzingeni et
115 al., 2021; Schreinemachers et al., 2018).

116
117 Breeding of appropriate varieties underpins improved seed access, whether through formal or
118 informal seed systems. Increased attention to breeding of neglected vegetables has the
119 potential to generate numerous biophysical and nutritional benefits, including improved yields,
120 pest and disease resistance, drought and heat tolerance, and high micronutrient content
121 (Mwadzingeni et al., 2021). However, breeding of neglected vegetables has been overlooked, as
122 the historic focus has been on staple crops in the interest of combating caloric deficiencies
123 (Mwadzingeni et al., 2021; Nabuuma et al., 2022; Santpoort, 2020). At present, farmer
124 preferences and market segments for most NUS are poorly understood, and African seed
125 companies' capacity for vegetable breeding and seed production is limited (Afari-Sefa et al.,

126 2012). As such, breeders and seed enterprises that might be interested in expanding NUS
127 varietal offerings have little market intelligence to guide them.

128

129 Furthermore, varietal release processes and evaluation criteria (including Value for Cultivation
130 and Use- VCU), through which newly developed lines are tested and released for commercial
131 production, were designed principally for cereal crops. As such, they do not always measure
132 characteristics of vegetables that are important to producers and consumers, such as color and
133 shape, long seasonality, shelf life, texture and taste (Afari-Sefa et al., 2012; Keatinge et al.,
134 2015; Schreinemachers et al., 2021; Turner & Bishaw, 2016). As a result, relevant traits for
135 agroecological suitability, stress tolerance, and yield have not been well identified or
136 characterized for many NUS (Dinssa et al., 2016). This means that data to inform critical trade-
137 offs in breeding between yield, abiotic and biotic stress tolerance, nutrition, commercially-
138 relevant characteristics, and other traits are not widely available (Afari-Sefa et al., 2012).

139

140 Several gene banks at national and international levels, including those hosted by WorldVeg,
141 hold substantial collections of NUS genetic materials. One challenge has been leveraging these
142 resources productively in support of breeding (Schafleitner et al., 2022; van Etten et al., 2023).
143 At the time of writing this publication, WorldVeg hosts a genebank containing 60,000
144 accessions from ~400 vegetable species (World Vegetable Center, 2023). However, WorldVeg's
145 genetic resources for NUS are not heavily tapped by private seed companies, and formal NUS
146 seed systems remain under-developed in many countries (Adebooye et al., 2005; Muendo et
147 al., 2004). Better integration of WorldVeg's genebank with public breeding programs and
148 existing seed systems could help ensure sustainable access to a diversity of improved NUS
149 varieties from which producers and consumers can benefit (N'Danikou et al., 2022). Over the
150 last decade, WorldVeg's African traditional vegetables breeding program has leveraged gender-
151 disaggregated participatory breeding approaches to identify product profiles and select
152 promising breeding lines of amaranth, African eggplant and other traditional vegetables (Dinssa
153 et al., 2016, 2022), but this has been conducted in a limited number of locations. Surprisingly no
154 or very few gender-segregated preference studies can be found for these traditional vegetables

155 (summarized in Christinck et al., 2017; Weltzien et al., 2019). Evidence of gender-based
156 differences in consumer preferences, demand, and willingness-to-pay for NUS is also scanty
157 (Gido et al., 2017; Odoendo et al., 2020; Senyolo et al., 2014; Wanyama et al., 2023).

158
159 This knowledge gap could be a crucial oversight given the gender dynamics of NUS production
160 and marketing. Women are often heavily engaged in production of NUS in rural areas, where
161 they typically manage home gardens and prepare food for the household (Dinssa et al., 2016;
162 Ojiewo et al., 2015). Commercial vegetable production, in contrast with subsistence production
163 in home gardens, skews toward men (Wanyama et al., 2023; Weinberger & Pichop, 2009).
164 However, women are primary marketers of NUS, even in cases where men are the primary
165 producers (Dinssa et al., 2016; Fischer et al., 2020; Weinberger & Pichop, 2009). As such,
166 understanding men's and women's preferences as producers, marketers, and consumers of
167 NUS is critical and should be incorporated into analysis of market segments.

168
169 In this context, expanded participatory breeding research is critical to ensure that promising
170 accessions selected from gene banks hosting NUS, and any improved varieties developed
171 through them, respond to the real-world needs, constraints, and priorities of farmers and
172 consumers (Schafleitner et al., 2022; van Etten et al., 2023; Van Zonneveld et al., 2023).
173 Participatory research also offers opportunities to explore diversity considerations and market
174 segmentation, i.e., how gender, socioeconomic status, and intended product end-uses might
175 contribute to variation in trait and varietal preferences. We used the tricot approach for on-
176 farm testing, which allows evaluation of a collection of varieties for multiple traits across many
177 women and men farmers and locations. It is this property that makes it possible to detect
178 differential preferences across segments and understand how preferences differ among
179 gender. In this process, we also sought to build a model for demand-driven participatory
180 breeding that can be applied to other NUS as well as staple crops, supporting the expansion of
181 local seed enterprises' engagement in NUS seed systems as well as farmers' access to quality
182 NUS seed.

183

184 We used leafy amaranth as an example case to examine farmer preferences for NUS in different
185 countries and identify market segments. Amaranth (*Amaranthus* spp.) is among the most
186 commonly recognized traditional African vegetables, typically grown at small scale and often in
187 home gardens (Ochieng et al., 2019). Economically important species include *A. cruentus*, *A.*
188 *hypochondriacus*, *A. hybridus*, *A. dubius* and *A. caudatus* (Dinssa et al., 2016). Although
189 amaranth originates as a grain crop in the Americas, it is consumed primarily as a leafy
190 vegetable in Africa, with demand for grain building (van Zonneveld et al., 2021). Leaf nutrient
191 content may vary with species and genotype. Most species constitute a good source of protein
192 and calcium (particularly the grain), Vitamin C, zinc, magnesium, and other minerals (Kachiguma
193 et al., 2015; Kamga et al., 2013). Although WorldVeg seed kit distributions have helped
194 disseminate improved varieties (Stoilova et al., 2019; Wanyama et al., 2023), access to quality
195 amaranth seed remains a challenge, as there is not yet a wide diversity of improved amaranth
196 seed varieties in many markets (Cernansky, 2015; Kansiime et al., 2018; Onim & Mwaniki,
197 2008).

