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# 1 Citizens, consumers and farm animal welfare: a meta-analysis of willingness-to-pay studies

2  
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## 6 Abstract

7 The sustainable intensification of animal production systems is increasing as a consequence of  
8 increased demand for foods originating from animals. Production diseases are particularly endemic in  
9 intensive production systems, and can negatively impact upon farm animal welfare. There is an  
10 increasing need to develop policies regarding animal production diseases, sustainable intensification,  
11 and animal welfare which incorporate consumer priorities as well as technical assessments of farm  
12 animal welfare. Consumers and/or citizens may have concerns about intensive production systems,  
13 and whether animal production disease represent a barrier to consumer acceptance of their increased  
14 use. There is a considerable body of research focused on consumer willingness-to-pay (WTP) for  
15 improved animal welfare. It is not clear how this relates specifically to a preference for reduced  
16 animal production disease incidence in animal production systems. A systematic review and meta-  
17 analysis were conducted to establish the publics' WTP for farm animal welfare, with a focus on  
18 production diseases which arise in intensive systems. Systematic review methodology combined with  
19 data synthesis was applied to integrate existing knowledge regarding consumer WTP for animal  
20 welfare, and reduced incidence of animal production diseases. Multiple databases were searched to  
21 identify relevant studies. A screening process, using a set of pre-determined inclusion criteria,  
22 identified 54 studies, with the strength of evidence and uncertainty for each study being assessed. A  
23 random effects meta-analysis was used to explore heterogeneity in relation to a number of factors,  
24 with a cumulative meta-analysis conducted to establish changes in WTP over time. The results  
25 indicated a small, positive WTP (0.63 standard deviations) for farm animal welfare varying in relation  
26 to a number of factors including animal type and region. Socio-demographic characteristics explained  
27 the most variation in the data. An evidence gap was highlighted in relation to reduced WTP for  
28 specific production diseases associated with the intensification of production, with only 4 of the 54  
29 studies identified being related to this. A combination of market and government based policy  
30 solutions appears to be the best solution for improving farm animal welfare standards in the future,  
31 enabling the diverse public preferences to be taken into consideration.

## 32 Keywords

33 Systematic review; animal production diseases; willingness-to-pay; farm animal welfare policy;  
34 policy options

## 35 Highlights

- 36 • Overall a small consumer WTP for farm animal welfare was identified
- 37 • Only 4 of the 54 studies established WTP for reduced production diseases

- 38 • Differences in WTP for welfare existed between animal type, regions and population
- 39 • Gaps in evidence for policy development were identified
- 40 • The results support the use multiple policy options for improving animal welfare
- 41

## 1. Introduction

The sustainable intensification of animal production represents a potential policy response required to increase the availability of foods in relation to growing concerns about food security, and increasing consumer demand for foods derived from animals (Foresight, 2011). However, there is evidence that consumers have very little or no understanding of modern agrifood production systems (Bennett *et al*, 2012). This includes the impact that production diseases can potentially have on animal health and subsequently farm animal welfare (FAW), and the prevalence and nature of occurrence of such diseases in intensive production systems. There is, however, evidence to suggest that FAW is of increasing ethical concern to the European public, with the resulting expectation that foods derived from animals must take due account of welfare issues arising in the production process (Veissier *et al*, 2008; Frewer *et al*, 2005). Public perceptions of animal health represent an important component within FAW, and represent a potentially important driver of consumption behaviours of European consumers (European Commission, 2007).

The public are an important stakeholder with interests in the food chain, and drive demand for specific foods and commodities (Jensen, 2006). Consideration of their views, needs and preferences regarding the design and operationalisation of animal production systems in FAW policies is essential if they are to be acceptable, and regulatory options reflect public priorities, expectations and requirements. (Farm Animal Welfare Council, 2014; Bennett *et al*, 2002), and a number of aspects of FAW policy have been updated to reflect public concerns (de Jonge & van Trijp, 2014). A number of approaches can be taken by stakeholders to improve FAW (Ingenbleek *et al*, 2012). Government based solutions, in the form of legislation, have traditionally been the main method for ensuring or improving welfare (Bennett, 1997). However, animal production systems which promote higher standards of animal welfare are believed to lead to higher environmental and financial costs (Leinonen *et al*, 2012; World Bank, 2011), which will ultimately be passed onto the consumer unless subsidies or tax breaks are put in place for producers (Bennett, 1997; 1995). In addition, due to the subjective evaluation of animal welfare, individuals may have different opinions as to what counts as a minimally acceptable standard (McInerney, 1994). It is thus difficult to establish a baseline level of animal welfare in production systems that will satisfy all individuals, and which can be used as the initial point for subsequent policy development.

Market based approaches offer an alternative to aligning different approaches to FAW, as different public needs can potentially be met, assuming ethically acceptable *de minimis* welfare standards are applied. They also ensure that producers and consumers are not priced out of the market should any additional costs be passed down the supply chain (McInerney, 1994). Market based solutions are reflected through the increased numbers of private standards being introduced with many businesses adopting welfare friendly stances, including the incorporation of welfare into corporate social responsibility schemes or the adoption of FAW labelling schemes (Marks and Spencer, 2015; McDonalds, 2014). As FAW standards are demand driven, it is important to establish the market potential for these. One approach is to assess consumer/citizen willingness-to-pay (WTP) for FAW. WTP has also been used as a proxy for attitude (Ryan & Spash, 2011) and as an indication of public preferences (Harvey & Hubbard, 2013), and so can be used to assess the acceptability of different FAW practices, to consumers. This evidence can then subsequently be utilised in policy development.

83 WTP is a measure of value of goods or services to an individual (Hanley *et al*, 2011), and is defined  
84 as the price premium or maximum price an individual is willing to sacrifice to obtain a certain benefit  
85 or to avoid undesirable characteristics (Bredert *et al*, 2006; Hanley *et al*, 2001). Typically, WTP  
86 studies have tried to quantify concerns in relation to the value placed on animal lives, their welfare  
87 conditions (Lagerkvist & Hess, 2011) and the higher expected benefits associated with them,  
88 including product quality that consumers tend to associate with improved welfare (Verbeke, 2009;  
89 European Commission, 2007).

90 Although previous reviews of the WTP literature have been conducted, these have either not used  
91 meta-analysis (Bennett *et al*, 2012), or have not comprehensively explored the grey literature as part  
92 of rigorous systematic review methodology combined with meta-analysis (Lagerkvist & Hess, 2011).  
93 Furthermore, the issue of consumer WTP for reduced *animal production diseases* has not been a focus  
94 of these reviews. Combining systematic review with meta-analysis improves outcome precision and  
95 acts to minimise bias in relation to both selection and reporting, taking a comprehensive approach to  
96 obtaining and extracting data to ensure that the totality of evidence is considered (Koricheva *et al*,  
97 2013). This will provide more robust evidence on which to base policies. In addition, the increase in  
98 intensive production systems in Europe (and indeed internationally) has resulted in attitudes and  
99 opinions being potentially influenced by changes in agricultural practices, more intense media  
100 reporting of FAW issues, and increased societal discussion of FAW. Precise understanding of  
101 consumer attitudes and WTP for FAW interventions specifically designed to address production  
102 diseases in intensive systems is required if policy development is to take due account of consumer  
103 concerns and priorities.

104 Both previous reviews have acknowledged the large amount of heterogeneity (variability) in WTP for  
105 FAW, for which a number of moderators have had varying explanatory effects. These include  
106 different aspects of welfare (Napolitano *et al*, 2008), socio-demographic variables (Bernard &  
107 Bernard, 2009; Bennett, 1996) and socio-economic characteristics (Carlsson *et al*, 2007). There is also  
108 evidence that WTP for FAW differs between animal types (Cicia & Colantuoni, 2010; Carlsson *et al*,  
109 2007), which may have implications for both producers and FAW policies. In addition, the previous  
110 meta-analyses failed to distinguish between consumers of animal products and general citizens. This  
111 potential disparity in opinions and attitudes between citizens and consumers is acknowledged in the  
112 wider FAW literature (Grunert, 2006; Harper & Henson, 2001), with both known to have favourable  
113 attitudes towards higher FAW systems and concerns over more modern or intensive production  
114 systems (Blandford *et al*, 2002). However, whereas consumers are able to express these attitudes  
115 through the purchasing of animal based products from higher welfare systems such as free range,  
116 citizens, including vegetarians and vegans, may not purchase animal products regardless of welfare  
117 standards, yet still have an interest in the issues surrounding the implementation of and production of  
118 these products (Grunert, 2006). In addition, individuals may behave differently in their dual roles as  
119 citizens and consumers, expressing preferences for higher welfare systems when asked (Vanhonacker  
120 *et al*, 2007), yet not taking these into consideration when in purchasing situations due to other product  
121 attributes taking priority (Blandford *et al*, 2002), or due to a number of perceived barriers to  
122 purchasing higher welfare products (Clark *et al*, 2016; Harper & Henson, 2001) These differences are  
123 potentially important when developing FAW policies which align with the preferences and priorities  
124 of all societal stakeholders.

