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Additional Information

1 **Fine tuning European geographic quality labels, an opportunity for horticulture diversification:**
2 **a tentative proposal for the Spanish case**

3
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20
21 **Declarations of interest:** none

22
23 **Abstract**

24 European horticulture, especially in the southern states, must exploit new qualities to increase
25 the added value of its vegetables. This article aims to analyze the situation of the European
26 geographical quality labels Protected Designation of Origin (PDO) and Protected Geographical
27 Indication (PGI) to ascertain whether they are useful for this purpose. To this end, we studied
28 the registers of the current horticultural products awarded PDO or PGI status, and we surveyed
29 the authorities responsible for managing the labels for these products. We found that protected
30 labels have grown steadily since their inception about thirty years ago, becoming a powerful
31 mechanism for landrace conservation and a source of added benefits. The strongest points in
32 the management of these labels include anchoring the products in the local history and culture
33 roots and defining the prominent characteristics of their external appearance, and the weakest
34 points are the lack of information about chemical traits and especially about sensory traits
35 (texture, odor, taste). To strengthen PDO and PGI labels, we propose increasing the
36 requirements for sensory descriptions, homogenizing protocols for analyzing sensory traits,
37 incorporating methods combining trained sensory panels and instrumental methods such as
38 spectroscopy, and involving public administrations in both obtaining and managing the labels.
39 As an example of the potential impact of European geographical labels on territorial rebalancing
40 and the organization of European horticulture, we propose a panoply of products in Spain that
41 are good candidates for protected status.

42
43 **Keywords**

44 Sensory analysis, food control, Near Infrared Spectroscopy, NIR, agrobiodiversity, Protected
45 Designation of Origin, Protected Geographical Indication, landraces

46
47 **1. Introduction**

48
49 *1.1. Quality as added value in agri-food products*

50 Quality lies in the eyes of the beholder. Researchers, farmers, and processors tend to view
51 quality in terms of the fruit or vegetable's inherent attributes such as sugar content, color, or
52 firmness; by contrast, consumers, marketers, and economists tend to view quality in terms of
53 consumers' demands and needs (Shewfelt, 1999). The European Commission considers food

54 quality to be a complex, multidimensional concept including nine items related to nutritive,
55 sensory, or ethical aspects (European Commission, 2019a). The term “quality”, beyond its
56 relationship with the characteristics of a product, conveys a positive connotation of high value,
57 class, or degree of excellence (Barrett, Beaulieu, & Shewfelt, 2010). Thus, Kramer (1965) defined
58 food quality as the combination of characteristics that differentiate the individual elements of a
59 product that determine the level of acceptability or desirability of those elements for the people
60 that use the product.

61
62 Agri-food production should aim to satisfy consumers, meeting their needs, fulfilling their
63 expectations, and satisfying their desires. It is important to remember that consumers’
64 preferences vary widely among countries and regions, as well as within regions, depending on
65 factors such as age, gender, socioeconomic level, and educational level; moreover, these
66 preferences change over time (Dagevos, 2005; Roininen et al., 2001; Verain, Sijtsema, &
67 Antonides, 2016). One well-studied case is the difference in the sensory preferences of
68 consumers of olive oil in different countries: whereas Spanish consumers prefer strong-flavored
69 green oils with fruity and spicy notes, consumers in North America generally prefer milder-
70 tasting oils with fruity and flowery notes. Nevertheless, preferences vary even within countries;
71 for example, although most Italians prefer strong-flavored oils, this preference is more marked
72 in the south than in the central and northern regions of the country (Cicerale, Liem, & Keast,
73 2016). Other examples of geographical differences include preferences for different types of
74 grains of rice among countries (Suwannaporn & Linnemann, 2008) and preferences for sweet or
75 tart apples in different regions of Europe (Bonany et al., 2014).

76
77 Nowadays, food is plentiful in developed countries, although it may be unequally available to all
78 members of society. Logically, once alimentary needs are satisfied, consumers can prioritize
79 characteristics of food beyond its price, making it necessary for producers and agents in the food
80 chain to try to satisfy their priorities (Sijtsema, Linnemann, Gaasbeek, Dagevos, & Jongen, 2002).
81 In addition to the increased focus on internal quality, consumers are increasingly showing
82 interest in the impact of growing practices on the environment (organic versus conventional
83 agriculture) or in the origin of the food they buy (local or regional products, zero km food)
84 (Magnusson, Arvola, Hursti, Åberg, & Sjöden, 2003; Moser, Raffaelli, & Thilmany-McFadden,
85 2011). It is worth noting, however, that consumers base many decisions on beliefs (i.e., their
86 own perception of quality) that can differ from “true” or measurable quality (Grunert, 2005;
87 Palma, Collart, & Chammoun, 2015). For this reason, consumers’ decisions are subject to fads
88 that can make it difficult to consolidate stable production models.

89
90 A good example of how consumers’ perceptions can diverge from objective quality measures is
91 organic fruits and vegetables, for which both the demand and supply have grown significantly in
92 recent decades (Lee & Hwang, 2016). This growth is largely due to many consumers’ perception
93 that organic products are more flavorful, healthier, and better for the environment than non-
94 organic products (Dinis, Simoes, & Moreira, 2011; Hwang & Chung, 2019; Rana & Paul, 2017).
95 The fact is, however, that to date the evidence from scientific studies on the relative health
96 benefits of organic products is inconclusive (Barański, Rempelos, Iversen, & Leifert, 2017; Smith-
97 Spangler et al., 2012; Vigar et al., 2019). Nevertheless, many studies have shown that consumers
98 are willing to pay more for organic products (Brugarolas, Martínez-Carrasco, Martínez-Poveda,
99 & Rico Pérez, 2005; Loureiro & Hine, 2002; Maguire, Owens, & Simon, 2004; Skreli et al., 2017;
100 Zander & Hamm, 2010), and it seems reasonable to assume that they might also be willing to
101 pay more for other perceived quality characteristics such as geographical origin or tradition;
102 some studies suggest this is the case (Balogh, Békési, Gorton, Popp, & Lengyel, 2016; Carpio &
103 Isengildina-Massa, 2009; Grebitus, Lusk, & Nayga, 2013; Miller et al., 2017). Thus, it seems that
104 consumers in wealthier countries are making choices based on perceived quality features rather

105 than on price (Grunert, 2002; Profeta, Balling, & Roosen, 2012), suggesting that the time is right
106 to offer agri-food products with different quality features.

107

108 *1.2. The sensory phenotype*

109 Sensory quality (i.e. quality perceived through the senses) can be difficult to define because it
110 depends not only on the intrinsic properties of the food, but also on the consumer's interaction
111 with those properties (Casañas & Costell, 2006). Human beings' experience of food involves not
112 only sight, taste, and odor, but also touch and hearing. To assess food quality, consumers
113 integrate sensory inputs related to visual appearance, odor, flavor, texture, feel in the hand and
114 in the mouth, noise on chewing, etc. (Abbott, 1999). Eating generates nerve impulses that carry
115 information to the brain, resulting in different types of responses to the stimuli: an objective
116 identification of the perception (e.g., this is sweet), a subjective reaction (e.g., I like it/I don't like
117 it), and/or an emotional response (e.g., this reminds me of summer vacation).

118

119 Sensory quality can be objectively evaluated by sensory analysis, defined as "the science
120 involved with the assessment of the organoleptic attributes of a product by the senses" (ISO,
121 2008a). Techniques have been established and consolidated for the sensory assessment of
122 organoleptic attributes of some processed products (e.g. wine, olive oil, or cheese), and
123 standardized approaches have been used to evaluate these products for years (Amerine &
124 Roessler, 1976; Etaio et al., 2010; IOC, 2018; ISO, 2008b; Talavera-Bianchi, Chambers, Carey, &
125 Chambers, 2010). Recent years have also seen significant advances in the sensory analysis of
126 fruits such as apples (Corollaro et al., 2013), pomelo (Rosales & Suwonsichon, 2015), and
127 peaches (Belisle, Adhikari, Chavez, & Phan, 2017), as well as of horticultural products such as
128 potatoes (Montouto-Graña, Fernández-Fernández, Vázquez-Odériz, & Romero-Rodríguez, 2002;
129 Thybo & Martens, 1998), tomatoes (Hongsoongnern & Chambers, 2008), lettuce (Lespinasse,
130 Navez, Jost, Thicoïpé, & Pain, 2001), and dry beans (Romero del Castillo, Valero, Casañas, &
131 Costell, 2008).

132

133 Consumers generally believe that the flavor of fruits and vegetables has declined over the years
134 (Bartoshuk & Klee, 2013). This perception is probably due to the dilution of key molecules as a
135 consequence of increasing yields mainly through increasing carbohydrate and water content as
136 well as of pleiotropic effects of breeding fruits and vegetables for longer shelf-life (Davis, 2009).
137 However, these beliefs could also be partly due to psychological factors such as a nostalgic
138 longing for "the good old days when everything was better" (Holbrook, 1993). Consumers
139 perceive only the sensory phenotype, although like other traits, sensory traits result from
140 genetic and environment effects as well as from the interaction between genetic and
141 environment factors. Furthermore, perception also depends on consumers' own phenotype.
142 The changes in genetic and environmental factors during the Green Revolution that brought
143 about huge increases in yields had negative effects on sensory traits. As the main goal of
144 scientific breeding programs was to increase production both directly and indirectly (e.g. by
145 increasing resistance to stresses), the ideotypes failed to include other quality-related
146 attributes, possibly because these traits often depend on multiple genes, making them difficult
147 targets to work toward (Bell & Janick, 1990; Causse, Buret, Robini, & Verschave, 2003; Marsh,
148 Paterson, Seal, & McNeilage, 2003; Quilot-Turion & Causse, 2014; Salazar et al., 2017).
149 Consequently, yield and sensory quality tend to be negatively correlated both at the genetic and
150 environmental levels. At the environmental level, the negative correlation can be explained by
151 changes in farming practices to maximize yields (fertilization, irrigation, etc.) and harvest stage
152 (Davis, 2009, 2011).