198

199 **Materials and Methods**

200 **Trial design and variety evaluation**

201 On-farm citizen science trials were conducted to enable participatory amaranth variety testing
202 across a range of agroecological (humid coastal and drylands), socioeconomic (urban and peri-
203 urban settings), and societal (cultural settings and gender) contexts. Trials were based on the
204 triadic comparison of technologies (tricot) approach, in which a large number of farmer-
205 managed plots are established on which individual farmers host random sets of three out of the
206 full set of varieties and evaluate each of the three varieties at multiple stages in the growing
207 season (van Etten et al., 2019, 2020). This design is particularly suited to the evaluation of
208 varietal performance by many different farmers, which is essential for detecting differences in
209 preference among types of producers. Unlike conventional participatory variety selection
210 conducted mostly through researcher-managed trials, farmers participate individually. They
211 assess varieties grown on their own fields with their own tools and inputs, using the labor to

212 which they have access, in the context of their unique needs and constraints. In this regard, the
 213 tricot approach is relatively sensitive to gender and social inclusion (Voss et al., 2023).
 214 Decentralized on-farm trials also mitigate some of the concerns that researcher-managed on-
 215 station and on-farm trials, including participatory variety selection through researcher-
 216 managed trials, are not representative of farmers' actual growing conditions and are poor
 217 predictors of farmer preferences (De Roo et al., 2017; de Sousa et al., 2021; Laajaj et al., 2020;
 218 Misiko, 2013).

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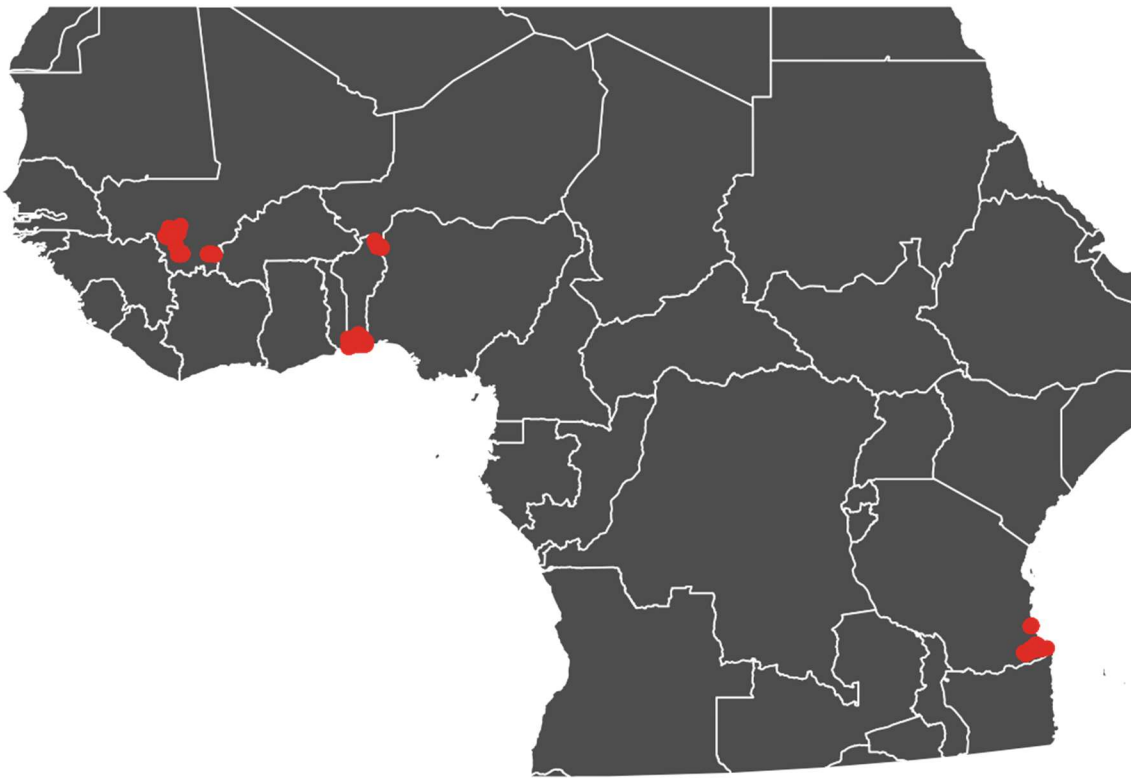
220 *Table 1. Varieties distributed in trials, and number of farmers per country.*

Genotype	Checks	Seed source	Benin	Mali	Tanzania
AC-NL		Genebank	233	324	100
A2004	Check Mali	Genebank	148	225	
A2002		Breeding	148	323	
Akeri		Genebank	231	322	100
AM-NKGN		Breeding	234		
AVAM1938		Breeding			100
AVAM1939		Breeding			100
AVAM1941		Breeding			100
IP-5-Sel		Breeding	228	322	
Local	Check Benin and Mali	Genebank	231	99	
Madiira 1	Check Tanzania	Breeding	231	323	100
Madiira 2		Breeding	234	324	100
Nguruma		Breeding	232	324	100
Poli		Breeding	232	321	100

221

222 Amaranth trials for this study were conducted with 794 farmers (Figure 1) in the Atlantic,
 223 Oueme, and Alibori regions of Benin, and with 969 farmers in the Bougouni, Sikasso, and

224 Koulikoro regions in Mali, from 2021-2022. Trials were also conducted with 300 farmers in
225 Mtwara and Lindi regions in Tanzania in 2022. In all three countries, trials used a balanced
226 incomplete block design under which host farmers received three of fourteen amaranth
227 genotypes and promising accessions drawn from the WorldVeg genebank (Table 1). Each
228 farmer received 2 g of seed per variety (6 g total), with variety names coded A, B, and C. Plot
229 sizes (5 × 2 m in Mali and Tanzania, 6 × 1.2 m in Benin) and plant spacing (60 × 40 cm in Mali, 20
230 × 20 cm in Benin, 15 × 15 cm in Tanzania) were recommended but not strictly enforced.
231 Farmers were permitted to practice their preferred management so long as it was consistent
232 across their three plots.