125 In light of the increase in published work regarding WTP for FAW since 2011, and in the absence of a  
126 review on WTP for reduced animal production diseases specifically, this systematic review and meta-

127 analysis seeks to extend the work by Lagerkvist & Hess (2011) and aims to establish; 1) what the  
128 public are willing-to-pay for FAW, and 2) what the public are willing-to-pay for interventions to  
129 reduce production diseases. In addition, heterogeneity within the data will be explored to examine  
130 whether certain factors explain the variability in the public's WTP. This will be conducted in relation  
131 to; 3) animal type, 4) socio-demographic or socio-economic characteristics, 5) being vegetarian and 6)  
132 whether there is a difference in WTP between citizens and consumers.

133 **2. Materials and Methods**

134 **2.1. Literature search**

135 The search strategy and meta-analysis protocol were published online prior to starting the review to  
 136 provide transparency and to enable feedback on the planned research (Clark *et al*, 2014). Relevant  
 137 publications were identified through searching Scopus, ISI Web of Knowledge, AgEcon Search and  
 138 Google Scholar using a combination of keywords outlined in table 1, the latter 2 databases enabling  
 139 the identification of “grey” literature. Search terms were refined after several trial searches to ensure  
 140 the most effective search terms were used. Both the trialled and final search terms can be obtained by  
 141 contacting the corresponding author. Face validity of the searches was addressed by checking returned  
 142 searches for key authors and articles included in both the Lagerkvist & Hess (2011) meta-analysis and  
 143 Bennett *et al* (2012) review. Animal specific search terms were not used as they frequently returned  
 144 studies that originated in the natural rather than the social sciences.

145 **Table 1: Keywords considered for search**

<b>Type of Study and Outcome</b>	valu* OR intention* OR behav* OR purchas* OR WTP OR willingness to pay OR willingness to buy OR ITP OR buy OR pref*OR economic OR reject* OR consumer OR demand OR choice
<b>AND</b>	
<b>Animal Type</b>	farm animal OR production animal
<b>AND</b>	
<b>Animal Welfare</b>	animal welfare OR health OR disease OR welfare OR production disease

146  
 147 In addition to the database searches, reference lists associated with the studies included were assessed,  
 148 and key authors in the field were contacted, to identify any additional studies not returned from the  
 149 searching process. The results were then exported into Endnote for further analysis. The studies which  
 150 had been identified at this stage were screened in a 2 stage process in order to assess their relevance in  
 151 relation to the pre-determined inclusion criteria outlined in table 2.

152 Quantitative empirical studies were included in the review, specifically those that examined the  
 153 public’s WTP for FAW. Measures of welfare were deemed to include anything that was described to  
 154 participants as altering the lives of animals, ranging from vague descriptors, such as general  
 155 improvements to overall welfare, to very detailed aspects such as specific stocking densities per m<sup>2</sup>,  
 156 and in relation to specific production diseases. Most studies reported multiple welfare measures and  
 157 all were extracted for data analysis. All farm animal types were considered for inclusion, including  
 158 fish. Welfare measures in relation to production diseases were deemed to be anything that specifically  
 159 mentioned reducing or controlling for diseases. Antibiotic use, including the use of growth promoters  
 160 (Hughes & Heritage, 2002), was also considered as a proxy for interventions to reduce production  
 161 diseases, and all studies that measured WTP for animal products produced specifically with or without  
 162 antibiotics were included.

163 A broad range of methods used to measure WTP were considered for inclusion in the review. This  
 164 included, but was not limited to; revealed preference measures (market data, experimental auctions)  
 165 and stated preference measures (conjoint analysis, contingent valuation studies, choice experiments)  
 166 as highlighted in table 1. Only studies published in English were included. Studies with duplicate  
 167 populations (where the same data was presented in 2 or more publications) were removed, with the  
 168 study with the lowest critical appraisal (see section 2.2) or which reported the fewest WTP or socio-  
 169 demographic measures being excluded from the current analysis.

170 **Table 2: Eligibility criteria**

Study design	English, quantitative empirical; conjoint analysis, auction, dichotomous choice, contingent valuation, choice experiments, additional methods of willingness-to-pay or intention to purchase
Population	Consumers and/ or citizens
Outcome	Willingness-to-pay, intention-to-purchase, price premium

171

172 An overview of the search process can be found in the PRISMA flow diagram in figure 1 (Moher *et al*  
 173 2009), including the number of studies excluded at each stage. The references of studies excluded at  
 174 full text stage are provided as a supplementary file (Appendix A).

## 175 **2.2. Data extraction and critical appraisal**

176 Information was extracted from all papers in relation to the objectives. WTP was extracted as the  
 177 price premium expressed by participants to purchase products produced to defined FAW standards  
 178 and was considered as the dependent variable in the analysis. Values were extracted as the mean  $\pm$  the  
 179 standard deviation or standard error or with 95% confidence intervals (95% CI) where reported.

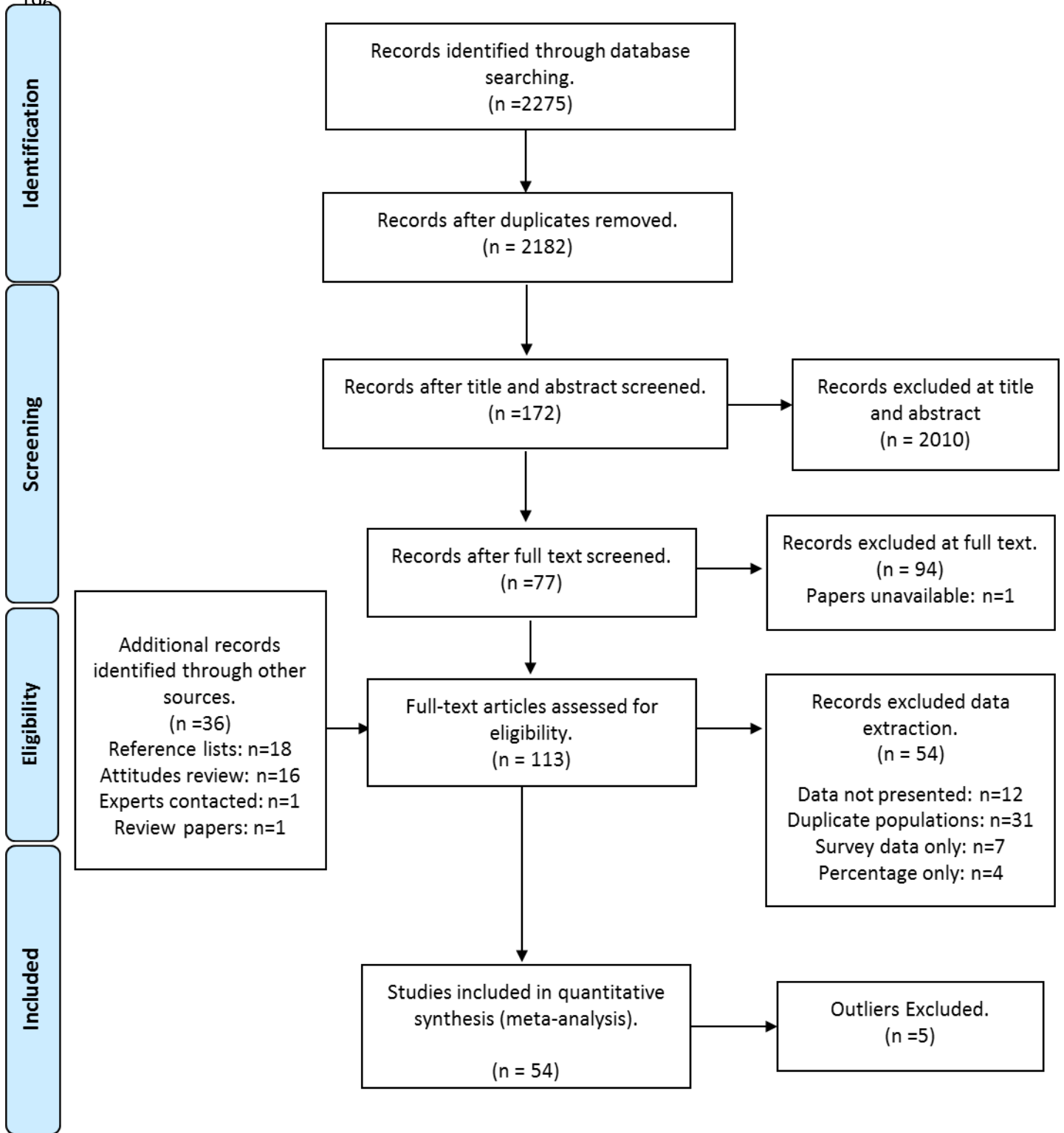
180 WTP values were adjusted for inflation, based on the year of data collection, and when this was not  
 181 reported it was assumed to be the year of publication (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2015;  
 182 inflation.eu, 2015a; 2015b; 2015c; Statistics Sweden, 2015; Bank of Canada, Accessed 26<sup>th</sup> March  
 183 2015; Bank of England, Accessed 26<sup>th</sup> March 2015; Bureau of Labor Statistics, Accessed 26<sup>th</sup> March  
 184 2015; Eurostat, Accessed 26<sup>th</sup> March 2015; Statistics Denmark, Accessed 26<sup>th</sup> March 2015). As the  
 185 majority of studies were conducted in Europe, the WTP values were converted into Euros to provide a  
 186 consistent currency across studies (European Central Bank, Accessed 26<sup>th</sup> March 2015). Additional  
 187 variables were extracted as moderator variables to help in the explanation of heterogeneity within the  
 188 data. These were either extracted as mean values (income, age), percentages of the study population  
 189 (female, vegetarian and college/university education) or coded as categorical variables (animal type,  
 190 product, welfare aspects, country of data collection, study methodology and economic model used).  
 191 European countries were grouped according to region based on the United Nations Statistics Division  
 192 (2013) classification, with the study methods were grouped according to whether they were revealed  
 193 or stated preference measures as outlined by the Competition Commission (2010).