153

154 Tomatoes are a paradigmatic example of the loss of quality in horticultural products. Consumers
155 rate the organoleptic quality of tomatoes poorly, and complaints about the sensory profile of
156 commercial tomatoes have been noted for more than 40 years (Bruhn et al., 1991; Hobson,

157 1988; M. Kramer, 1980). All the factors discussed above have degraded the sensory and
158 nutritional quality of tomatoes, including the use of wild varieties as donors of genes that confer
159 resistance and the introgression of part of the wild-type genome into cultivated tomatoes
160 (Causse et al., 2013). This topic has been debated extensively, and in addition to the references
161 cited, more information is available in Morris and Sands (2006), Jenks and Bebeli (2011), Tieman
162 et al. (2017), and Causse et al. (2020).

163 *1.3. European Union geographical labels as a strategy to promote quality in horticultural* 164 *products*

166 To consolidate the market for a product beyond fads or fashions, we must target consumers'
167 preferences, ensuring that the product has objective qualities that consumers value. It is difficult
168 for agri-food companies to gain recognition for quality-related traits (nutritional, sensory,
169 cultural, historical) in their products. After achieving a product that meets the objective quality
170 criteria, producers must strive to guarantee that every lot of products that reaches consumers
171 fulfills these criteria. Product labels should include detailed descriptions of their nutritional and
172 sensory characteristics from rigorous analyses. The process of achieving products with quality
173 traits that differentiate them from others and of defending these products in the market is
174 expensive; to date, only wealthy companies have been able to accomplish this for a few select
175 products (the main European brands of international distribution, with well-identified goods and
176 easy traceability). An alternative approach is to seek recognition through quality designations
177 conferred by public institutions. This approach is often the only option for associations of
178 producers that work with a product with objectively differential traits but lack the financial
179 resources to gain and maintain market recognition for it (Bardají, Iráizoz, & Rapún, 2009; Dias &
180 Franco, 2018; Hajdukiewicz, 2014; Likoudis, Sdrali, Costarelli, & Apostolopoulos, 2016). The
181 European Union has two broad categories of protected designation for food: "Quality Labels"
182 and "Organic Certification". The most widely known are "Geographical Indications" in the
183 Quality Labels category (European Commission, 2019b).

185 The European Union's geographical designations were created to promote rural development
186 and territorial economic balance by recognizing products that can be considered special because
187 of their historical value, particular management, adaptation to the local environment (low
188 inputs), sensory quality, nutritional value, germplasm that has evolved together with the people
189 who grow it over a long time (this aspect is difficult to quantify), and ties to the gastronomy
190 and/or cuisine of a particular geographical zone. Thus, many added-value traits can be
191 quantified to a certain degree. However, in general, these products often come from low-
192 yielding varieties grown in extremely small areas, so producers cannot promote them or control
193 their evolution by taking advantage of new technologies.

195 Agri-food products can aspire to various European quality labels and the demands that
196 producers must meet to achieve these designations vary. The labels that place the greatest
197 emphasis on the raw materials are Protected Designation of Origin (PDO) and Protected
198 Geographical Indication (PGI).

200 European Union regulation R 1151/2012 (European Commission, 2012) stipulates that a PDO
201 identifies a product that: i) is produced in a determinate location, region, or, exceptionally,
202 country; ii) owes its quality fundamentally or exclusively to a particular geographical
203 environment comprising its inherent natural and human factors; and iii) is elaborated totally
204 within the defined geographical area throughout all stages of production. The raw material must
205 be produced within the designated area, preferably with autochthonous genetic material. For
206 these reasons, most PDOs are based on one or more landraces.

208 The same European Union regulation (R 1151/2012) stipulates that a PGI identifies a product
209 that: i) is produced in a determinate location, region, or country; ii) has a certain quality,
210 reputation, or other characteristic that derives essentially from its geographic origin; and iii) is
211 elaborated at, least partially, within the designated area. PGI designation does not require the
212 product to be based on a landrace.

213

214 Each geographical designation is governed by a regulatory board made up of producers; in this
215 way, the first benefit of the designation is to promote an alliance of producers that favors
216 collaboration among small businesses in the primary sector. In a sense, producers become a sort
217 of cooperative in which companies maintain their individuality but often share equipment,
218 germplasm, marketing campaigns, or research and development projects funded with
219 government grants. Moreover, geographical designation labels protect against intrusion from
220 market competitors, who cannot use the proprietary name for their products. These labels also
221 help to ensure consumer loyalty by guaranteeing the quality of the product. Finally, a quality
222 label awarded by the European Union can improve access to international markets, at least
223 within the Union itself.

224

225 All these benefits can increase producers' and processors' incomes and stimulate growth. For
226 example, data from the Ministry of Agriculture in Spain show that the number of quality labels
227 in Spain and resulting income have continued to grow (MAGRAMA, 2018). Between 1996 and
228 2013, the economic value of horticultural products that enjoy PDO status grew more than 8-fold
229 more than the overall horticultural sector in Spain (Romero del Castillo, Simó, Casals, & Casañas,
230 2018). The mean increase in the entire European Union was less pronounced, but also notable;
231 prices for products with quality labels are 50% higher than for those without quality labels, and
232 sales increases are 8% higher (Hajdukiewicz, 2014).

233

234 Beyond direct economic benefits, geographical labels provide many indirect benefits such as
235 helping to stop rural depopulation, promoting more equitable wealth sharing, guaranteeing the
236 characteristics of the product for consumers, and providing consumers with objective guidance
237 about the quality attributes of the product (Grunert & Achmann, 2016; Likoudis et al., 2016),
238 as well as favoring the recognition and prestige of quality agricultural products, the protection
239 of low-input approaches that are well-adapted to local conditions, the survival of traditions by
240 keeping them up to date, the prestige of traditional farming know-how and historical culture of
241 rural areas, and the conservation of crop biodiversity through germplasm use (*in situ*
242 conservation) (Casals et al., 2019; Dias & Franco, 2018).

243

244 *1.4. Challenges and opportunities facing horticulture in Southern Europe*

245 Nowadays, vegetables (and legumes normally grown in small plots) from Southern Europe must
246 compete with products from countries outside the European Union where production costs are
247 low (e.g., those in North Africa), as well as those from other countries within the European Union
248 that use highly developed cultivation technologies to obtain extremely high yields (e.g., the
249 Netherlands, where greenhouses yield 700-900 t/ha of tomatoes vs. 40-100 t/ha in open-air
250 cultivation and 150-200 t/ha in greenhouse in Spain (Heuvelink, 2018)). As the costs of using the
251 most advanced greenhouse technologies decreases (e.g., from using sunlight rather than gas to
252 heat), greenhouses will become even more profitable. Moreover, advanced greenhouses can be
253 placed near the areas where consumers are located, reducing transportation costs. Thus, if
254 Southern European countries are to remain competitive in supplying horticultural products to
255 the European Union, they must change production strategies to obtain products that will
256 command higher prices.

257

258 Biogeographical and historical factors have made the South of Europe a center of diversification
259 for many horticultural species, such as lettuce, tomato, bean, or cabbage, among others

260 (Vetelainen, Negri, & Maxted, 2009). The genetic makeup of these species has evolved together
261 with agro-ecosystems and human preferences, creating a panoply of landraces that are highly
262 adapted to local cultivation conditions and figure prominently in local dishes (Casañas, Simó,
263 Casals, & Prohens, 2017). Within this rich diversity of genetic resources, some genotype-by-
264 environment combinations result in unique sensory and nutritional profiles (Casals et al., 2011;
265 Sanchez, Sifres, Casañas, & Nuez, 2008) that confer singular gastronomic potential (Westling,
266 Leino, Nilsen, Wennström, & Öström, 2019).

267
268 Moreover, thorough adaptation to local conditions is intertwined with other elements related
269 to consumers' perception of quality, such as low inputs, preservation of natural resources
270 (Smale, Bellon, Jarvis, & Sthapit, 2004), or cultural aspects (Jordan, 2007). Previous studies have
271 shown that consumers are receptive to marketing strategies that include these elements
272 (Brugarolas, Martinez-Carrasco, Martinez-Poveda, & Ruiz, 2009).

273

274 *1.5. Objectives*

275 In this context, we aimed to explore the following aspects of European geographic labels for
276 horticultural products: i) The evolution of the PDO and PGI labels since their creation, ii) The
277 stringency of the descriptions of the protected products as laid out in the documents filed with
278 the European Union, iii) The extent to which PDO and PGI designations have achieved the
279 objectives stipulated at their creation in 1992 (Council of the European Union, 1992), iv) The
280 potential usefulness of PDO and PGI as tools for increasing profits and restoring territorial
281 balance in the case of Spain.