233
234

235 Figure 1. Centroids (red dots) of amaranth on-farm trials in Benin, Mali and Tanzania.

236 Farmers evaluated their three varieties regularly throughout the season, including four harvest
237 periods. Evaluations involved ranking varieties' overall performance and specific agronomic and
238 end-use traits: germination, vigor, plant survival, pest tolerance, disease resistance, drought
239 and flood tolerance, plant height, branching, yield, leaf size, marketability and taste (as
8

240 consumers of their own products). Socio-economic data on the host farm and farmers,
241 including information on product sales practices and seed acquisition, were also collected.

242

243 Data analysis

244 We analyzed the tricot ranking data using the Plackett-Luce model (Luce, 1959; Plackett, 1975),
245 recommended for analysis of on-farm tricot data (de Sousa et al., 2021). This model produces,
246 scaleless, quantitative estimates of individual varietal performance for different traits,
247 reflecting the probability of each variety of outperforming all other varieties in the tested set.
248 The model is implemented in R using the package `PlackettLuce` (Turner et al., 2020) and
249 extended with model-based recursive partitioning, which produces Plackett-Luce trees (Zeileis
250 et al., 2008). We report probabilities of outperforming all other items in the set as log *worth*
251 estimates. The data were processed using the R packages *ClimMobTools* (de Sousa & van Etten,
252 2024) and *gosset* (de Sousa et al., 2023). Due to the large number of traits assessed (10), some
253 over multiple growth stages in the season (up to 6 data collection moments), we used Kendall
254 Tau partial correlation to identify the traits most closely associated with farmers' overall
255 preference for the tested varieties. Traits were selected using a backward selection approach,
256 starting with the full set of traits and iteratively removing the traits with least correlation to
257 overall preference until no uncorrelated traits remain ($p > 0.05$). These traits were used to
258 perform the likelihood-ratio test (described below), and the principal component analysis with
259 the Plackett-Luce coefficients obtained for each trait.

260

261 To identify any potential farmers' segments, we applied a cluster analysis using the farmers'
262 socioeconomic data (analyzed independently from the variety performance rankings). This was
263 done following existing producer segmentation studies (Hammond et al. 2020; Kilwinger et al.
264 2021). We used covariates relevant to producer preferences identified in past studies and
265 reflective of grower and end-user requirements in seed product market segments (Donovan et
266 al., 2022). The variables used were gender, age, years of experience growing the amaranth,
267 distance to markets, gender of who controls the production, gender of who controls the selling,
268 and household income share from amaranth production (Table 2, Table 3). Segmentation was

269 performed in R using the package cluster (Maechler et al., 2023). The categorical variables were
270 converted to factors, and dissimilarities were computed using the daisy function. Numeric
271 variables were standardized, and Euclidean distances were calculated. The resulting distance
272 matrices underwent hierarchical clustering, and optimal clusters were determined via the
273 cutree function. Subsequent refinement and validation of clusters were conducted, leading to
274 the identification of four distinct clusters (segments). After the definition of segments in R, we
275 used a Large Language Model approach to describe the main characteristics of each segment
276 using the full set of covariates. The descriptions were checked and refined afterwards to
277 prevent hallucinations, when incorrect or misleading results are generated.
278 We then used a likelihood-ratio test to assess whether varietal rankings for key traits retained
279 by the Kendall partial correlation differed significantly between different segments. We used
280 the function likelihood_ratio available in the R package gosset. Briefly, the Plackett-Luce model
281 is fitted using maximum likelihood, which allows the log likelihood for a single model fitted to
282 full dataset to be compared to sum of log likelihoods for separate models fitted to pre-defined
283 splits of the data, accounting for the increase in degrees of freedom in such a segmented
284 model.
285 Finally, we performed a regret analysis using coefficients from the Plackett-Luce rankings of
286 marketability. We used the function regret from the package gosset. Regret is a risk assessment
287 analysis to support farmers' diversification analysis. We present minimum regret, which is
288 calculated by taking the summed squares of the distances of each variety to the best variety in
289 each market segment and taking the square root of the resulting sum. It can be interpreted as
290 the total distance to the 'best variety' in each group using the log-worth estimates. This
291 measure is therefore more sensitive to differentiated preferences than the overall worth, which
292 could be biased if one group has a very strong preference for a particular variety, which is less
293 preferred by other segments.

294 Results

295 Sample characteristics

296 Registered trial participants' demographic and socioeconomic characteristics are indicated in
 297 Table 2. Across countries, 56.2% of the trial participants were women, although men were
 298 disproportionately represented in Tanzania (69.7%) and Benin (66.9%) and under-represented
 299 in Mali (16.9%). This may reflect the higher degree of commercialization of amaranth in Benin
 300 and Tanzania. Roughly half of participating households were nuclear families, although the
 301 majority of women trial participants came from either polygamous or single parent households.