194 **Figure 1: Flow Diagram of the search and selection process**

195

196



197 Sample sizes were recorded in order to provide weights for the meta-analysis. Multiple measures of  
198 secondary variables were extracted for each paper reflecting the diverse nature of welfare, and  
199 because a large number of studies collected WTP information for a number of animal types and  
200 animal products. Summary characteristics for all studies included can be found in appendix B. Due to  
201 heterogeneity in the WTP data, effect sizes were calculated for each price premium recorded in order  
202 to provide a standardized value and suitable unit for subsequent data analysis. The price premium was  
203 recorded as opposed to the percentage price increase (a ratio approach). Although this does not enable  
204 a direct determination of the percentage price increase consumers are willing-to-pay as provided by a  
205 ratio approach, it does have the advantage of enabling a more direct comparison between effect sizes  
206 The effect size, a measure of the magnitude of association between 2 variables, was calculated as the  
207 mean WTP divided by the standard deviation (Ferguson, 2009), thus providing a unit of measurement  
208 in terms of standard deviations and enabling comparison across studies. When the standard deviation  
209 was not available, the standard error and 95% CI were used to calculate this, as *per* Lipsey & Wilson  
210 (2001). For studies where standard deviations, standard errors or 95% CI were not reported the  
211 variance of the data was imputed using the sample size and mean WTP. This was true for 17 of the 54  
212 studies (31.5%) and these studies will be referred to as ‘imputed values’ in the analysis. Studies where  
213 the effect size was calculated without imputation will be referred to as ‘complete case studies’.

214 The validity and the impact of bias of studies included was addressed by use of a critical appraisal  
215 document (appendix C) that examined a number of quality criteria that had the potential to impact on  
216 the results of the study; the WTP method used, the economic model used, the sample population and  
217 the sampling technique for each study. The document met the guidelines set by the Cochrane  
218 Handbook for Systematic Reviews of Interventions (Higgins & Green, 2011), Campbell Collaboration  
219 (2001), guidelines and recommendations provided by the Centre for Reviews and Dissemination  
220 (2009), and provided a document based in a non-healthcare context. No studies were excluded based  
221 on the critical appraisal, with the findings being taken into account during the evidence synthesis  
222 when assessing the overall strength of evidence as part the GRADE (Grading of Recommendations,  
223 Assessment, Development and Evaluation) analysis (Meader *et al*, 2013). The results of the critical  
224 appraisal can be found in Appendix D

### 225 **2.3. Meta-analysis**

226 Meta-analysis provides a formal and objective way of summarising and interpreting the full range of  
227 evidence, with the emphasis of including as much of the literature as possible (Stanley, 2001). A  
228 meta-analysis provides increased, power, precision and enables for the formal exploration of the  
229 consistency of the variables being examined (Higgins & Green, 2011), which is not provided by a  
230 standard literature review alone. This provides more precise and quantifiable evidence from which to  
231 develop policies. Meta-analysis was conducted using the open source ‘metafor’ package (Viechtbauer,  
232 2010) in ‘R’ (R Core Team, 2013). A positive effect size indicates a WTP a premium in relation to  
233 current prices for FAW, and results are reported using the estimate, 95% CI, and  $I^2$ , the latter of which  
234 examined the amount of heterogeneity remaining within the data. The adaptive GRADE framework  
235 (Meader *et al*, 2013) was used to assess the strength of evidence for each study, and was adapted to  
236 reflect a non-healthcare setting (c.f. Barański *et al*, 2014). GRADE is based on the following 5  
237 criteria:

- 238 1. **Risk of bias** – determined from the critical appraisal of studies.

- 239 2. **Imprecision** – the consideration of how big the effect size in relation to zero, as indicated by  
240 the lower 95% CI. Values of less than 0.25 are interpreted as being below a minimally  
241 important difference (low bias assessment) and values of greater than 0.25 being interpreted  
242 as an important difference (moderate bias assessment; Revicki *et al*, 2008; Copay *et al*, 2007).
- 243 3. **Indirectness** – due to the focus of the project this focused on whether the majority of studies  
244 included (greater than 50%) were conducted in Europe.
- 245 4. **Inconsistency** – the variation of effect sizes in relation to the line and spread of the data to  
246 establish whether studies were presenting the same picture, and established by visual  
247 inspection of forest plots.
- 248 5. **Publication bias** – funnel plots were used to establish publication bias, despite their known  
249 limitations, with Egger’s test also being used to establish funnel plot asymmetry. The results  
250 are reported as either undetected or strongly suspected.

251 A summary of these findings for the analysis can be found in the strength of evidence table in  
252 appendix E, with the corresponding weighted mean WTP values for the studies included in each  
253 separate analysis to aid with the interpretation of the results.

254 Random-effects, as opposed to fixed effects meta-analysis was used to calculate the effect size, due to  
255 the heterogeneity of studies included in the analysis (Hedges & Vevea, 1998). The random-effects  
256 model is a special case of the general linear model, and provides an unconditional inference about a  
257 larger set of studies, for which the sample of studies in the meta-analysis is only a random sample of  
258 the totality of evidence (Hedges & Vevea, 1998). Random effects meta-analysis helps to deal with the  
259 diversity of studies (Borrenstein *et al*, 2009), working on the assumption that the effects from the  
260 different studies included in the analysis are not identical but follows some distribution i.e. there is not  
261 one true effect size. The centre of this distribution describes the average effect, whereas the width of  
262 the distribution details the heterogeneity (Higgins & Green, 2011). Therefore although the model does  
263 not solve the problem of heterogeneity of included studies, it does enable analysis of a broad spectrum  
264 of studies, indicating the extent of heterogeneity within the data. All analyses were conducted using  
265 the restricted maximum likelihood estimator, which is better suited for smaller sample sizes  
266 (Viechtbauer, 2010). Effect sizes were calculated for both the complete case studies separately and  
267 overall for all included studies (complete case and imputed values). Due to minimal differences in  
268 values (appendix E), only the complete case values were used for further analysis. Funnel plots and  
269 forest plots were generated for each analysis, with Egger’s test also being conducted for each to test  
270 for funnel plot asymmetry, which provides an indication of publication bias. Publication bias is  
271 defined as “*the tendency toward preparation, submission and publication of research findings based*  
272 *on the nature and direction of the research results*” (Dickersin, 2006), which can lead to the failure to  
273 obtain a true representative sample of studies. As this can lead to the overestimation and formation of  
274 unreliable conclusions (Dwan *et al*, 2013) and is therefore important to test for.

275 Forest plots were used to indicate inconsistency in the data and highlight any outliers, which were  
276 deemed to be any paper with an effect size more than 10 times the pooled effect size for the complete  
277 case studies. Five papers were therefore removed from the analysis; Kehlbacher *et al*, (2012); Chang  
278 *et al*, (2010), Pouta *et al* (2010), Glass *et al* (2005) and Dickinson & Bailey (2002), with effect sizes  
279 between 18 and 387 times bigger than the pooled effect size. These studies used a variety of different  
280 WTP methods, welfare measures and payment vehicles and so shared no obvious similarities.

281 Sub-group random effects meta-analysis and meta-regression were then used to investigate  
282 heterogeneity within the data. Variables included in the sub-group analysis related to both the  
283 secondary objectives of the study and exploration of Akaike Information Criterion (AIC) amongst the  
284 data, used to minimize over-fitting by establishing the most parsimonious compromise between model  
285 fit and model complexity (Koricheva *et al*, 2013). Only findings in relation to animal type, region,  
286 socio-demographic characteristics and method are reported in the results section of the report, and  
287 additional sub-group analyses can be obtained by contacting the corresponding author. Significant  
288 differences were examined between subgroups by establishing whether there was overlap in  
289 confidence intervals. A GRADE assessment was also conducted for each subgroup. Finally, the effect  
290 size and the weight of effect size values were averaged across studies to provide aggregated values,  
291 enabling a cumulative meta-analysis to be conducted, structured by year of publication. A cumulative  
292 forest plot was generated to illustrate this.