282

283 **2. Methods**

284

285 *2.1. Monitoring the European geographic labels*

286

287 *2.1.1. Characterization based on specifications in product registration*

288 We analyzed horticultural products protected under a geographical quality label that are listed
289 in the eAmbrosia database (European Commission, 2020a). Information for each product was
290 obtained from registration specifications included in the "single document" (a detailed
291 document summarizing the characteristics of each protected product) and from the webpages
292 of the regulating boards, when available. Before characterization, a list of 35 attributes to be
293 extracted from each study-case was prepared (Figure 1). The date of registration of each product
294 was used to study the evolution of the number of European quality labels since their inception.

295

296 *2.1.2. Survey*

297 To obtain more information regarding each label, we surveyed the managers of the listed PDOs
298 and PGIs to determine their level of knowledge about the regulations for the products that they
299 manage and the actions that they take to ensure compliance with these regulations. The survey
300 included questions regarding the varieties cultivated, the attributes that sustain the
301 distinctiveness of the product, the certification of the quality attributes, and the impact the
302 brand has had on the marketing of the product (Figure 2). We focused on sensory attributes,
303 because consumers can easily check them to see whether the product has the characteristics
304 that the label claims it has and because consumers are unlikely to choose a product based only
305 on its chemical composition. We emailed the survey to the regulatory boards of the 166 labels
306 in force in January 2020 on three successive occasions, clearly explaining the objectives of the
307 study and assuring potential respondents that their anonymity was guaranteed and that we
308 were only interested in the statistical value of their responses.

309

310

311

312 *2.2. The case of Spain*

313 Departing from the present map of Spanish geographic labels, we aimed to construct a new map
314 with a list of potential candidates to be protected under a geographic quality label. To this end,
315 we first compiled a list of candidate varieties by examining publications from the Regional
316 Agriculture Councils of the Spanish Autonomous Communities, when available. We were aware
317 that this first approach would probably be biased by the wide heterogeneity in the quantity and
318 quality of activities to promote landraces in each region. To refine the list, we assembled a group
319 of experts, including at least one representative of each region. Group members were chosen
320 based on their expertise in horticultural production in their region. Assuring them that their
321 contributions would be kept confidential, we invited 18 experts to propose up to five
322 horticultural products from their regions that would be suitable candidates for protection under
323 a European geographic quality label, using the following criteria: i) Objectively superior sensory
324 value attributable to the combination of the varieties used and the environment and/or the
325 cultivation method, ii) Historical recognition of the quality of the product (≥ 40 years), iii) A
326 sufficient number of farmers who can work together to manage the brand, and iv) A collective
327 memory of its existence (even if it is currently weak). No quantitative scoring of the different
328 criteria for each candidate product was required to the experts. So, we received only a
329 prioritized list of varieties for each region according to their expertise.

330

331 *2.3. Statistical analyses*

332 Data collected about each label from administrative documents and from the survey were
333 arranged in an Excel spreadsheet. Presence/absence attributes were transformed into binary
334 variables (0,1) to allow calculations. The data were summarized with descriptive statistics.
335 Statistical analyses were performed with R (R core team, 2019), using the package “ggplot2” for
336 producing the graphs. Maps were elaborated using ArcGIS® software by Esri.

337

338 **3. Results and discussion**

339

340 *3.1. A successful strategy that favors the conservation of agrobiodiversity*

341 The number of horticultural products that have been awarded quality labels has grown
342 continuously, although growth for the more-demanding PDO label has been slower than for the
343 PGI label (Figure 3). In 2020, a total of 43 horticultural products had achieved PDO recognition
344 and 123 PGI recognition. Thirty years after these labels first became available, groups of farmers
345 who grow products that could benefit from geographical labels continue to strive to achieve this
346 recognition, despite the costs of preparing the applications and of controlling the protected
347 product.

348

349 The distribution of the labels among territories and species is linked to each country’s historical
350 and climatic characteristics, as well as to its size (Figure 4). The number is highest in the regions
351 of Southern Europe, such as Italy, Spain, and Greece, which also have the highest numbers of
352 species and varieties within species (Shannon’s diversity index (Figure 4) (Shannon & Weaver,
353 1963)). The number of protected products decreases with increasing latitude, with the exception
354 of Germany, which despite its cold climate has a high diversity index and a high number of
355 products that have been awarded quality labels.

356

357 Despite the lack of clear information about whether the germplasm specified in the registration
358 documents of some protected products constitutes a landrace or commercial variety, many
359 quality labels (especially PDOs) do protect one or more landraces (Figure 5) and the number of
360 protected species is high (Figure 6). Furthermore, many of the improved commercial varieties
361 included in the geographical designations have long been grown in the specified area and are
362 thoroughly adapted to its environment, so that their relationships to the area are similar to
363 those of traditional varieties. Thus, the quality schemes help ensure the survival of some

364 landraces, as well as of “obsolete cultivars” which behave like traditional varieties, that would
365 likely have disappeared from the market otherwise (Casals et al., 2019).

366

367 *3.2. Variable commitment in the labels’ description of singularity*

368 The European Union regulations’ terms and conditions specify that detailed information must
369 be compiled about a series of items related to the protected product: i) The genotype: Genus,
370 species, type of germplasm (landrace or improved modern variety). ii) The phenotype: External
371 sensory attributes perceived through sight (shape, size, color), internal sensory attributes
372 perceived through the tongue, taste buds, palate, etc. (odor, taste, flavor, texture, etc.),
373 chemical composition related to nutritional and/or sensory attributes (pH, soluble solids, diverse
374 organic and inorganic compounds considered important), iii) Environmental effects: Precise
375 description of the geographical area and the characteristics considered most important in giving
376 the protected product its unique character (soil characteristics, climate, historical growing
377 techniques, local customs, etc.), iv) Interactions between the genotypes and environmental
378 characteristics of the area, expressed through the links between the varieties and the
379 geographical area, that contribute to the singular, superior characteristics of the product, and
380 v) The regulations that are to govern the production, transformation (when necessary),
381 packaging, identification, commercialization, etc.

382

383 In summary, these documents include an array of characteristics that should make it possible to
384 perfectly understand the product’s objective differential qualities that make it worthy of
385 protection under one of the European Union’s quality schemes. Our review of the European
386 documents found that items i, iii, iv, and v are clearly stated for nearly all products; these findings
387 show that the descriptors of morphology, geography, management, and commercial aspects
388 have been thoroughly studied and defined. This type of information changes little over time, so
389 a single measurement suffices for the preparation of the document specifying the conditions.
390 The labels’ specifications for these aspects are demanding and the regulations for most
391 protected products state them explicitly.

392

393 However, for item ii (phenotype), the emphasis placed on measuring attributes varies widely
394 among the different documents analyzed (Figure 7). The level of detail required for the products’
395 visual appearance is very high; the documents for 70% to 90% of the products specify at least
396 one visual attribute. At the other extreme, attributes related with chemical composition are
397 mentioned in only half of the documents, and these mentions are sometimes very imprecise,
398 for example, specifying only “high nutritional value”. The most important aspects defended are
399 thus related to the products’ historical and cultural value. Aspects related to sensory value and
400 chemical composition seem less important; in fact, our analysis shows that the documents for
401 very few products specify precise measurements to characterize these attributes (content of
402 sugars, acidity, flavor and texture, etc.) In fact, measurements of sensory attributes by a trained
403 panel are rarely mentioned, being compulsory in only 4% of cases (Figure 7). Thus, the degree
404 of rigor required in characterizing the protected products varies widely.

405

406 In summary, the level of detail required in the descriptions of the products is generally high with
407 respect to morphological and geographical aspects, but less precise with respect to internal
408 sensory and chemical attributes defining phenotypes that will reach consumers. Details are
409 usually only required for visual descriptions, and even these specifications tend to be imprecise
410 and often qualitative. Thus, the level of commitment to ensuring the singularity of the protected
411 products varies widely.

412

413 *3.3. The need to reinforce control over the product that reaches consumers, as a guarantee of* 414 *quality*

415 The strength of private and public brands of horticultural products depends on the degree to
416 which they target consumer preferences and to which their quality is consistent (i.e.,
417 guaranteed). Guaranteeing quality requires i) delimiting the quality characteristics of the
418 product explicitly and quantitatively and ii) establishing mechanisms to ensure that the product
419 that uses the brand's label scrupulously fulfills these characteristics. Our first approach analyzed
420 the specifications for different traits in European geographical designations and found wide
421 variability in the degree to which the protected products' regulations (taken from documents
422 approved by the European Union) specify the quality markers that should defend the labels, and
423 that some of these markers are imprecisely described. In a second approach to analysis (i.e.,
424 survey), we sought to determine the degree of control regarding whether the products fulfilled
425 the phenotypical criteria specified in the regulations.

426

427 The overall response rate to the survey was 40% (41% of PDOs and 39% of PGIs). Despite the
428 possible selection bias that could be introduced by voluntary participation, we consider that the
429 response rate is high enough to provide an approximate view of the situation (Table 1).

430

431 According to the responses, among the PDOs, only landraces are authorized in 88%, and only
432 modern improved varieties are authorized in 12% (Table 1). By contrast, among the PGIs,
433 landraces are authorized in 74%, modern improved varieties are authorized in 26%, and both
434 landraces and modern improved varieties are authorized in some (Table 1). The results of the
435 survey clarify the information in the official documents and specifications, in which it is
436 sometimes difficult to discern whether the authorized varieties are landraces or modern
437 improved varieties and in which the percentage of landraces seems to be underestimated
438 (Figure 5). The high percentage of protected products that use landraces confirms that the
439 strategy used in European geographical designations promotes the conservation of traditional
440 germplasm through its use.