302

303 *Table 2. Characteristics of trial participants and their households/farms.*

	Overall	Benin	Mali	Tanzania	Men	Women
Trial participants	2063	794	969	300	904	1159
Men	43.8%	66.9%	16.9%	69.7%		
Women	56.2%	33.1%	83.1%	30.3%		
Average household size	11	16.7	18.4	3.9		
Household structure						
Nuclear family	51.6%	73.9%	22.7%	67.7%	65.4%	39.9%
Polygamous family	32.1%	18.5%	58.0%	3.3%	20.5%	41.9%
Single parent household	16.4%	7.6%	19.3%	29.0%	14.2%	18.2%
Average share of amaranth crop sold (among households that sell)	58.1%	81.0%	40.2%	54.8%	63.2%	54.0%
Average share of HH income made through amaranth sales (among households that sell)	24.7%	22.1%	24.0%	34.2%	21.4%	27.3%
Primary employment						
Farming	93.6%	94.8%	93.5%	91.3%	91.3%	95.6%
Salaried employment	1.7%	0.8%	2.5%	1.7%	2.7%	0.8%
Self-employment off-farm	3.8%	2.7%	3.4%	7.0%	4.9%	2.8%
Other	0.9%	1.7%	0.6%	0.0%	1.1%	0.8%

Farmers using irrigation on farm	84.9%	83.6%	83.1%	92.0%	87.4%	82.8%
Engagement with extension services	67.9%	85.8%	45.1%	80.0%	79.4%	58.2%

304

305 Farming was the dominant occupation across countries. Among the 84% of households that
 306 reported selling amaranth, on average 58% of amaranth produced was sold (81% in Benin).

307 These sales contributed 25% of household income on average among households selling
 308 amaranth.

309

310 Table 3 shows the intrahousehold dynamics of amaranth production, sales, and seed exchange
 311 and suggests that women are slightly more engaged in amaranth activities overall, and
 312 especially sales. However, there is substantial variation in men’s and women’s engagement
 313 between countries. While amaranth production, marketing, and seed exchange were
 314 reportedly primarily undertaken by men in Benin and Tanzania, women in Mali were said to
 315 hold disproportionate responsibility for amaranth. These differences are, at least in part, likely a
 316 result of the gender balance of the trials in the three countries, as both women and men were
 317 more likely to report themselves as having control over amaranth than to report that their
 318 partner has control.

319

320 *Table 3. Household-level control over amaranth production, sales, and seed exchange, as reported by the trial participants.*

	Overall	Benin	Mali	Tanzania
Control over amaranth production				
Man	40.0%	58.9%	13.2%	60.0%
Woman	48.2%	29.3%	75.1%	27.7%
Both	8.4%	4.0%	11.4%	11.0%
Other	3.4%	7.8%	0.3%	1.3%
Control over amaranth sales				
Man	34.4%	50.8%	7.5%	59.0%
Woman	52.0%	32.4%	81.4%	28.7%
Both	7.8%	4.7%	9.5%	10.7%

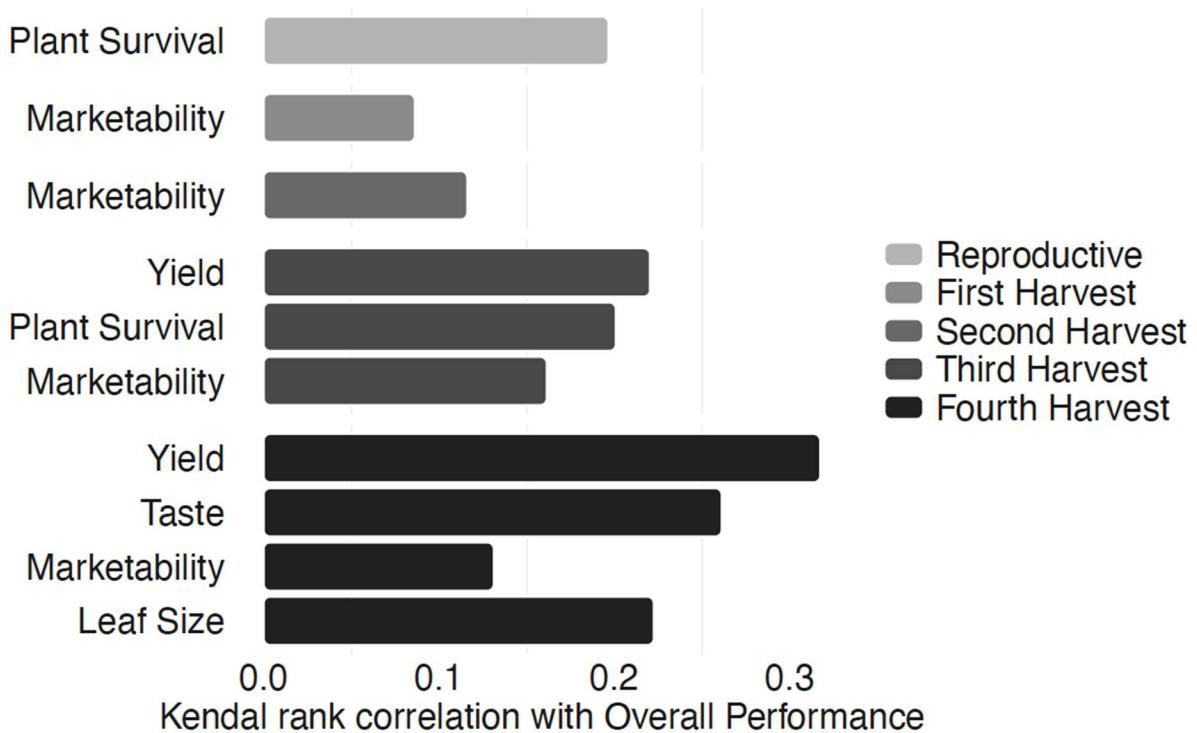
Other	5.8%	12.1%	1.7%	1.7%
Control over amaranth seed exchange				
Man	39.8%	56.2%	14.4%	61.3%
Woman	46.3%	28.5%	71.1%	28.0%
Both	10.1%	5.5%	14.4%	9.3%
Other	3.9%	9.8%	0.2%	1.3%

321

322 Overall trait and variety preferences

323 To understand farmer preferences, we first used Kendall-Tau correlations to identify key traits
 324 correlated with farmers' overall preferences. This process showed that plant survival (both
 325 during the reproductive phase and at the third harvest), yield (primarily at later harvests), taste
 326 and leaf size (at final harvest), and marketability (at all harvest periods) were the traits that
 327 drove farmers' overall preferences (Figure 2). This allowed us to focus on these traits as those
 328 most relevant to farmers' overall choices.