293 As per the calculation of the overall effect size, multivariate analysis was conducted using random-  
294 effects meta-analysis using the restricted maximum likelihood estimator. A data driven approach was  
295 taken with variables selected based on AIC. In addition, due to problems with missing data, and  
296 subsequent problems of data not being present across all variable levels, certain variables were  
297 excluded from the analysis in order to minimise bias. For example, the socio-demographic  
298 characteristics of education and percentage vegetarian were not included, due to too few measures  
299 being present (only 74 and 59 respectively of the 227 complete case measures).

300 Variables included in the analysis were added sequentially based on the number of the measures they  
301 contained. For categorical variables (region and animal type) the subgroup with the lowest individual  
302 estimate was used as the comparator. In total 5 variables were used (region, animal type, age, gender  
303 and income) resulting in 6 models for comparison.

## 304 **3. Results**

### 305 **3.1. Descriptive statistics**

306 54 studies were included in the final review providing 335 measures of WTP, a summary of which  
307 can be found in appendix A. The majority (43) were stated preference studies, 10 were revealed  
308 preference studies, and one contained both stated and revealed preference measures. Data came from  
309 17 different countries, with over half of studies being conducted in Europe (56%), 37% being  
310 conducted in the USA, and the remaining studies being conducted in Canada, Australia and South  
311 Korea. Pigs and laying hens were the 2 most frequently researched animals (14 studies each), with a  
312 further 10 studies reporting WTP values for multiple animals, with all but one of these including pigs  
313 and either broiler chickens or layer hens. The majority of studies (30) reported WTP for a variety of  
314 different welfare measures, with the majority of individual measures relating to overall welfare, free  
315 range produce and outdoor access for animals. A range of products were also used, with the most  
316 common being eggs and pig meat (pork, ham, salami) reflecting the 2 most common animal types.

317 In relation to the main objective, only 4 studies specifically examined the public's WTP for FAW  
318 related to production diseases; Koistinen *et al* (2013) examined disease and health in pigs and beef  
319 cows, Grimsrud *et al* (2013) examined WTP for disease resistance in fish, McVittie *et al* (2006)  
320 examined tighter (lower) limits for broiler chickens failing health checks in relation to foot pad lesions

321 (and associated dermatitis) and Doherty & Campbell (2014) examined WTP for earlier disease  
322 detection in broiler chickens. A further 10 studies examined WTP for animal products produced  
323 without antibiotics, with the majority of these being conducted in North America (7), and the  
324 remainder in Canada, Korea and Denmark. Although other measures which may indirectly affect  
325 production diseases were presented, i.e. high stocking density may be associated with respiratory  
326 diseases, the relationship between these measures and disease were not described to participants, and  
327 it is assumed that study participants were therefore unaware of the link. As a result a WTP value in  
328 relation to production diseases cannot be inferred from these results.

329 Twelve studies did not report any socio-demographic characteristics, with gender, age and income  
330 being the 3 most commonly provided variables by 36, 33 and 32 studies respectively. The percentage  
331 of vegetarian participants was the least frequently provided piece of information (n=13) with a  
332 number of these have the percentage inferred from their study description i.e. all participants  
333 described as consumers of meat products. It is possible that vegetarians were excluded from some  
334 studies.

### 335 **3.2. Overall WTP**

336 The results of the GRADE assessment (appendix E) indicate a low strength of evidence for all  
337 assessments of general WTP, meaning results should be interpreted with caution. Forests plots and  $I^2$   
338 values highlighted a large amount of variation in the data, for complete case, overall (complete case  
339 and imputed) and aggregated values (appendix E). Visual inspection of the funnel plots and results of  
340 the Egger's tests confirm the existence of publication bias for the complete case analysis (effect size  
341 0.6302 (95% CI 0.5016, 0.7587), significance  $p < 0.0001$ ), overall data analysis (0.5709 (0.4599,  
342 0.6819),  $p < 0.0001$ ) and aggregated value analysis (0.6135 (0.4106, 0.8524),  $p < 0.0001$ ), implying that  
343 small studies with large effect size estimates appear to be missing from the search process. Both the  
344 complete case (effect size 0.6302, (95% CI 0.5016, 0.7587),  $I^2$  99.71) and the overall data (0.5709,  
345 (0.4599, 0.6819), 99.76) produced similar estimates, indicating a low price premium for improved  
346 FAW. The aggregated WTP estimate was also relatively small price premium (0.4690, (0.2075,  
347 0.7036), 99.72).

348 The results of the cumulative meta-analysis highlight that measures of WTP have become much more  
349 precise over time (figure 3), as indicated by the confidence intervals becoming much narrower, and  
350 effect sizes converging as more studies are added chronologically to the analysis. The evolution and  
351 convergence of WTP estimates since 2013 reflects the reduction in the number of methods used, with  
352 the more recent studies predominantly being choice experiments or auctions. As all 54 studies report  
353 WTP for a variety of different animal types and for a number of different welfare measures the  
354 converging WTP implies that the positive WTP may not be affected by these individual variables i.e.  
355 individuals are willing-to-pay for improved welfare regardless of the individual welfare aspect or  
356 animal type.

357

358 **3.3. Animal Type**

359 **Table 3: Summary of results from the animal species subgroup analysis**

Animal Type	I <sup>2</sup>	Estimate	Lower 95% CI	Upper 95% CI	Number Measures	Number Studies	Weighted Mean WTP (€)	Egger's Test Result
Pig	98.33	0.2843	0.1936	0.3750	90	13	0.54	2.4579, p=0.0140
Layer Hen	99.88	0.7823	0.3594	1.2053	47	10	0.09	1.1088, p=0.2675
Broiler Chicken	97.92	0.4024	0.2653	0.5394	26	8	1.24	4.1308, p<0.0001
Dairy Cow	99.53	1.1176	0.7776	1.4575	27	7	0.50	2.8086, p=0.005
Beef Cow	99.84	1.2022	0.7294	1.6750	24	7	5.00	0.7436, p=0.4571
Multiple	94.78	0.6547	0.4206	0.8888	6	2	11.20	-0.0606, p=0.9516
Fish	99.29	0.3712	-0.0073	0.7497	6	3	3.53	-0.4668, p=0.6406

360

361 A summary of findings for the different animal types can be found in table 3 bar calves as results were  
 362 only obtained from 1 study. Analysis of the subgroups indicated a WTP for all animal types, with the  
 363 lowest for pigs (0.2843, (0.1936, 0.3750), 98.33), and the largest for beef cows (1.1176, (0.7776,  
 364 1.4575), 99.53).

365 The lower 95% CI for pigs and fish were below the minimally important difference of 0.25 indicating  
 366 that the WTP for these animals is not significantly different from zero. Overlap of the confidence  
 367 intervals also indicates that the WTP estimates for laying hens, broiler chickens and pigs are not  
 368 significantly different from one another, although WTP estimates for both pigs and broilers are  
 369 significantly different to that from dairy cows, beef cows and multiple animal types.

370 I<sup>2</sup> values were above 97% for all species, indicating that variation was high within the data, even with  
 371 the animal type accounted for. Both visual inspection of funnel plots and Egger's test result indicate  
 372 funnel plot asymmetry and publication bias for 3 of the animal types. Other GRADE criteria also  
 373 demonstrate bias indicating a low overall strength of evidence.

374 **3.4. Region**

375 Table 4 summarise the results from the region subgroup analysis. Only 1 study was conducted in Asia  
 376 and so the results are not presented in the table or subsequent discussion. All regions reported a  
 377 premium as confirmed from the model estimates, with the lowest in Northern Europe (0.1060,  
 378 (0.0376, 0.1744), 97.84) and the largest in Southern Europe (1.4329, (0.9577, 1.9082), 99.73).

379

380 **Table 4: Summary of results from the region subgroup analysis**

Region	I <sup>2</sup>	Estimate	Lower 95% CI	Upper 95% CI	Number Measures	Number Studies	Weighted Mean WTP (€)	Egger's Test Results
UK	97.07	0.6479	0.5113	0.7845	27	7	1.72	1.9722, p=0.0486
Northern Europe	97.84	0.1060	0.0376	0.1744	76	8	0.41	-2.8201, p=0.0048
Western Europe	94.66	1.0741	0.7720	1.3763	7	3	4.28	2.0213, p=0.4320
North America	99.74	0.7515	0.5026	1.0004	90	16	0.15	1.0488, p=0.2943
Southern Europe	99.73	1.4329	0.9577	1.9082	23	6	0.68	2.3457, p=0.0190