441

442 The results of the survey also confirm the importance of the role of historical and cultural aspects
443 for promoting the label that was observed in the analysis of the official documents. This is
444 especially evident in the PDOs, where about 90% of respondents considered these aspects
445 important for defending the brand (Table 1). In fact, it is surprising that about 10% were unaware
446 that these aspects were included in the official documents, since we found that nearly all of
447 them state that compliance with historical and/or cultural aspects is essential for permission to
448 use the label.

449

450 The respondents' perceptions regarding the other attributes that must be controlled (Table 1)
451 are similar to those that we found in our analysis of the specifications in the official documents
452 (Figure 7). The most important attribute is the product's external appearance with all its variants
453 (size, shape, color), and the least important is its chemical composition. Internal sensory
454 attributes such as texture or flavor are of intermediate importance. Regardless of the type of
455 attribute, the managers' degree of commitment to ensuring compliance is less than that
456 specified in the official documents (Table 2).

457

458 The level of control of the external appearance and chemical composition of protected products
459 is in line with the specifications outlined in the regulations. In contrast, the control of the internal
460 sensory attributes does not reach the level specified in the regulations. In their responses, 71%
461 of the managers state that they are supposed to control for internal sensory attributes, although
462 the percentages stating that they control for specific aspects of the internal sensory profile are
463 lower (49% for texture, 38% for taste, and 30% for odor). Thus, the level of control of internal
464 sensory attributes seems insufficient to ensure compliance with the label (Table 2). For texture
465 and odor attributes, compliance with the regulations is better for products with PDO status than
466 for those with PGI status (Table 1).

467

468 It is surprising how seldom sensory panels are used to control internal sensory attributes.
469 Whereas 71% of respondents state that the label must be committed to ensuring compliance
470 with the internal sensory attributes specified in the regulations, only 21% claim that they use
471 trained panels for descriptive testing. This laxity is likely due, in part, to the difficulties involved
472 in descriptive sensory analysis, which requires training panelists (Lawless & Heymann, 2010;
473 Meilgaard, Civille, & Carr, 2007). Nowadays, descriptive sensory analysis is an established
474 scientific discipline, and protocols have been developed to analyze various horticultural
475 products (e.g., Romero Del Castillo et al. (2012) in common bean, Simó et al. (2012) in onions,
476 Hongsoongnern & Chambers (2008) in tomatoes, Talavera-Bianchi et al. (2010) in leafy
477 vegetables, Lespinasse et al. (2001) in lettuce, and Lespinasse et al. (2002) for fruits and
478 horticultural products in general). However, the procedures are laborious, and the number of
479 samples that can be analyzed is low. Much work remains to be done to develop, refine, and
480 establish protocols to analyze some horticultural products. Moreover, as suggested by Pérez-
481 Elortondo et al. (2018), steps should be taken to standardize the methods of control to avoid
482 comparative grievances among brands.

483

484 It is logical for regulatory boards of products that enjoy protected geographical designation to
485 verify the external sensory attributes. The United Nations Economic Commission for Europe also
486 uses external sensory attributes to classify horticultural products into the categories Extra, Class
487 I, and Class II (UNECE, 2020). So, failure to provide sufficient information about sensory
488 attributes or failure to ensure that products that use the label meet the specifications for these
489 attributes undermines the label and weakens its position among other European labels such as
490 Organic Farming that demand rigorous controls of the key differential attributes (European
491 Commission, 2020b).

492

493 To ensure that the European Union's protected geographical designations achieve the objectives
494 for which they were created, the branding of the protected products must be at least as strong
495 as that of the best private brands. Strong branding requires clear definitions and scrupulous
496 control of the attributes of the protected products. Our survey shows that protected status
497 increases consumers' awareness of the products, the homogeneity of the protected products,
498 and sales and consequently profits (Table 1). It seems that the perceived benefits are greater for
499 products that enjoy PDO status than for those that enjoy PGI status (81% of respondents stated
500 that profits increased with PDO status vs. 61% of similar responses with respect to PGI status
501 (Table 1)). To date, protected geographical status does not seem to have as great an impact on
502 internationalization of sales (only 29% of respondents stated that exports of their products had
503 increased after being awarded protected status), so this is one area with room for improvement.
504 On the other hand, half of the respondents considered that protected status had made
505 administrative management more difficult (Table 1), but this drawback is inherent in all
506 regulations.

507

508 *3.4. Descriptive sensory analysis: a bottleneck in quality control that must be resolved*

509 Assessing the appearance of horticultural products is relatively easy. Size, weight, shapes, and
510 colors can be measured instrumentally. Moreover, visual impressions are also very important in
511 European consumers' decisions (Moser et al., 2011), especially for their first purchase of a
512 horticultural product. Thus, it is not surprising that external sensory attributes are the most used
513 to control the acceptability of materials under the geographical designations. However, unless
514 they correlate with other quality-related attributes, these external attributes represent generic
515 qualities that are insufficient to define the protected products.

516 Internal sensory attributes constitute an essential component of a food quality, and these
517 attributes provide added value to protected products. However, assessing internal sensory
518 attributes is much more difficult because it requires descriptive analysis by a trained panel.

519 Sensory analysis by trained panels is slow and laborious, making this approach unfeasible for
520 analyzing the large number of samples required for quality control of a label (Costa et al., 2011;
521 Magwaza & Opara, 2015; Plans et al., 2014). Moreover, sensory panels may suffice for some
522 seasonal products for which all lots are elaborated from the same raw materials (e.g., food
523 products such as nougat, wine, oil, etc.), but they cannot be applied to horticultural products
524 that can change over the production period because that would require many assessments to
525 ensure that the products meet the quality criteria established in the regulations.

526
527 Consequently, other approaches must be sought to streamline the assessment of internal
528 sensory attributes. Establishing correlations between chemical/physical parameters and sensory
529 attributes can make it easier to assess large numbers of samples for quality control. Correlations
530 with soluble solids content have proven useful in determining sweetness in horticultural
531 products, as have various indices that use soluble solids content together with titratable acidity
532 (Magwaza & Opara, 2015). Many techniques for sensory phenotyping have been tested,
533 including visible/near-infrared spectroscopy; Raman spectroscopy; nuclear magnetic resonance
534 spectroscopy; spectral imaging; time resonance spectroscopy; fluorescence; hyperspectral
535 backscattering imaging; hyperspectral and multispectral imaging; ultrasonic, acoustic, and force
536 impulse response; and the electronic tongue (Cakmak, 2019; Magwaza & Opara, 2015). The
537 results achieved with most of these techniques generally do not correlate well with those of
538 sensory panel analyses. The best results have been obtained with near-infrared spectroscopy
539 (Chapman et al., 2019), and this technique has yielded good correlations with sensory panels for
540 some attributes, as found in several studies such as those of Németh et al. (2019) in melons,
541 Plans et al. (2014) in beans, Sans et al. (2020) in “calçots” (onion), Belie et al. (2003) in carrots,
542 Escribano et al. (2017) in sweet cherries, Ferrer-Gallego et al. (2013) in grapes, François et al.
543 (2008) in chicory, Kjolstad et al. (1990) in peas, Mehinagic et al. (2003) in apples, Valente et al.
544 (2011) in mango, Van Dijk et al. (2002) in potatoes, or Peirs et al. (2003) in tomatoes.

545
546 In our opinion, it is essential to take three aspects into account when using these indirect
547 techniques to predict sensory attributes: i) it is extremely important to have solid reference
548 data; in other words, we need a good system for sampling the product, we need to include data
549 from the whole range of variability that will be found later when we use indirect measures (we
550 are not interested in general models; rather we are interested in models based on the rank of
551 variation that we expect to find in the product to be evaluated). If we want to increase the
552 robustness of the models (which might be interesting in breeding programs that work with a
553 wide range of variability), we will decrease the precision of the models (whereas precision is
554 what interests us in quality control). ii) The panel must be well trained to work within the interval
555 of variation for the attributes. The more imprecise the panel’s evaluations are, the worse the
556 model will be. iii) The parameters for measuring the models’ goodness of fit must be chosen
557 carefully. We propose using relative ability of prediction estimators, which take into account
558 both the imprecision of the model and the imprecision of the reference method (Martens &
559 Naes, 1992). Only after comparing several series of estimated values against values obtained by
560 the reference method can we propose cutoffs that would be acceptable for our purposes. So
561 far, we have used this approach to document the sensory value of large collections of bean
562 germplasm (Rivera et al., 2016) and for quality control of geographic labels (Plans et al., 2014;
563 Sans et al., 2020).

564
565 *3.5. The key role of public administrations in ensuring honesty in the implementation of policies*
566 *for geographic quality labels*

567 Our years of experience in working with protected geographical designations in Spain have
568 convinced us that public administrations should work with cooperatives and associations of
569 producers, leading initiatives for this type of recognition, especially for products that have slim
570 profit margins, as is the case for raw materials. Public administrations should lead the process

571 of identifying potential brands and should guide producers through the process of obtaining
572 protected geographical status. Afterwards, they should oversee the management of the label
573 until it can generate enough added value to enable it to hire its own staff for this purpose. Once
574 the quality label has been achieved and consolidated, public administrations should continue to
575 provide support to: i) help in the controlled multiplication of the germplasm of the landraces
576 promoted by the quality label (owing to the low quantity of the seeds or propagules used, seed
577 companies are uninterested because they see little opportunity for profits), ii) foster the
578 evolution of the landraces; in other words, promote breeding programs to make the landraces
579 more resistant to new pests and diseases as well as to improve their sensory and nutritional
580 value, if necessary, and meet the demands of producers and consumers (Casañas et al., 2017),
581 iii) improve management techniques, incorporating new technologies that optimize crop
582 efficiency, iv) undertake marketing campaigns to promote protected geographical designation
583 labels in general as well as particular labels, explaining what the labels mean and what they
584 protect, and v) guarantee the labels. This point is especially important. The guarantee must be
585 effective so that consumers can trust these types of labels. Consumers' trust can only be gained
586 by unifying and strengthening the quality control criteria so that the degree of compliance
587 required is the same for all European labels, thus ensuring fairness (Pérez-Elortondo et al., 2018).