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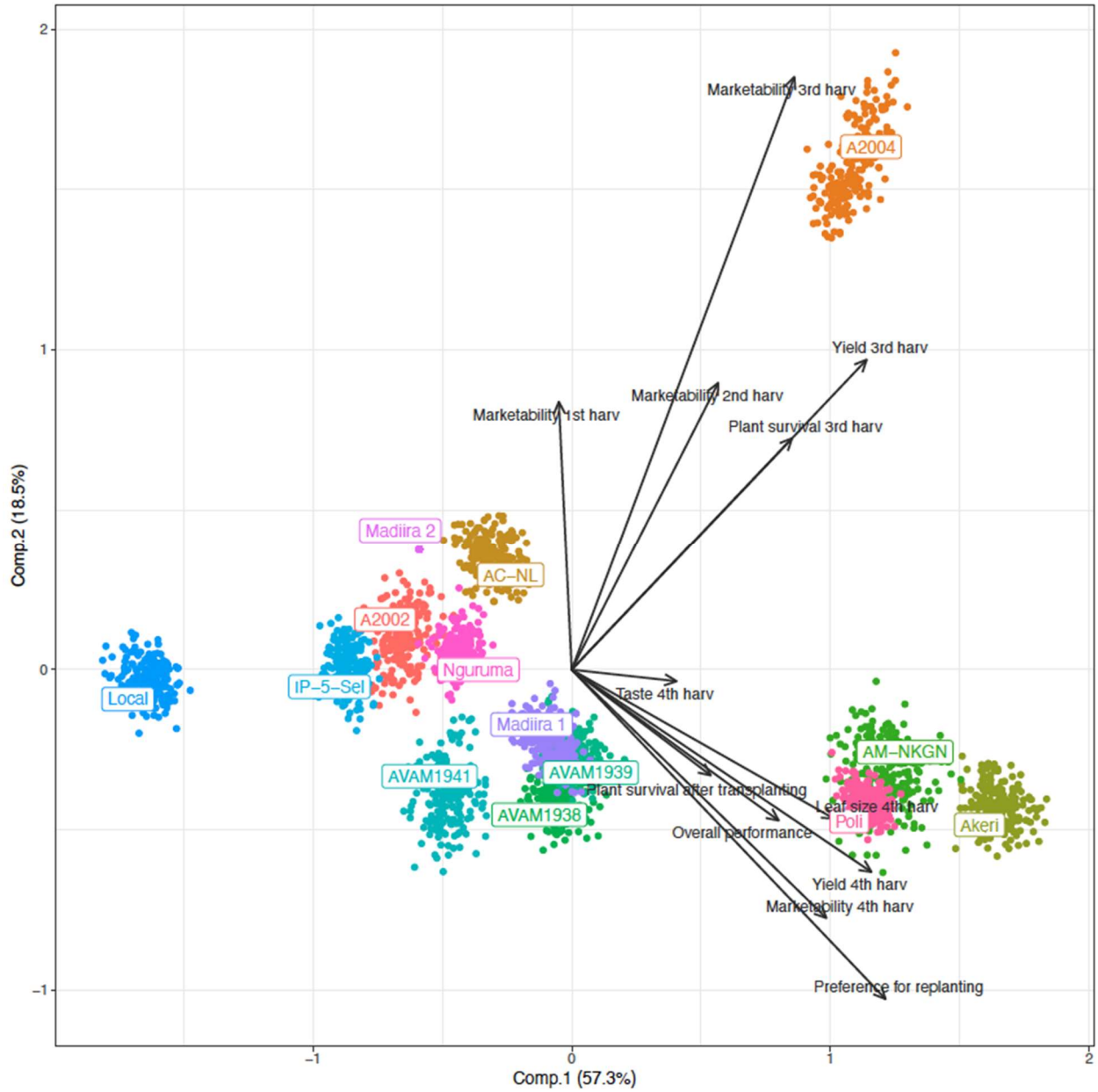
331 *Figure 2. Among the many traits which farmers evaluated throughout the season, marketability, yield (especially at later*
 332 *harvests), taste, plant survival, and leaf size were most strongly correlated with farmers' overall variety preferences.*

333

334 In aggregate (Figure 3), farmer overall variety preferences skewed toward Akeri, Poli, and AM-
335 NKGN, linked to their marketability, leaf size, yield, and taste at fourth harvest. These varieties
336 were often reported to be preferred for use in subsequent seasons. A2004 emerged as another
337 popular variety, driven by its marketability in the first three harvests, yield, and plant survival in
338 the third harvest, but less by overall preference. However, this breakdown ignores any possible
339 segmentation of farmer preferences.

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345 *Figure 3. Principal components of Plackett-Luce model estimates (log-worth) on amaranth trait performance. Dots represent the*

346 *performance (log-worth) of each amaranth variety ranked by farmers. Arrows represent the paths (correlation) of varieties and*

347 *the main traits retained after backward selection.*

348

349 Variation in farmer preferences

350 To consider variation in farmer preferences, we undertook a segmentation process that
 351 produced four farmer segments, listed in Table 4. These segments are largely distinguished by
 352 gendered control over amaranth, income generated, and experience in amaranth farming. The
 353 “Older Women Generalists” segment represents women who have significant control over both
 354 the sale and production of amaranth. They earn only a moderate share of income from
 355 amaranth and have relatively less experience in amaranth farming. “Young Women Specialists”
 356 includes younger women who were highly involved in both the production and sale of
 357 amaranth. They boasted the highest income share from amaranth and substantial experience
 358 cultivating it, indicating a greater degree of specialization in amaranth. “Older Men Generalists”
 359 are predominantly men with considerable experience in amaranth farming. They have control
 360 over both the production and sale of amaranth but a lower income share from the crop. The
 361 “Young Men Specialists” segment represents younger men with the highest average experience
 362 cultivating amaranth and a significant income share from amaranth. They controlled both the
 363 production and sale.