381

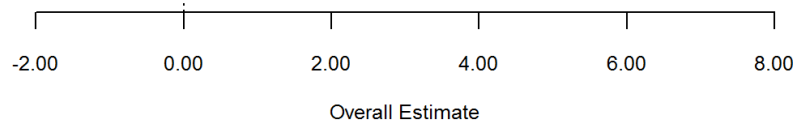
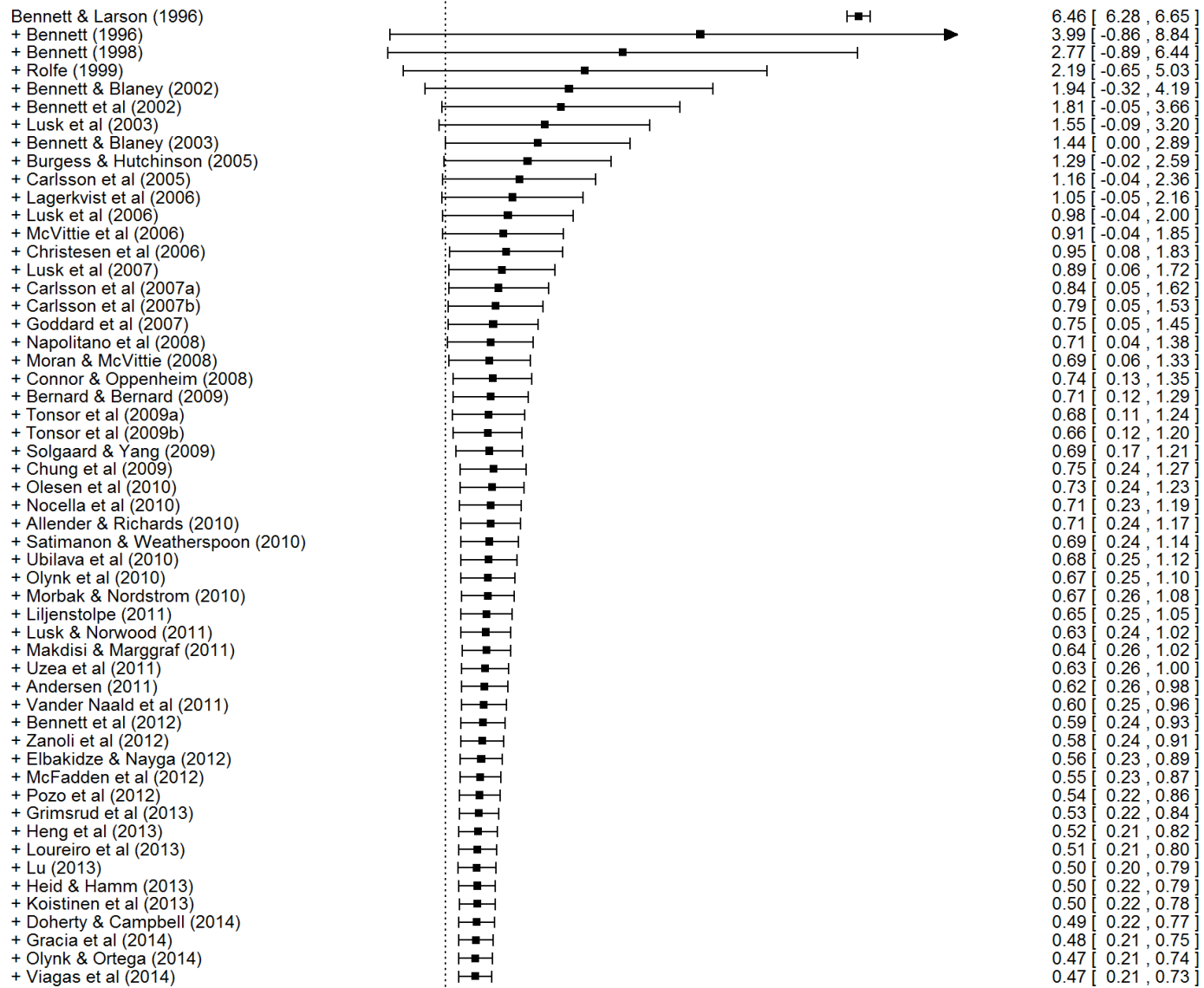
382 Data collected in Western and Southern Europe reported the 2 highest WTP estimates, although it  
 383 should be noted that there were only 3 studies in the Western European subgroup, and it was the only  
 384 region to have a high risk of bias (all others being moderate). Data from the UK indicated the second  
 385 lowest WTP estimate (0.649, (0.5113, 0.7845), 97.07), which was significantly different from both the  
 386 Southern (highest) and Northern European (lowest) WTP estimates.

387 The lower 95% CI for Northern Europe was lower than the minimally important difference and so the  
 388 WTP estimate cannot be said to be significantly different from zero, however it is significantly  
 389 different from all the other regions WTP estimates. This was the only region to have an overall  
 390 moderate strength of evidence, with all others being low, indicating that we can be more confident in  
 391 interpreting the results as indicating that Northern European consumers would pay a low price  
 392 premium for higher welfare animal products.

393 I<sup>2</sup> values for all regions were above 94%, again indicating that a large amount of variability existed  
 394 across studies. Funnel plots and Egger's test results indicate that publication bias is again strongly  
 395 suspected for most groups

Publication author and year

Effect size [95% CI]



396

397

398

399

400

401

402 **Figure 3: Cumulative meta-analysis of aggregate study values (n=54)**



403 *The cumulative meta-analysis of 54 studies demonstrates how WTP has evolved over time,*  
 404 *from much larger imprecise estimates, to much smaller, more precise figure of 0.47*  
 405 *standard deviations. This is partly due to methodological advances in cost-benefit analysis.*

### 406 **3.5. Socio-demographic characteristics**

407 Socio-demographic characteristics appear to account for a largest amount of variation within the data,  
 408 with  $I^2$  values as low as 67.75% for the percentage of vegetarians in the sample. However, these  
 409 results should be interpreted with caution due to the small sample sizes in the analysis and the lack of  
 410 reporting of selected variables. This was particularly true for the percentage of vegetarians, which was  
 411 only reported in 6 studies. In the majority of these the percentage was inferred due to inadequacies in  
 412 sample descriptions.

413 The results indicate that WTP decreases with age (-0.0377, (-0.0530, -0.0224), 87.24), increases with  
 414 income (0.0207, (0.0131, 0.0284), 81.19) and with increased education (0.0086, (-0.0002, 0.0175),  
 415 85.69), and is higher for females (0.0246, (0.0113, 0.0379), 98.32) and lower for vegetarians (-0.7024,  
 416 (-0.9599, -0.4394), 67.75). The WTP estimate for age is significantly different to all the other WTP  
 417 estimates, highlighting it as an important explanatory variable. Income and level of education are  
 418 significantly different from one another but are both significantly different to age and the percentage  
 419 of vegetarians in the sample. Both visual inspection of the funnel plots and the Egger test reveal that  
 420 publication bias is only detected for education. Imprecision in the results was also low as indicated by  
 421 visual inspection of the forest plots. Results from the GRADE assessment are therefore more  
 422 favourable than for previous subgroup analyses with only a low overall strength of evidence for  
 423 education, with all other variables being either moderate or high (percentage of vegetarians).

424 **Table 5: Summary of results from the socio-demographic subgroup analysis**

Socio-Demographic Characteristic	$I^2$	Estimate	Lower 95% CI	Upper 95% CI	Number Measures	Number Studies	Weighted Mean WTP (€)
Age	87.24	-0.0377	-0.0530	-0.0224	156	24	0.19
Income	81.19	0.0207	0.0131	0.0284	123	19	0.11
Gender	98.32	0.0086	-0.0002	0.0175	157	26	0.19
Vegetarian	67.75	-0.7024	-0.9654	-0.4394	59	6	0.25
Education	85.69	0.0246	0.0113	0.0379	74	15	0.17

### 425 **3.6. Population**

426 Results from the population subgroup analysis can be found in table 6. Both consumers and citizens  
 427 reported positive WTP estimates, with citizens reporting a significantly lower WTP estimate (0.5122,  
 428 (0.3810, 0.6435), 99.65), which was half that of consumers (1.1796, (0.8287, 1.5304), 99.79).  
 429 Variation in the data remains high with  $I^2$  values of over 99% for both citizens and consumers. Both  
 430 Egger's test results and visual inspection of the funnel plots indicate that publication bias was strongly  
 431 suspected, with inspection of the forest plots indicating strong inconsistency in effect size for  
 432 consumers but only moderate inconsistency in effect size for citizens.

433 **Table 6: Summary of results from the population subgroup analysis**

Population	I <sup>2</sup>	Estimate	Lower 95% CI	Upper 95% CI	Number Measures	Number Studies	Weighted Mean WTP (€)	Egger's Test Results
Citizens	99.65	0.5122	0.3810	0.6435	187	26	0.33	3.7755, p=0.0002
Consumers	99.79	1.1796	0.8287	1.5304	40	11	0.25	1.6097, p=0.1075

434 **3.7. Methodological aspects**

435 A summary of additional results from the sub-group analysis can be found in table 7. Revealed  
 436 preference studies reported a significantly higher WTP estimate than stated preference studies, the  
 437 opposite of what is suggested in the literature e.g. Bateman *et al* (2002). As expected, the use of a  
 438 cheap talk script (a short statement included in stated preference methods to lower hypothetical bias)  
 439 reduces consumers stated WTP confirming the importance of its inclusion in stated preference study  
 440 design. Heterogeneity was extremely high for most other subgroups (I<sup>2</sup> > 90%), indicating that these  
 441 subgroups do not explain a large amount of variation in the data, as is the case for animal type, region  
 442 and population type.