588

589 *3.6. The potential of European geographic labels for increasing profits and restoring territorial* 590 *balance: the case of Spain*

591 Spain's horticultural sector has the lowest mean profit margin of all countries in the European
592 Union and one of the lowest in the world (Galdeano-Gómez, Céspedes-Lorente, & Rodríguez-
593 Rodríguez, 2006; Iráizoz, Rapún, & Zabaleta, 2003). The depopulation of rural areas is also an
594 important problem in Spain (Collantes & Pinilla, 2011). Expanding the market for horticultural
595 products can help small-scale producers and thus mitigate the decline in the rural population.

596

597 At present, 35 European geographical labels protect Spanish horticultural products. These are
598 distributed unevenly throughout Spain's autonomous regions, probably because some regional
599 administrations promote European quality schemes more than others (Supplementary Figure
600 1). There is, however, much room for growth. We consulted specialists in all the regions, and
601 they have proposed 82 products that could be candidates for protected geographical status
602 (Figure 8), according to the criteria set out in 2.2 section. Despite the tendency for these areas
603 to be concentrated in certain regions, the map includes the 82 proposals distributed in 71
604 epicenters. Obviously, the lack of traditional horticulture in many areas due to the
605 environmental conditions limits the possibilities. Nevertheless, even focusing only on the labels
606 for horticultural products, there is much that can be done to revitalize Spanish horticulture and
607 to bring it up to date in terms of sensory quality and proximity.

608

609 **4. Conclusions**

610 The European Union's protected geographical designations were devised to foster economic and
611 social growth in rural communities. This objective is especially relevant for labels that protect
612 horticultural products. Our analysis of the situation revealed that these objectives have been
613 achieved only in part, because the degree of control exercised over quality attributes beyond
614 those related to the products' historical and cultural value is clearly insufficient, and many
615 products that could potentially benefit from quality labels have failed to apply for protected
616 status (at least in Spain, which we have used as a case study). Moreover, the use of landraces,
617 another potential strength of these quality schemes (conserving agrobiodiversity through use),
618 can be improved, as is demonstrated by the smaller number of PDO labels (which place a greater
619 emphasis on using landraces) than PGI labels. Thus, existing labels for horticultural products
620 must be strengthened, and efforts to establish new labels for other products must be
621 encouraged, especially in Southern Europe where bioclimatic and historical conditions are most
622 favorable. These efforts should include: i) encouraging the use of landraces and promoting their

623 evolution toward higher-quality products; ii) including sensory attributes in the descriptions of
624 the horticultural products that achieve protected geographical status, providing descriptions of
625 the most important attributes through numerical scales and guaranteeing the absence of
626 determinate sensory defects; iii) agreeing on and developing standardized methods for the
627 sensory analysis of each kind of horticultural product that could provide reference values for the
628 European Union; iv) advancing toward indirect technologies that would permit routine screening
629 for products that are clearly outside the acceptable limits for the labels; and v) persuading public
630 administrations to take the lead in European quality schemes.

631

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639

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642 Writing–review & editing. **Silvia Sans:** Conceptualization, Data curation, Funding acquisition.
643 **Francesc Casañas:** Conceptualization, Formal analysis, Data curation, Original draft. **Salvador**
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1013 **Table 1.-** Statistical summary of the responses to the questionnaire sent to the regulatory boards and certifying
 1014 bodies. They were asked about the kind of varieties accepted in each label, the quality attributes they remembered
 1015 were present in the specifications, the attributes that are actually verified, and the perceived socioeconomic effects
 1016 of the product's protection under the label. Data are expressed as percentages of the completed questionnaires.

	All labels	PDO	PGI
<i>Varieties accepted according to managers' knowledge</i>			
Landraces	78	88	74
Modern improved	27	12	33
<i>Attributes present in the rules according to managers' knowledge</i>			
Historical	84	94	81
Cultural	75	88	70
External appearance (morphology)	83	94	78
Sensory	71	71	72
Chemical	38	47	35
<i>Attributes actually controlled according to managers' knowledge</i>			
Size	76	82	74
Shape	79	88	76
Color	79	82	78
Texture	49	71	41
Smell	30	53	22
Taste	38	47	35
Chemical composition	40	53	35
<i>Sensory attributes scored by a sensory panel, according to managers' knowledge</i>			
None	21	24	20
<i>Socioeconomic consequences of the label</i>			
More advertising	67	94	74
Sales increase	63	94	69
Market internationalization	29	47	29
More homogeneity	58	75	63
Increased profit	61	81	67
Administrative drawbacks	39	50	44

1017

1018

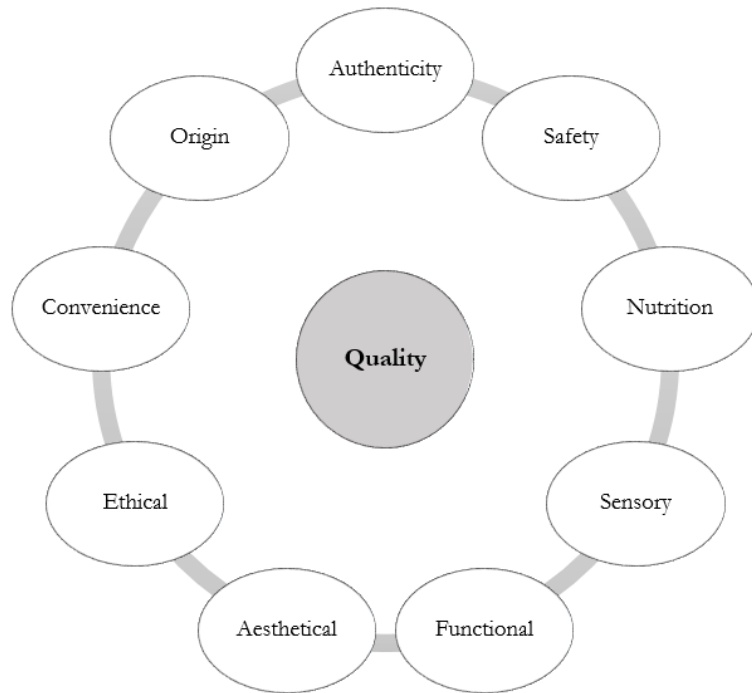
1019 Table 2. The percentage of labels that control compliance with aspects related with the three groups of attributes
 1020 according to the official documents, the percentage of labels for which the respondents remember are defined in the
 1021 official documents, and the percentage of labels that the respondents claim they actually control.

	Attributes that are controlled according to official documents	Respondents' memory of attributes controlled according to the documents	Attributes that respondents claim are controlled
External appearance	95	83	79
Internal sensory attributes	73	71	41 (21 by descriptive analysis by panel)
Chemical composition	50	38	40

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1024 **Figure captions**
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1026 **Figure 1.** Components of food quality (modified from European Commission, 2020a)
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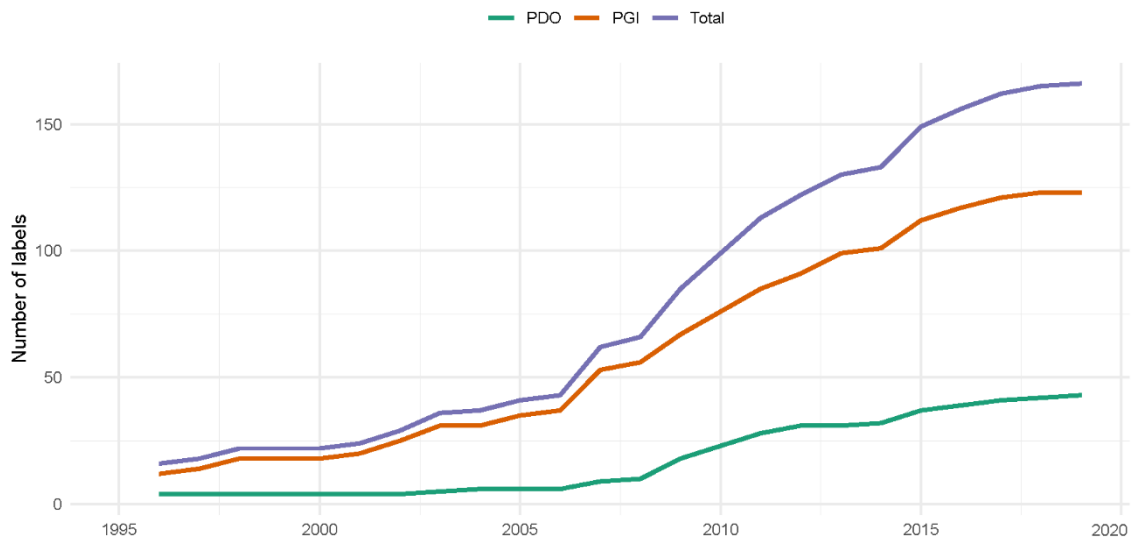
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1031 **Figure 2.** The logos of the two main geographical labels awarded by the European Union that mainly protect the raw
1032 materials (R 1151/2012 (OJEU, 2012))