364

365 Table 4. Demographic and socioeconomic characteristics of farmers segments in amaranth production in Benin, Mali, and
 366 Tanzania.

	Segments			
	<i>Older Women Generalists</i>	<i>Young Women Specialists</i>	<i>Older Men Generalists</i>	<i>Young Men Specialists</i>
Average Age (years)	43	35	45	34
Dominant Gender	Woman	Woman	Man	Man
Who Controls Sale	Woman	Woman	Man	Man
Who Controls Production	Woman	Woman	Man	Man
Avg. Income Crop Share (%)	21.59	35.42	14.17	29.01
Avg. Experience with Crop (years)	1.18	6.2	5.52	8.95
Characteristics	Women with significant control over both sale and production, moderate income	Younger women highly involved in both production and sale, highest income share from amaranth, and	Predominantly men with considerable experience in amaranth	Younger men with high experience, significant income share from amaranth, control

	share from amaranth, relatively less experience in amaranth farming.	substantial experience growing amaranth, indicating specialization.	farming, control over both production and sale, but the lowest average income share from the crop.	over both production and sale, indicating specialization.
--	--	---	--	---

367

368

369 To validate these groups, we conducted a log-likelihood ratio test. Table 5 indicates whether
 370 each segment generated statistically different rankings on the key traits retained by the Kendall
 371 partial correlation. Other than traits ranked at the fourth harvest (when a smaller number of
 372 observations were recorded), all key traits' rankings were distinguished across the four
 373 segments.

374

375 *Table 5. Log-likelihood ratio test estimates for the main traits assessed by farmers within segments.*

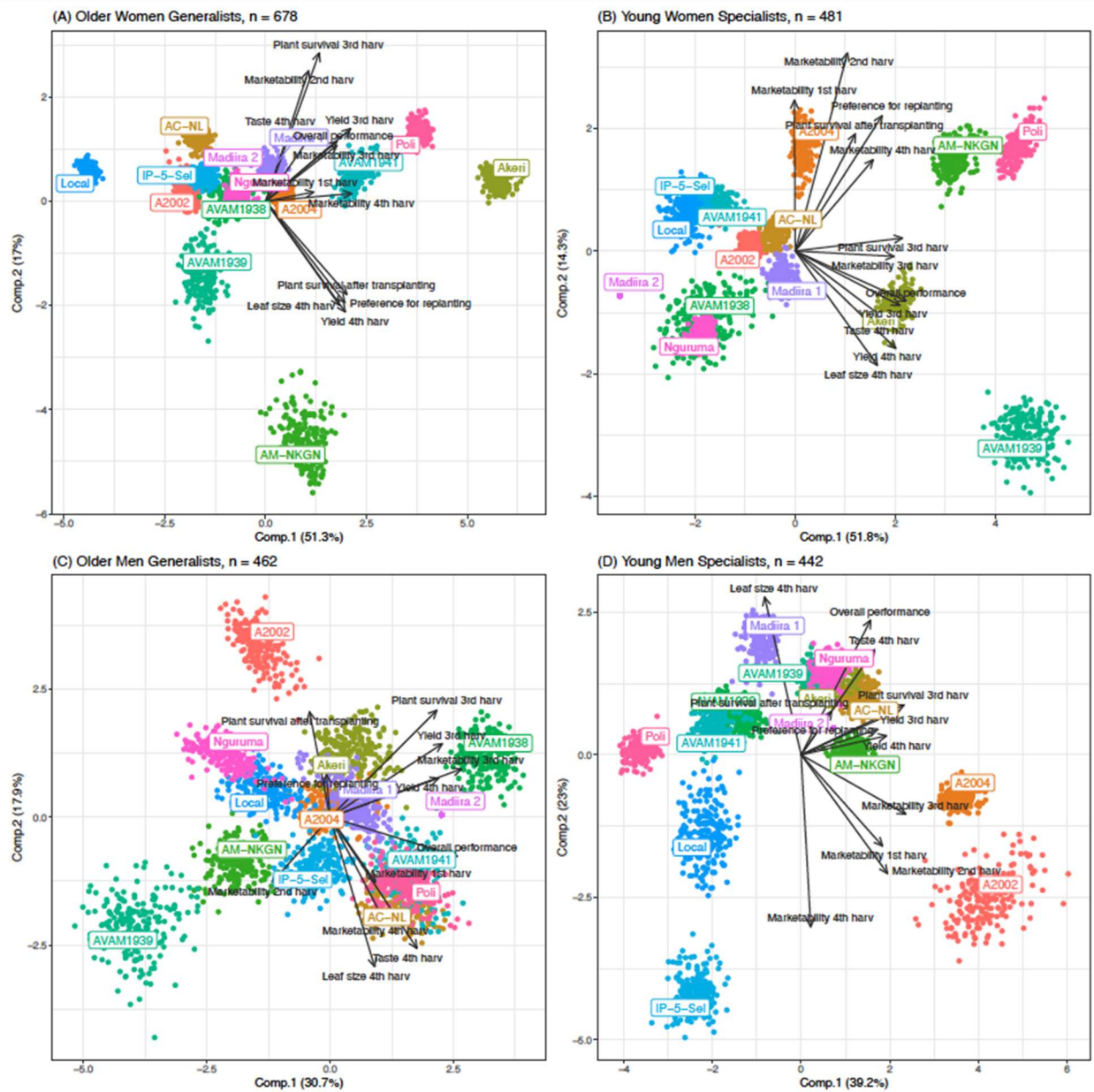
Trait	Deviance	Pr(>Chisq)	
Plant survival after transplanting	65.239	0.005	*
Marketability 1st harvest	57.684	0.027	*
Marketability 2nd harvest	59.875	0.017	*
Plant survival 3rd harvest	70.380	0.002	*
Yield 3rd harvest	59.204	0.020	*
Marketability 3rd harvest	54.843	0.048	*
Yield 4th harvest	45.576	0.217	
Leaf size 4th harvest	35.902	0.612	
Taste 4th harvest	49.284	0.125	
Marketability 4th harvest	40.070	0.422	
Overall performance	48.193	0.148	