443 **Table 7: Summary of results from additional sub-groups**

Sub- group	I <sup>2</sup>	Estimate	Lower 95% CI	Upper 95% CI	Number Measures	Number Studies	Weighted Mean WTP (€)	Egger's Test Results
Revealed Preference	98.72	1.1935	0.9077	1.4793	31	8	€ 0.41	0.3713, p=0.7104
Stated Preference	99.73	0.5416	0.4035	0.6796	196	29	€ 0.25	2.7402, p=0.0061
Cheap talk script used	99.39	0.3595	0.2259	0.4932	83	9	€ 0.11	1.4715, p=0.1412
Cheap talk script not used	99.79	0.6758	0.4600	0.8916	113	20	€ 0.50	1.9413, p=0.0522
Cheap talk script not needed	98.72	1.1935	0.9077	1.4793	31	8	€ 0.41	0.3713, p=0.7104

444 **3.8. Multivariate Analysis**

445 A summary of the 6 models can be found in table 8. All the models still have high heterogeneity (I<sup>2</sup>  
 446 values of over 98%). Model 6 appears to have the best fit (R<sup>2</sup>=55.93%), and AIC score. As per the  
 447 sub-group analysis (section 3.5), WTP appears to increase with income, decreases with age and is  
 448 higher for females, although the results are only consistently significant for income.

449 Interaction effects are present (table 8), with certain regions and animal types changing from a positive  
 450 to a negative WTP with the addition of the socio-demographic characteristics. This is most likely to be  
 451 due to missing data within the socio-demographic variables, as indicated by the smaller number of  
 452 measures in the models that containing them (models 4, 5 and 6). The models indicate significant  
 453 differences between regions, specifically between Asia and North America, and between North

454 America and Southern Europe. The models also indicate a difference in WTP between animal type,  
455 with there being a significant difference between fish and dairy cows in model 6 and between beef  
456 cows and layer hens in model 5, and between calves and all other species in models 2 and 3. However,  
457 it should be noted that there was only one study in the subgroups for Asia and for calves, both with  
458 relatively large WTP values which is likely to account for the consistently significant results.

Table 8: Multivariate regression models

	Model 1: Region			Model 2: Animal Type			Model 3: Region + Animal Type		
	Co-efficient	95% Confidence Intervals	p value	Co-efficient	95% Confidence Intervals	p value	Co-efficient	95% Confidence Intervals	p value
<b>Intercept</b>	0.1049	(-0.0928, 0.3026)	0.297	0.2865	(0.1005, 0.4724)	0.0027 **	0.0162	(-0.1952, 0.2277)	0.8799
<b>Asia<sup>1</sup></b>	2.2772	(1.3939, 3.1604)	p<0.0001 ***				2.0601	(1.1447, 2.9754)	p<0.0001 ***
<b>North America</b>	0.6461	(0.3769, 0.9153)	p<0.0001 ***				0.4703	(0.1805, 0.7601)	0.0016
<b>Southern Europe</b>	1.3269	(0.9157, 1.7382)	p<0.0001 ***				1.1881	(0.7737, 1.6026)	p<0.0001 ***
<b>UK</b>	0.5478	(0.1611, 0.9344)	0.0057 **				0.6673	(0.1977, 1.1368)	0.0056
<b>Western Europe</b>	0.9776	(0.2931, 1.6621)	0.0053 **				0.9981	(0.2659, 1.7304)	0.0078 **
<b>Beef Cow</b>				0.9152	(0.5100, 1.3204)	p<0.0001 ***	0.3057	(-0.1400, 0.7515)	0.1778
<b>Broiler Chicken</b>				0.1221	(-0.2703, 0.5145)	0.5404	-0.1077	(-0.5878, 0.3725)	0.659
<b>Calves<sup>1</sup></b>				4.5459	(2.7711, 6.3248)	p<0.0001 ***	4.3479	(2.7091, 5.9867)	p<0.0001 ***
<b>Dairy Cow</b>				0.8311	(0.4434, 1.2187)	p<0.0001 ***	0.354	(0.1627, 0.9058)	0.005 **
<b>Fish</b>				0.0837	(-0.6589, 0.8263)	0.8244	0.354	(-0.3381, 1.0461)	0.3145
<b>Layer Hen</b>				0.4942	(0.1761, 0.8123)	0.0025 **	0.2782	(-0.0380, 0.5944)	0.0844
<b>Multiple</b>				0.3678	(-0.3758, 1.1113)	0.3308	-0.3133	(-1.0788, 0.4521)	0.4206
<b>Age</b>									
<b>Gender</b>									
<b>Income</b>									
<b>n</b>	227			227			227		
<b>AIC</b>	583.1902			573.2498			523.0837		
<b>I<sup>2</sup></b>	99.62			99.64			99.56		
<b>R<sup>2</sup></b>	21.57			18.09			31.3		

	<b>Model 4: Region + Animal Type + Age</b>			<b>Model 5: Region + Animal Type + Age + Gender</b>			<b>Model 6: Region + Animal Type + Age + Gender + Income</b>		
	<b>Co-efficient</b>	<b>95% Confidence Intervals</b>	<b>p value</b>	<b>Co-efficient</b>	<b>95% Confidence Intervals</b>	<b>p value</b>	<b>Co-efficient</b>	<b>95% Confidence Intervals</b>	<b>p value</b>
<b>Intercept</b>	0.8185	(-0.0925, 1.7294)	0.0779	0.3443	(-0.6885, 1.3772)	0.5108	0.0947	(-0.9242, 1.1137)	0.8541
<b>Asia<sup>1</sup></b>	1.9448	(1.2902, 2.5995)	p<0.0001 ***	1.7341	(1.0299, 2.4382)	p<0.0001 ***	1.8326	(1.1330, 2.5322)	p<0.0001 ***
<b>North America</b>	0.3963	(0.1678, 0.6249)	0.0008 ***	0.4258	(0.1974, 0.6542)	0.0003 ***	-0.0985	(-0.4092, 0.2121)	0.5309
<b>Southern Europe</b>	1.1824	(0.8729, 1.4919)	p<0.0001 ***	1.0511	(0.7135, 1.3887)	p<0.0001 ***	0.2402	(-0.2231, 0.7036)	0.3064
<b>UK</b>	0.275	(-0.4488, 0.9988)	0.4538	0.2229	(-0.4971, 0.9428)	0.5415			
<b>Western Europe</b>	0.9284	(0.2626, 1.5942)	0.0066 **	0.8626	(0.2001, 1.5251)	0.0111 *			
<b>Beef Cow</b>	0.4021	(0.0198, 0.7845)	0.0394 *	0.4731	(0.0879, 0.8583)	0.0165 *	-0.2595	(-0.7661, 0.2471)	0.3123
<b>Broiler Chicken</b>	-0.1369	(-0.8015, 0.5277)	0.6845	-0.127	(-0.7848, 0.5308)	0.7032	-0.4782	(-1.0650, 0.1087)	0.1092
<b>Calves<sup>1</sup></b>									
<b>Dairy Cow</b>	0.3798	(-0.0590, 0.8186)	0.0893	0.3208	(-0.1169, 0.7585)	0.14494	0.0996	(-0.2679, 0.4671)	0.5922
<b>Fish</b>	0.017	(-1.0776, 1.1116)	0.9755	0.0444	(-1.0411, 1.1298)	0.9357	-1.5229	(-2.7427, -0.3031)	0.0149 *
<b>Layer Hen</b>	-0.1807	(-0.4393, 0.0779)	0.1693	-0.2558	(-0.5602, 0.0487)	0.099	-0.0679	(-0.3953, 0.2594)	0.6817
<b>Multiple</b>									
<b>Age</b>	-0.0158	(-0.0344, 0.0028)	0.095	-0.0113	(-0.0306, 0.0080)	0.2485	-0.0214	(-0.0415, -0.0013)	0.0371 *
<b>Gender</b>				0.0047	(-0.0040, 0.0133)	0.2875	0.0073	(-0.0025, 0.0170)	0.144
<b>Income</b>							0.0257	(0.0114, 0.4000)	0.0006 ***
<b>n</b>	156			150			121		
<b>AIC</b>	254.8465			242.5592			133.3933		
<b>I<sup>2</sup></b>	98.92			98.93			98.3		
<b>R<sup>2</sup></b>	55.73			48.29			55.93		

461  
462 Confidence intervals are in parentheses. Significance level: \*\*\* 0.01, \*\*0.05, \*0.1. <sup>1</sup>Only one study in subgroup.

## 463 4. Discussion

### 464 4.1. Consumers' WTP for farm animal welfare

465 The results from the meta-analysis indicate that consumers are willing-to-pay a small price premium  
466 for FAW, equivalent to just over half a standard deviation, which is lower than the WTP identified by  
467 Lagerkvist & Hess (2011), who obtained premiums of between 50 and 150% in their analysis (Harvey  
468 & Hubbard, 2013). This is higher than some existing premiums in the market (Baltzer, 2004). This  
469 large disparity may in part be due to the 28 studies included since 2010, which are likely to have used  
470 more refined methods, therefore reducing the premiums. As any increases in FAW standards are likely  
471 to incur increases in production costs, consumers will need to be prepared to absorb some of these in  
472 order to allow the chain to compete effectively (Harvey & Hubbard, 2013), an accurate assessment of  
473 WTP is important. The small additional price consumers are WTP for improved welfare may result in  
474 consumers changing their behaviour and purchasing higher welfare products, assuming an appropriate  
475 and trustworthy identification and certification policy can be implemented to facilitate consumer  
476 recognition of such products.