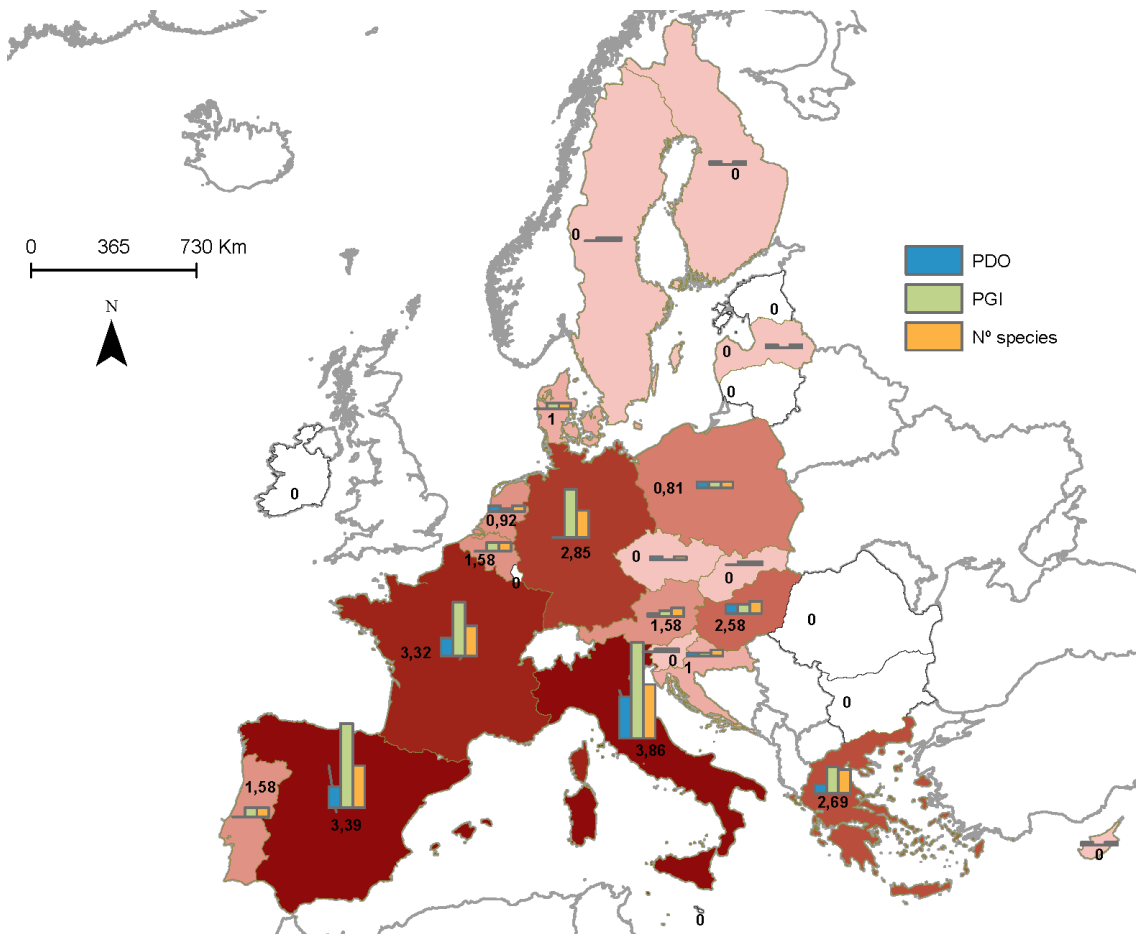
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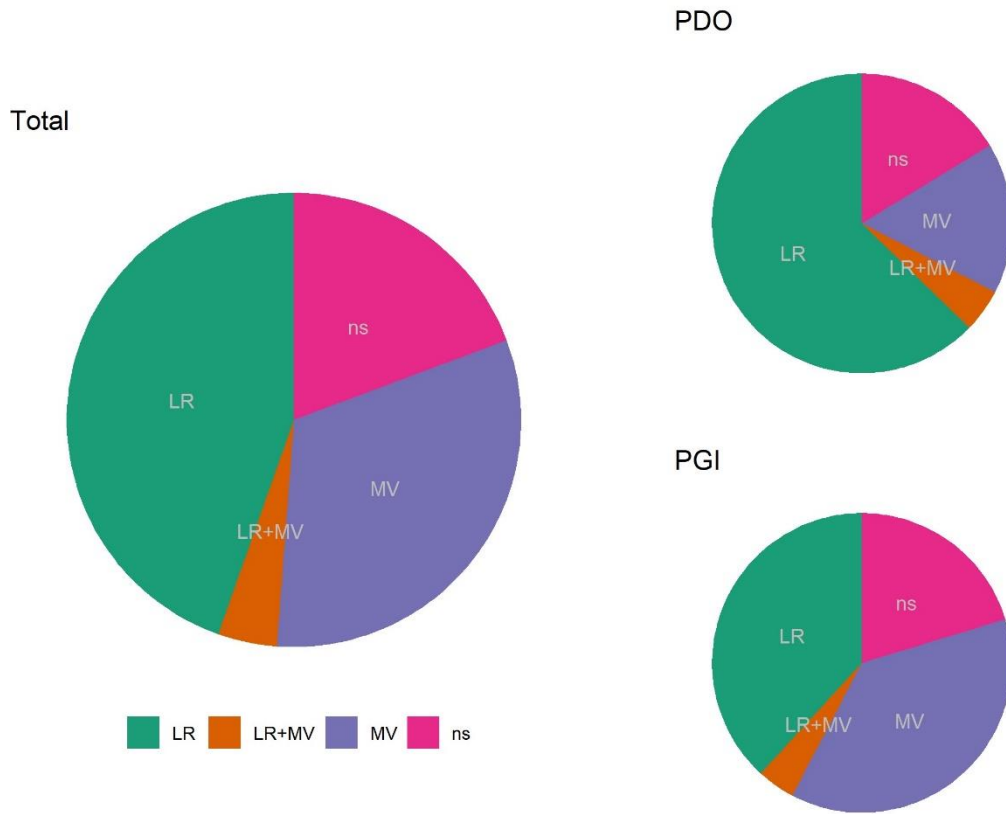
Figure 3. Evolution of the number of PDOs, PGIs and total labels, for horticultural products since the creation of these quality awards.



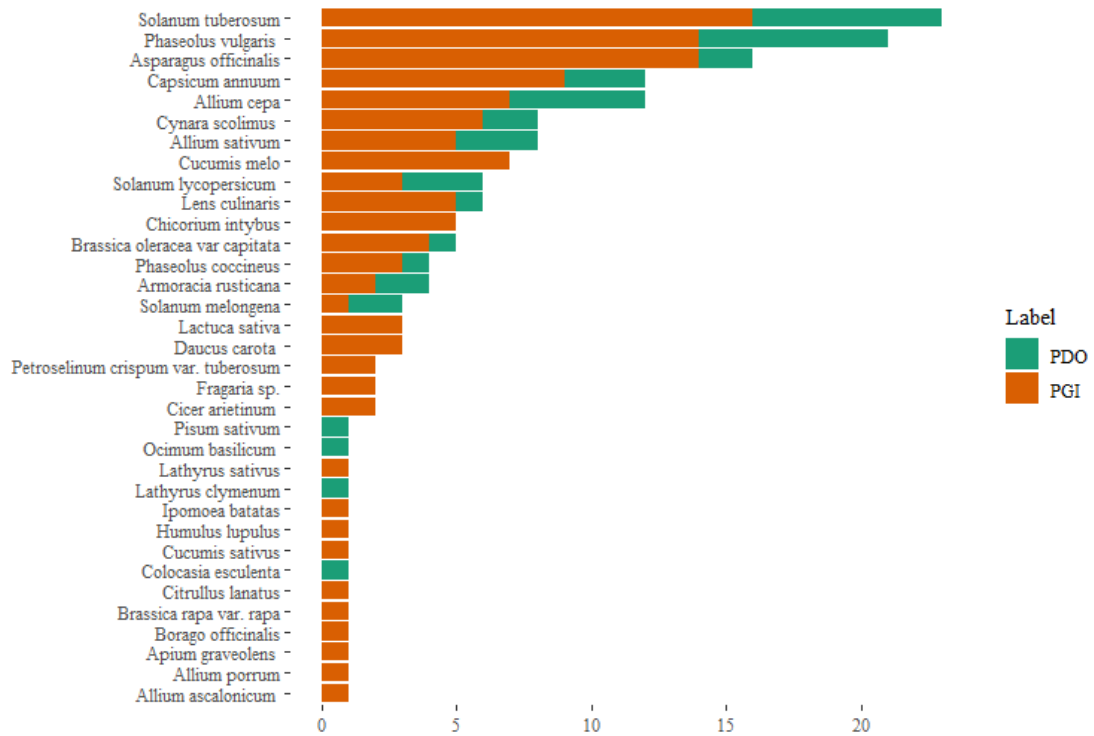
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Figure 4. Map showing the number of geographical quality labels (PDO and PGI) for horticultural products awarded to countries in the European Union, the number of different species involved, and the Shannon-Weaver diversity index (1963), which provides information about the diversity of horticultural products protected with the geographical quality labels in each country, calculated as $H = -\sum p_i \log_2 p_i$, where p_i is the probability of the occurrence