376

377

378 Figure 4, in contrast with Figure 3's aggregated model, shows that trait and variety preferences
 379 differed substantially across the four farmer segments. For example, Older Women Generalists
 17

380 expressed a strong preference for Akeri, Poli, and AVAM1941, and consistent dislike of the
381 other varieties (those in the western quadrants of Figure 4A). Young Women Specialists
382 similarly identified five clearly preferred varieties (A2004, Akeri, AVAM1939, AM-NKGN, and
383 Poli) and disliked the remainder. Older Men Generalists' variety preference model shows a
384 much more even spread of arrows and variety clusters, indicating little agreement about
385 optimal varieties. Young Men Specialists' model indicates strong preferences for A2002 and
386 A2004 varieties driven by their marketability, while a large number of other varieties (Madiira
387 1, Nguruma, AC-NL, and Akeri) were preferred for other traits such as yield, leaf size, and plant
388 survival.
389



390

391 *Figure 4. Principal components of Plackett-Luce model estimates (log-worth) on farmers' segments. Dots represent the*
 392 *performance (log-worth) of each amaranth variety ranked by farmers. Arrows represent the paths (correlation) of varieties and*
 393 *the main traits retained after backward selection.*

394

395 Finally, to provide a synthetic analysis to inform decision making, we present both worth and
 396 minimum regret values for each of the varieties (Table 6). This measure gives an indication of
 397 the 'loss' that would be perceived by the different segments compared to the variety that each
 398 group ranked as the best. Independent from the measure taken, worth or regret, A2004 would

399 be acceptable to all groups. However, if a second variety is to be recommended, AC-NL could be
400 chosen based on its overall high worth, but Poli would minimize regret. Choosing AC-NL would
401 indeed mainly benefit Older Men Generalists, whereas Poli is preferred by the three other
402 groups, and therefore a more balanced choice.

403
404 Table 6. Average worth and minimum regret values and standard errors for the trait
405 ‘marketability’ of evaluated amaranth varieties. Values in bold highlight the three varieties with
406 smaller minimum regret.

Variety	Worth		Minimum regret	
	Value	SE	Value	SE
A2004	0.2317	0.0840	0.0011	0.0008
AC-NL	0.0732	0.0139	0.0725	0.0364
Poli	0.0694	0.0127	0.0631	0.0292
Madiira 2	0.0687	0.0193	0.0788	0.0401
A2002	0.0684	0.0251	0.0786	0.0392
Akeri	0.0649	0.0139	0.0710	0.0384
AVAM1941	0.0638	0.0156	0.0715	0.0376
AM-NKGN	0.0616	0.0098	0.0748	0.0358
Local	0.0553	0.0133	0.0812	0.0388
IP-5-Sel	0.0551	0.0101	0.0789	0.0385
AVAM1939	0.0485	0.0020	0.0786	0.0369
Nguruma	0.0484	0.0096	0.0838	0.0410
AVAM1938	0.0464	0.0102	0.0833	0.0403
Madiira 1	0.0446	0.0059	0.0829	0.0394

407

408 Discussion

409 Implications for demand-driven amaranth breeding

410 These results provide useful information for public and private breeding programs of neglected
411 vegetables and seed producers. First, they point to a distinct segmentation of amaranth
412 farmers based on gendered control of amaranth production and sales, income generation, and
413 experience producing amaranth. Variety preferences differed significantly across these
414 segments, underscoring the heterogeneity of NUS producers and the value of segmentation on
415 the basis of more than gender alone.

416

417 The results also provide specific insights into trait preferences to guide breeding programs.
418 Farmers' overall preferences for amaranth related primarily to yield, taste, plant survival from
419 early to late stages of the season, leaf size, and marketability. These bear resemblance to
420 priority traits documented in other studies in Tanzania (Adeniji & Aloyce, 2013; Dinssa et al.,
421 2022). In a recent study in Tanzania, for instance, both women and men farmers ranked (1) fast
422 growth habit (early biomass accumulation) plus quick recovery from repeat harvests, (2)
423 marketability, and (3) ability to be harvested several times from the same planting material as
424 the three most important traits (Dinssa et al., 2022). With these insights, and specific variety
425 preferences in Figure 4, breeders can prioritize new crosses to meet current and future demand
426 (Donovan et al., 2022).

427

428 Notably, although taste emerged as a key factor driving farmers' preferences, it is not
429 consistently included in breeding programs as a priority trait. Organoleptic properties' historic
430 exclusion from varietal testing and release processes are likely one reason for this (Afari-Sefa et
431 al., 2012; Keatinge et al., 2015; Schreinemachers et al., 2021; Turner & Bishaw, 2016), and
432 perhaps related to the limited attention paid to consumer preferences in many breeding
433 programs (Thiele et al., 2020). Infamously, tomato breeding in the Netherlands had to
434 drastically switch course and better respond to consumer preferences after the market
435 collapsed due to tasteless tomatoes (Schouten et al., 2019). Increased attention to organoleptic
436 properties may have particular relevance for gender-responsive and gender-intentional
437 breeding and seed systems development, given evidence that women disproportionately
438 prioritize these traits across crops (Weltzien et al., 2019). Breeding programs of neglected
439 vegetables should account for consumer taste from the early stages of breeding programs, as
440 WorldVeg's amaranth breeding program has started doing (Dinssa et al., 2022). From a practical
441 standpoint, feeding consumer preferences into breeding pipelines will require systematic
442 assessment and participatory evaluation of organoleptic traits, their translation into
443 measurable and breedable targets, and design of phenotypic assays.