477 Publication bias was strongly suspected. Lagerkvist & Hess (2011) found that peer reviewed studies  
478 had lower WTP estimates typical of publication bias, although they suggest that this indicates that peer  
479 review acts as a form of quality control, rather than traditional publication bias. As a consequence of  
480 this bias and the other GRADE assessment criteria such as the high heterogeneity, varied populations  
481 and low critical appraisal score, an overall low strength of evidence has been identified in the  
482 reviewed literature indicating that the results of the analysis should be treated with caution. As the  
483 goal of meta-analysis is to study patterns of answers, heterogeneity within the data is expected  
484 (Borenstein *et al*, 2009), especially given the range of assessment of WTP methods, animal types and  
485 welfare measures available for analysis. Although extensive variation can be problematic, it can be  
486 explored by examining moderator variables or by using regression analysis (Stanley, 2001) to provide  
487 a better understanding of underlying variation, as discussed in section 4.2. Further primary research is  
488 therefore needed to confirm the small price premium found, and given the heterogeneity within the  
489 data and significant differences between sub-groups, it would be more relevant to look at this in  
490 relation to specific animal products or animal types. In light of how current legislation is currently  
491 structured, investigating public WTP in this manner will be more relevant to policy makers. Given the  
492 strength of evidence assessment, this is likely to produce much more robust evidence upon which  
493 policy can be formulated.

494 The results of the cumulative meta-analysis indicate that WTP estimates have evolved over time from  
495 large imprecise estimates, to much smaller, precise values. This could reflect the developments in  
496 WTP methodologies over the past 20 years (Lagerkvist & Hess, 2011), such as advances in modelling  
497 and the introduction of cheap talk scripts, the latter of which is known to reduce hypothetical bias  
498 (Carlsson *et al*, 2005a). This also reflects the shift towards the use of 2 main types of study; auctions  
499 and choice experiments which have been predominantly used since 2012, and are typically viewed as  
500 the more preferable measures of WTP (Competition Commission, 2010; Bateman *et al*, 2002). The  
501 convergence in WTP estimates from the cumulative meta-analysis also indicate that a positive WTP  
502 exists regardless of the animal type or measure of welfare since the studies all reported different  
503 combinations of these. This corresponds with the high  $I^2$  values for the different animal types  
504 indicating that they do not explain variance data, especially when compared to variables such as socio-  
505 demographic characteristics (see section 4.2). The consistently positive WTP reinforces the negative

506 perceptions the public have of modern farming (Clark *et al*, 2016) and also demonstrates that  
507 consumers are concerned about all aspects of welfare therefore a holistic approach to animal wellbeing  
508 needs to be considered in policy, which takes into consideration all aspects of welfare such as housing,  
509 environment and transport.

510 A policy evidence gap was demonstrated in relation to consumer WTP for reduced production diseases  
511 in intensive farming systems, with only 4 of the 54 studies specifically mentioning these, reflecting  
512 findings from a similar review into public attitudes towards production diseases associated with FAW  
513 (Clark *et al*, 2016). Two of these studies addressed production diseases in relation to human health  
514 (i.e. food safety), whereas the other studies addressed production diseases from an animal perspective,  
515 with the study by Grimsrud *et al* (2013) examining WTP to reduce production diseases in farmed  
516 salmon and the study by McVittie *et al* (2006) examining WTP to minimise the incidence of foot pad  
517 lesions (and associated dermatitis) in broiler chickens, by reducing the threshold for the acceptable  
518 number of cases detected. Considering the current trend towards implementation of intensive  
519 production systems in Europe, and the role these have to play in future food security policies (e.g.  
520 Foresight, 2011), there is a need to address this research gap, as it is not yet clear whether the  
521 incidence of production diseases, or the interventions and processes used to treat these will be  
522 acceptable to the public, or whether they will represent a barrier to their increased use. Zingg &  
523 Siegrist (2012) found that although consumers seem accepting of vaccination programmes for animals  
524 for both epidemic and zoonotic diseases, they were not as willing to consume meat from animals that  
525 had been vaccinated, which could have serious market implications This also has implications for  
526 further development of policies designed to promote FAW though reduced incidence of animal  
527 diseases and associated improvements in animal health. In addition, it is important to ensure that the  
528 public's views are taken into account in future policy decisions concerning the management of these  
529 systems, including any future legislation surrounding animal health and welfare standards to ensure  
530 that factors associated with product diseases are effectively incorporated. A better understanding of  
531 consumer preferences in relation to aspects associates with production diseases and their interventions  
532 may also help to realise any value-added potential from alternative production systems, such as free-  
533 range or organic, which are perceived by consumers to be less risky although this may not necessarily  
534 be the case (Norwood & Lusk, 2013).

535 Ten studies addressed consumer WTP for antibiotic free meat and dairy products, with the majority  
536 (80%) of these based in the United States of America where antibiotic use as a growth promoter is still  
537 permitted (Hughes & Heritage, 2002), although as indicated by results of the WTP studies, is not  
538 favourably viewed. This has implications for how much longer they will continue to be used. The lack  
539 of research in Europe highlights a need to examine more relevant aspects related to intensive  
540 production, such as whether antibiotic use for disease treatment or disease prevention, is considered  
541 acceptable to the European public, especially as previous reviews into consumer attitudes have been  
542 identified as a concern (Clark *et al*, 2016) being viewed as unnatural, unnecessary and raising  
543 concerns in relation to product safety and human health in addition to FAW. At a time when  
544 agricultural antibiotic use for economic gain is coming under increased scrutiny due to antibiotic  
545 resistance (Mateus *et al*, 2016), and is being widely contested (Chang *et al*, 2015; Hughes & Heritage,  
546 2002), there is a need to consider the evaluation of alternatives including the public acceptability of  
547 these.

548 Despite individual studies considering production and welfare attributes associated with the  
549 occurrence of production diseases, they were not presented to participants in the studies included in  
550 the systematic review. Hence, future research needs to explicitly describe the link between the welfare  
551 attributes presented and the role they play in disease reduction, and animal health, in intensive  
552 production diseases, thereby providing further insights on how consumers and citizens value specific  
553 measures to reduce production diseases, as consumers do not appear to have the necessary knowledge  
554 to make the link themselves, with almost 1 in 3 European consumers (28%) reporting to know nothing  
555 at all about the conditions of farm animals in their respective countries (European Commission, 2007).

## 556 **4.2. Willingness-to-pay by subcategory**

### 557 **4.2.1. Animal type**

558 The public reported a positive WTP estimate for FAW in all animal types indicating that regardless of  
559 the animal, consumers are willing-to-pay a premium for improved FAW. Again the GRADE  
560 assessment indicated a low overall strength of evidence for all types, with the exception of layer hens.  
561 The lowest average WTP estimate obtained was for pigs and the highest for beef and dairy cows. The  
562 low WTP estimate for pig welfare is surprising due the large number of studies in this field and  
563 attention paid to ethical issues in modern pig production (Lassen *et al*, 2006). However, as the  
564 majority of studies were conducted in Sweden (71%), and with Northern European consumers having  
565 a statistically lower WTP estimate than other regions, this could have influenced the results. Pig meat  
566 may also be considered as a low-value meat suitable for everyday consumption and hence other  
567 attributes may be more important than welfare, such as price, origin or various intrinsic product  
568 characteristics (Grunert, 2006), rather than FAW.

569 WTP estimates for the welfare of pigs and broilers are significantly different from dairy cows, beef  
570 cows and multiple animal types, but not from laying hens. The higher WTP estimates for both dairy  
571 cows and layer hens could be because there are few or no substitutes for these animal products  
572 (Kjærnes *et al*, 2007), with dairy alternatives, such as soya, only becoming more readily available over  
573 the past few years, after the majority of the studies concerning dairy cows were conducted. Individuals  
574 are also familiar with paying price premiums for products such as free range eggs, and for organic  
575 dairy products, a production method which is often associated with higher welfare standards (Bernard  
576 & Bernard, 2009). In addition, beef is considered as a premium meat (Verbeke & Viaene, 1999) and  
577 so consumers may be more willing to pay a premium for this. Alternatively, chicken and pork can  
578 quite easily be substituted by other meats, resulting in consumers having a having a lower price  
579 premium for these products as they may buy whichever is cheapest, especially if they are price  
580 sensitive consumers.

581 Results of a systematic review towards public attitudes towards FAW also found that consumers are  
582 more concerned about chickens (both layers and broilers), although dairy cow welfare was viewed  
583 more favourably by the public (Clark *et al*, 2016). From a policy perspective, this implies that  
584 although the public appear to have priorities in relation to certain animals, having acceptable *di*  
585 *minimus* standards for all animals is important. The preferences exhibited in both this review and  
586 Clark *et al* (2016) also highlights the role of information provision and the media within as playing an  
587 important role within this, with the animal types generating the highest WTP estimates being those  
588 that have received greatest press attention in recent years. Therefore, ensuring that the public are



589 provided with, and have access to, accurate information should also be an important policy  
590 consideration (European Union, 2011).