1044 of a variety into a species i , and $\sum p_i=1$. The shading of each country reflects the number of total labels of each country
 1045 (white=0 labels; increasingly darker shades=increasingly more labels).
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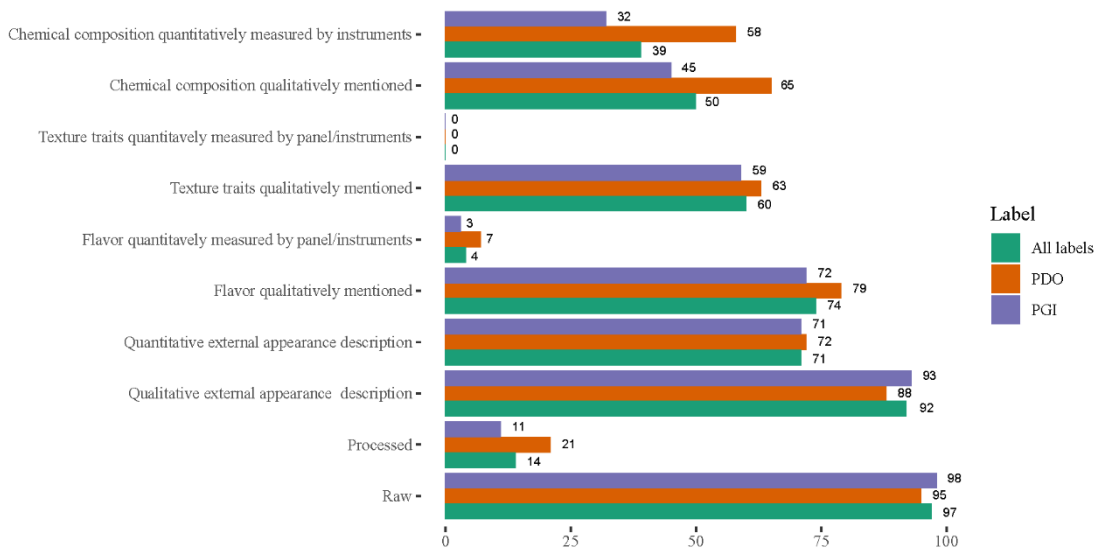


1047 **Figure 5.** Type of germplasm used in the European Union’s quality labels: PDOs, PGIs, and total labels. (LR: Landraces;
 1048 MV: Modern Varieties, LR+MV: landraces + Modern Varieties; ns: not clearly specified).
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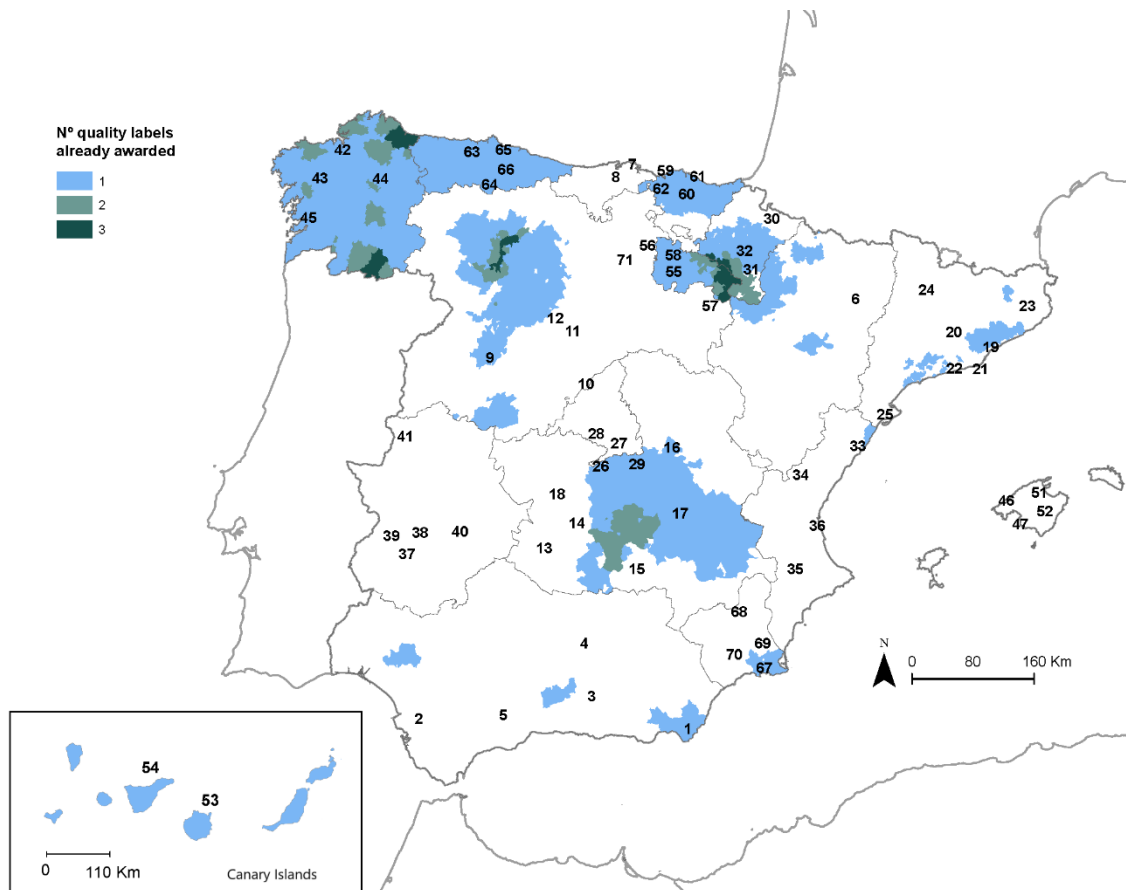
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Figure 6. Number of PDOs and PGIs in which each species appears in the registration specification of the European Labels.



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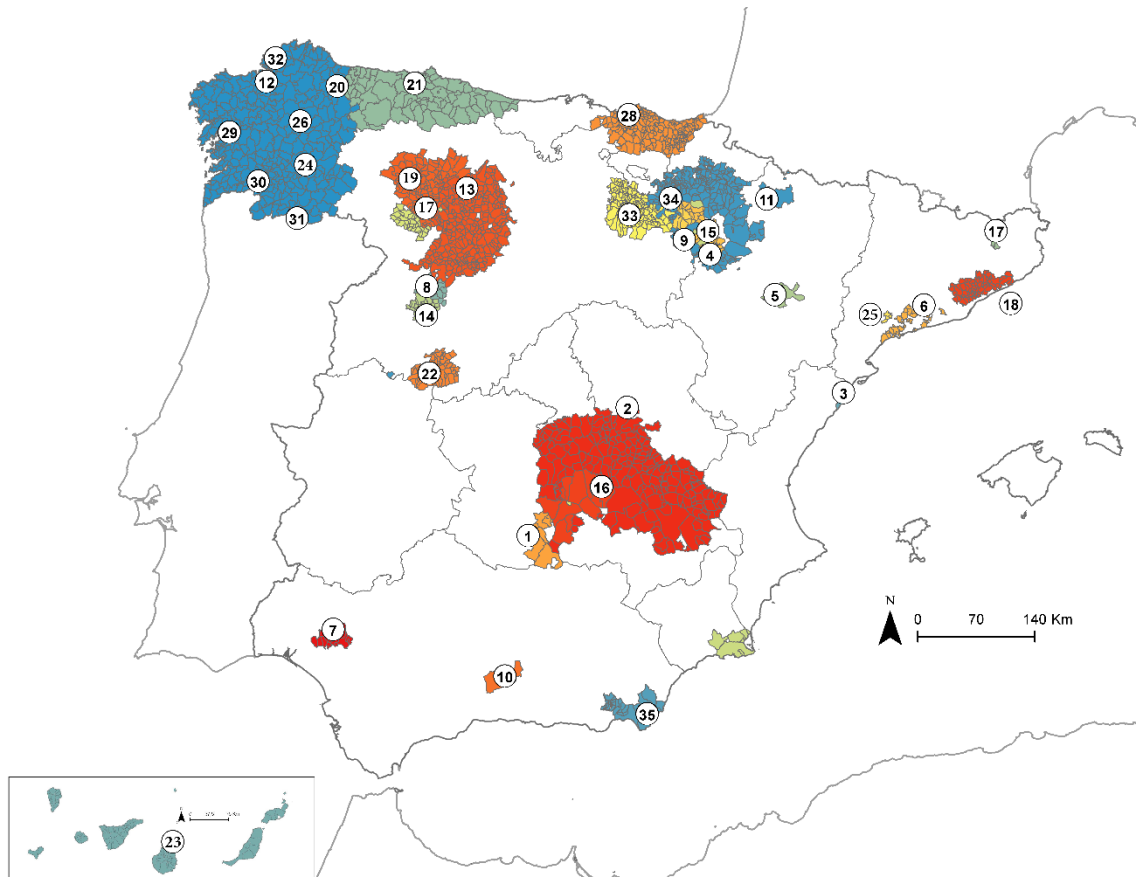
Figure 7. Proportion of the label register documents that require specification for quality items for all labels and for PGIs and PDOs separately. Proportion of labels dealing with raw or transformed products.