444

445 Gender implications

446 The results underscore, first, the relevance of gender considerations in amaranth breeding,
447 with implications for wider breeding of neglected vegetables. The dynamics of intrahousehold
448 control of amaranth production, sales, and seed exchange (Table 3) indicate that both women
449 and men are (or at least perceive themselves to be) deeply involved in amaranth-related
450 activities within households. This aligns with a previous study in Tanzania that found production
451 activities for leafy vegetables to be shared, although they identified seed selection for
452 vegetables to be largely men's responsibility (Fischer et al., 2017). As such, understanding and
453 appealing to both men and women's needs, priorities, and constraints in breeding and seed
454 system development are critical—especially when variety preferences differ, as found here.
455 Further attention to the gender dynamics of seed selection and acquisition is also warranted to
456 ensure men's and women's ability to equitably *access* and *benefit from* improved varieties.

457
458 Our results contrast with those from a more conventional, gender-disaggregated participatory
459 varietal selection study of amaranth in Tanzania, where female and male farmers' variety
460 preferences were found to be similar (Dinssa et al., 2022). This discrepancy likely results in part
461 from our use of a citizen science-based approach focused on understanding producer and
462 consumer preferences grounded in men's and women's realities (Voss et al., 2023). Our analysis
463 using market segments rather than gender-based disaggregation also illustrates how
464 preferences may vary among women (and among men) according to their production
465 orientation, experience, livelihood portfolio, and other factors. Such intersectional analysis of
466 seed product market segments are likely to yield deeper insights into preferences than
467 conventional gender-based disaggregation conducted by bringing farmers to centrally managed
468 trials during a single moment in the crop cycle (Dinssa et al., 2022).

469
470 To illustrate this last point, it is especially interesting in this case that Older Men Generalists'
471 variety preferences are not well aligned with the other segments' and are inconsistent. This
472 may simply reflect disagreement within this segment, but more likely indicates that these
473 farmers are not as certain as other farmer groups about which traits are desirable. This could

474 result from a lack of expertise in the Older Men Generalists group, which is possible given that
475 women are known to be disproportionately involved in amaranth production and marketing in
476 many rural contexts, and that men could have overstated their own role in amaranth cultivation
477 in this study. This possibility is concerning given that older men’s voices are often
478 disproportionately elevated in decision-making, including around topics like breeding. Ensuring
479 that the preferences of younger amaranth specialists and older women are adequately
480 captured may be key to appropriately meeting current and future seed demand. We have
481 demonstrated that using worth as a criterion that could lead to selecting a variety that is indeed
482 only top-ranked by Older Men Generalists. We show that using minimum regret across
483 segments as a decision-making criterion can lead to a more gender-sensitive selection that
484 would benefit a larger and more diverse group of farmers.

485

486 Supporting expanded production and consumption of NUS

487 The results of this study would, for perhaps the first time, enable seed companies and other
488 seed producers to target specific market segments for NUS development, and specifically
489 women and youth as these two groups are often trained and supported in NUS production.
490 With more actors involved in the breeding and distribution of quality NUS seed, producers may
491 be able to access more locally-adapted, climate-resilient, pest- and disease-tolerant, and
492 nutritious varieties (Schreinemachers et al., 2021). While our findings can help expand breeding
493 of neglected vegetables and improve seed access, efforts to improve the appeal of NUS
494 varieties for producers must ultimately be paired with attention to consumer demand, value
495 chain development, and policy changes (McMullin et al., 2021). Local knowledge around
496 utilization of these crops, breeding in relation to consumer preferences, and improved post-
497 harvest handling are all critical (Keatinge et al., 2015; Schreinemachers et al., 2018). There is
498 also need for value chain development that offers greater potential for producers—and seed
499 enterprises—to profit from NUS sales and NUS seed production (Onim & Mwaniki, 2008). This
500 includes attention to postharvest processes and infrastructure to enable proper handling and
501 storage of perishable vegetable products (Keatinge et al., 2015; Schreinemachers et al., 2021).

502

503 Conclusion

504 In this study, we identified producer preferences for improved amaranth varieties and found
505 variation across four distinct segments of farmers, which were differentiated by gender, income
506 generation, and experience growing amaranth. We also identified the top traits of interest for
507 farmers: plant survival, yield, leaf size, taste, and marketability drove farmers' overall varietal
508 preferences. Finally, we found evidence that perceptions of varieties' marketability did not, for
509 the most part, change over stages of the growth season.

510

511 The findings can help guide breeding programs and seed companies in expanding access to a
512 suitable diversity of improved amaranth varieties, and specifically to reach women and youth.
513 This study also provides a model for using available genebank accessions and participatory,
514 demand-driven breeding approaches to inform development of improved NUS varieties, for
515 which little breeding work has thus far been done. This is particularly timely because of the
516 increased interest in breeding of neglected vegetables (Fredenberg et al., 2024). Our study can
517 inform these and other initiatives on how citizen science can support demand-driven breeding
518 of improved NUS varieties with higher yields, more climate resilience, and improved nutrition
519 that respond to diverse market segments' needs, priorities and constraints (van Etten et al.,
520 2023; Van Zonneveld et al., 2023). Through this, public and private breeding institutions can
521 support expanded production and consumption of NUS across Africa.

522

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537

538 Author Contribution

539 SN, KdS, and MvZ conceptualized the research; MvZ, SN and AR acquired funds; SN, FD, AS, LA,
540 ECL, ACH and AD coordinated data collection; KdS, MAL and JvE performed analysis and
541 developed figures; RCV and KdS developed the first draft. All authors reviewed and contributed
542 to first and later drafts.

543

544 Data Availability Statement

545 Data and code are available on GitHub <https://github.com/AgrDataSci/amaranth-worldveg/>

546

547 Conflict of Interest Statement

548 The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

549

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