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Figure 8. Distribution of territories with protected geographical designations for horticultural products (color-coded for the number of labels already awarded in each area; see complementary figure for the label's names) and epicenters of possible new labels (some epicenters have more than 1 candidate label). 1. Tomate RAF de la Cañada-Nijar (*Solanum lycopersicum* L.); 2. Tomate roteño (*Solanum lycopersicum* L.); 3. Tomate de la vega de Granada (*Solanum lycopersicum* L.); 4. Melones de Grañena (*Cucumis meló* L.) ; 5. Melones de Ardales (*Cucumis meló* L.); 6. Tomate Rosa de Barbastro (*Solanum lycopersicum* L.) ; 7. Pimiento de Isla (*Capsicum annum* L.); 8. Carico montañés (*Phaseolus vulgaris* L.); 9. Garbanzo de Pedrosillo (*Cicer arietinum* L.); 10. Judión de la Granja (*Phaseolus coccineus* L.); 11. Ajo de Vallelado (*Allium sativum* L.); 12. Espárrago de Tudela de Duero (*Asparagus officinalis* L.); 13. Cebolla de la Mancha (*Allium cepa* L.); 14. Judía Pinesa de Malagon (*Phaseolus coccineus* L.); 15. Pimiento de Villanueva de los Infantes (*Capsicum annum* L.); 16. Pepino de Huete (*Cucumis sativus* L.); 17. Pimiento de San Clemente (*Capsicum annum* L.); 18. Tomate Moruno de San Pablo de los Montes (*Solanum lycopersicum* L.); 19. Tomàquet de Penjar de Catalunya (*Solanum lycopersicum* L.); 20. Mongeta de Castellfollit del Boix (*Phaseolus vulgaris* L.); 21. Carxofa del Prat de Llobregat (*Cynara scolimus* L.); 22. Espigalls del Garraf (*Brassica oleracea* L.); 23. Tomaquet Pera de Girona (*Solanum lycopersicum* L.); 24. Ceba de Coll de Nargó (*Allium cepa* L.); 25. Ceba Morada d'Amposta (*Allium cepa* L.); 26. Fresas de Aranjuez (*Fragaria sp*); 27. Ajo fino de Chinchón (*Allium sativum* L.); 28. Acelgas de Fuenlabrada (*Beta vulgaris* L.); 29. Espárragos de Villaconejos (*Asparagus officinalis* L.); 29. Melones de Villaconejos (*Cucumis melo* L.); 30. Patata del Pirineo Navarro (*Solanum tuberosum* L.) ; 31. Cardos rojos y blancos de Corella y Peralta (*Cynara cardunculus* L.); 32. Ajo de Falces (*Allium sativum* L.); 33. Tomata de Penjar de Castelló (*Solanum lycopersicum* L.); 34. Peladilla de Viver (*Phaseolus vulgaris* L.); 35. Meló d'Or d'Ontinyent (*Cucumis melo* L.); 36. Tomata valenciana (*Solanum lycopersicum* L.); 36. Garrofó de de València (*Phaseolus lunatus* L.); 37. Ajo de Aceuchal (*Allium sativum* L.); 38. Melon de Almendralejo (*Cucumis melo* L.); 39. Tomate de Talavera la Real (*Solanum lycopersicum* L.); 40. Sandia de Villanueva de la Serena (*Citrullus lanatus* (Thunb.) Mastsum. & Nakai.); 41. Pepinos de Moraleja (*Cucumis sativus* L.); 42. Repollo de Betanzos (*Brassica oleracea* L.); 43. Berza Rizada de Galicia (*Brassica oleracea* L.); 43. Faba do Caldo de Galicia (*Phaseolus vulgaris* L.); 44. Faba do Marisco de la Marina Lucense (*Phaseolus vulgaris* L.); 45. Nabicol de las Rias Baixas (*Brassica napobrassica* Mill.); 45. Faba de ollo de pita de Pontevedra (*Phaseolus vulgaris* L.); 46. Tomàtiga de Ramellet de Mallorca (*Solanum lycopersicum* L.); 47. Pebre tap de cortí de l'horta de Palma (*Capsicum annum* L.); 48. Pebre Ros de Mallorca (*Capsicum annum* L.); 49. Col borratxó de Mallorca (*Brassica oleracea* L.); 50. Pastanaga negra de Mallorca (*Daucus carota* L.); 51. Rave de Mallorca (*Raphanus sativus* L.); 52. Meló eriçó de Vilafranca de Bonany (*Cucumis melo* L.); 53. Batata de Canarias (*Ipomoea batatas* L.); 53. Bubangos de Canarias (*Cucurbita pepo* L.); 53. Tomate de Canarias (*Solanum lycopersicum* L.); 53. Pimientas de Canarias (*Capsicum annum* L.); 54. Cebollas de Tenerife (*Allium cepa* L.) ; 55. Caparron de Anguiano (*Phaseolus vulgaris* L.); 56. Caparron del río Oja (*Phaseolus vulgaris* L.); 57. Cardo rojo del

1091 valle de Alhama (*Cynara cardunculus* L.); 58.Pimiento de Nájera (*Capsicum annuum* L.); 59.Acelga amarilla enana de
 1092 Derio (*Beta vulgaris* L.); 60.Puerro de Durango (*Allium porrum* L.); 61.Nabo de Nabarniz (*Brassica rapa* L.); 62.Cebolla
 1093 roja de Zalla (*Allium cepa* L.); 63.Fresa de Candamo (*Fragaria* sp); 64.Guisantes de Llano de Someron (*Pisum sativum*
 1094 L.); 65.Maíz de Asturias (*Zea mays* L.); 65.Berza de Asturias (*Brassica oleracea* L.); 66.Nabos de San Martin (*Brassica*
 1095 *rapa* L.); 67.Pimiento Morro de Vaca del Campo de Cartagena (*Capsicum annuum* L.); 68.Berengena de Cieza (*Solanum*
 1096 *melongena* L.); 69.Tomate Verdal de Murcia (*Solanum lycopersicum* L.); 69.Tomate Flor de Baladre de Murcia
 1097 (*Solanum lycopersicum* L.); 69.Pimiento Ñora de Murcia (*Capsicum annuum* L.); 69.Lechuga perdices de Murcia
 1098 (*Lactuca sativa* L.); 70.Calabaza de Totana (*Cucurbita pepo* L.); 71.Lechuga de Medina de Pomar (*Lactuca sativa* L.).
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1101 **Supplementary Figure.** Distribution of the awarded European Geographic labels in the different Spanish regions.
 1102 Numbers in the figure correspond to the name of the label, scientific name of the varieties involved, and level of the
 1103 label. 1. PGI Berengena de Almagro (*Solanum melongena* L.). 2. PGI Ajo morado de Las Pedroñeras (*Allium sativum*
 1104 L.). 3. PDO Alcachofa de Benicarló (*Cynara scolimus* L.). 4. PGI Alcachofa de Tudela (*Cynara scolimus* L.). 5. PDO Cebolla
 1105 Fuentes de Ebro (*Allium cepa* L.). 6. PGI Calçots de Valls (*Allium cepa* L.). 7. PGI Garbanzo de Escacena (*Cicer arietinum*
 1106 L.). 8. PGI Garbanzo de Fuentesauco (*Cicer arietinum* L.). 9. PGI Coliflor de Calahorra (*Brassica oleracea* L.). 10. PGI
 1107 Espárrago de Huetor-Tajar (*Asparagus officinalis* L.). 11. PGI Espárrago de Navarra (*Asparagus officinalis* L.). 12. PGI
 1108 Grelos de Galicia (*Brassica rapa* L.). 13. PGI Lenteja de Tierra de Campos (*Lens culinaris* Medik.). 14. PGI Lenteja de la
 1109 Armuña (*Lens culinaris* Medik.). 15. PGI Melon de Torre Pacheco (*Cucumis melo* L.). 16. PGI Melón de la Mancha
 1110 (*Cucumis melo* L.). 17. PDO Fesols de Santa Pau (*Phaseolus vulgaris* L.). 18. PDO Mongeta del Ganxet (*Phaseolus*
 1111 *vulgaris* L.). 19. PGI alubia de la Bañeza-Leon (*Phaseolus vulgaris* L.). 20. PGI Faba de Lourenza (*Phaseolus vulgaris* L.).
 1112 21. PGI Faba Asturiana (*Phaseolus vulgaris* L.). 22. PGI Judías del Barco de Avila (*Phaseolus vulgaris* L.). 23. PDO Papas
 1113 antiguas de Canarias (*Solanum tuberosum* L.). 24. PGI Pataca de Galicia (*Solanum tuberosum* L.). 25. PGI Patates de
 1114 Prades (*Solanum tuberosum* L.). 26. PGI Pimiento de Mougán (*Capsicum annuum* L.). 27. PGI Pimiento de Fresno-
 1115 Benavente (*Capsicum annuum* L.). 28. PGI Pimiento de Guernica (*Capsicum annuum* L.). 29. PDO Pemento de Herbon
 1116 (*Capsicum annuum* L.). 30. PGI Pemento de Arnoia (*Capsicum annuum* L.). 31. PGI Pemento de Oimbra (*Capsicum*
 1117 *annuum* L.). 32. PGI Pemento de Couto (*Capsicum annuum* L.). 33. PGI Pimiento riojano (*Capsicum annuum* L.). 34.
 1118 PDO Pimiento del Piquillo de Lodosa (*Capsicum annuum* L.). 35. PGI Tomate La Cañada (*Solanum lycopersicum* L.).

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