#### 591 **4.2.2. Region**

592 WTP estimated were found to be significantly different across regions. The Northern European region  
593 had a significantly lower WTP compared to all the other regions. This compares to findings by  
594 Lagerkvist & Hess (2011), whose results indicated that the Swedish public did not have a significantly  
595 higher WTP. Sweden provided the most measures of WTP for Northern Europe in this analysis, and  
596 had the lowest estimate in subgroup analysis for individual countries, although not significantly  
597 different from the other Northern European countries included in the analysis.

598 Even within Europe, significant differences were detected between regions with Southern European  
599 countries likely to pay a higher premium than countries within Northern Europe and the UK. This may  
600 reflect that Northern Europe and the UK put more emphasis on regulations and less on market-based  
601 solutions than Southern Europe (Veissier *et al*, 2008; Kjærnes *et al*, 2007). These regions also have  
602 stricter minimum welfare requirements compared to the legislative minimum and so the rest of Europe  
603 (Spoolder *et al*, 2011; Bock and van Huik, 2007). Swedish and Norwegian consumers have also been  
604 found to be less worried about, and have more trust in, national animal production systems (Kjærnes *et*  
605 *al*, 2007), placing responsibility for ensuring welfare standards with the government rather than  
606 themselves (Veissier *et al*, 2008). As a result, individuals from these countries may not be as receptive  
607 to, or may not perceive that, further incremental improvements in welfare are required, which may  
608 explain the significant difference in WTP estimates compared to Southern Europe. This reflects  
609 findings from the 2006 Eurobarometer survey where only 68% Swedes and 67% Finns responded that  
610 further improvements to national animal production systems were needed, compared to 90% of  
611 Portuguese and 91% of Cypriots (European Commission, 2007). The differences in WTP between  
612 European regions implies that future European policy decisions in relation to animal welfare will need  
613 to respect the cultural diversity whilst ensuring that the common ethically acceptable *di minimus*  
614 standard of welfare enforced by EU legislation does not restrict consumer's freedom of choice by out-  
615 pricing them from the market by imposing too large an increase in welfare. Legislation also needs to  
616 ensure that European producers are protected from imports from outside the European Economic Area  
617 (McGlone, 2001) which may not have been produced to as high a welfare standard and so could be  
618 sold at a much lower price. This would also apply to European regions with higher than *di minimus*  
619 standards of welfare in their national legislations, where lower priced animal products from other  
620 European countries could be imported. If policy cannot protect producers from this trade issue, then  
621 products should be regulated so that they are labelled accordingly, so that consumers can make  
622 informed purchase decisions.

#### 623 **4.2.3. Socio-demographic variables**

624 Socio-demographic variables were found to account for the largest proportion of heterogeneity within  
625 the data compared to the other subgroups analysed, and all had a greater strength of evidence  
626 compared to other moderator variables, apart from education. However, due to problems with missing  
627 data, especially for the percentage of vegetarians in the study populations, the results should again be  
628 interpreted with caution. Age was significantly different to all the other socio-demographic variables,  
629 with an increase in age leading to a decrease in WTP, implying different preferences between older  
630 and younger individuals. This finding is in line with the previous meta-analysis by Lagerkvist & Hess

631 (2011) who report a similar decrease in WTP in relation to age. As the authors state, this finding  
632 warrants further research to understand the reasoning behind this, due to the aging population in  
633 Europe, although it is likely that as people get older their preferences for FAW will not change.  
634 Income and education were not significantly different to each other or the percentage of females in the  
635 sample, due to non-overlapping confidence intervals. It is not surprising that these variables are linked  
636 to a higher WTP, as more educated individuals are more likely to have higher disposable incomes  
637 which will provide an individual with a greater ability to reflect their attitudes in their purchasing  
638 behaviour.

639 The heterogeneity within the socio-demographic and socio-economic characteristics confirms that  
640 niche markets for products produced to higher FAW standards do exist (Wathes *et al*, 2013), and that  
641 segments of the market with different FAW preferences need to be catered for (de Jonge & van Trijp,  
642 2014). This indicates that a blanket policy that maintains acceptable *di minimus* welfare standards for  
643 the majority, can be supplemented with market based options, thus ensuring that not all are priced out  
644 of the market by high *di minimus* standards of welfare, whilst also maintaining freedom of choice. The  
645 lower heterogeneity in WTP estimates with socio-demographics implies that these traditional market  
646 segmentation variables are important for the identification of niche markets, especially as there is  
647 evidence to suggest that FAW improvements could pay for themselves if products are suitably  
648 presented in a way so that consumers can differentiate them from products produced to minimal  
649 welfare standards (Compassion in World Farming, 2014; Verbeke, 2009). This also supports findings  
650 that market based solutions are a key solution in improving FAW standards (Ingenbleek *et al*, 2012).  
651 Ensuring that consumers have enough information to make informed decisions (Mayfield *et al*, 2007)  
652 highlights the importance of labelling of higher welfare products as part of market based solutions,  
653 providing an authenticity cue that delivers additional assurance to consumers who are prepared to pay  
654 more for these products. The authenticity of food is important to consumers enabling them to believe  
655 products are what they claim to be (van Rijswijk *et al*, 2008), with consumers willing-to-pay more for  
656 authenticity labels (Cicia & Colantuoni, 2010), including on-farm traceability and animal welfare.  
657 Suitable independent regulation and monitoring should be in place to ensure that labelling scheme(s)  
658 are maintaining the claimed higher standard so as to obtain public trust.

659 As the results are confounded and affected by bias, further exploration of the population in relation to  
660 these characteristics, or additional attitudinal variables, may help to better understand the variability  
661 and rationale behind choices, and add further explanation to these findings so that a stronger evidence-  
662 base is created. Therefore, future market based research should seek to further explore the socio-  
663 demographic characteristics that accounted for the largest amount of heterogeneity. This will enable  
664 more definitive recommendations to be made benefitting both policy makers and producers. In  
665 addition, consistent reporting standards would ensure that key variables are recorded in future studies,  
666 in order to provide greater transparency and aid in subsequent comparison of results and synthesis.  
667 These include but are not limited to; socio-demographic characteristics, standard errors, standard  
668 deviations or 95% CI, and key methodological details such as year of data collection.

#### 669 **4.2.4. Population**

670 The literature acknowledges the difference between citizens and consumers in relation to animal  
671 welfare (Grunert, 2006; Harper & Henson, 2001), recognising that both are likely to express positive  
672 attitudes towards improving FAW standards. However, consumers are able to express these attitudes  
673 through purchasing products whereas citizens, including vegetarians and vegans, may not purchase

674 (some) animal products regardless of the welfare standards, yet still have an interest in the issues  
675 surrounding the implementation of and production of these products (Vanhonacker *et al*, 2007). The  
676 results of the meta-analysis confirm that consumers have a WTP estimate more than double that of  
677 citizens, implying that consumers have much stronger, positive attitudes towards higher welfare  
678 products than citizens, thereby exhibiting a much greater WTP. Consumers are also likely to place  
679 more value on the products involved (obtaining a private benefit from a perceived higher quality or  
680 healthier product), and so are willing-to-pay more to secure this (Bennett *et al*, 2012; European  
681 Commission 2005). It should be noted that only 40% of the options used in non-consumer experiments  
682 were suitable for vegetarians (i.e. tax increases, eggs or dairy products), therefore the difference in  
683 WTP between citizens and consumers may be exaggerated.

684 Differences in WTP for different population segments further supports a portfolio policy response for  
685 improving welfare s, depending on the context and the target audience (Ingenbleek *et al*, 2012). A  
686 higher consumer WTP again supports the adoption of market based solutions for improving FAW.  
687 Companies are increasingly looking to use FAW standards as a point of differentiation as a driver for  
688 company codes of practice (Broom, 2010) and to protect brand capital (Blandford *et al*, 2002).  
689 Competitive pressures also thought to encourage the adoption of best practice (Harvey & Hubbard,  
690 2013), as demonstrated by number of retailers have already adopted welfare friendly strategies as part  
691 of their differentiation strategies, including to entire product categories (White, 2016), a stance which  
692 can appeal to non-consumers too. As aforementioned in section 4.2.3, suitable regulation and  
693 monitoring of private sector schemes is essential, and as they continue to grow in popularity, it may be  
694 the case that a more formalised legislation is required to ensure the transparency, consistency and  
695 authenticity of these. The ready identification of these consumers (perhaps by the variables discussed  
696 in 4.2.3) along with improved access the higher welfare products, either through transparent labelling,  
697 education programs or private assurance schemes (Kehlbacher *et al*, 2012; Ingenbleek *et al*, 2012) are  
698 an integral part of this for ensuring success. From a producer perspective, the identification of target  
699 markets and indication of whether certain changes to production process will be financially viable is  
700 important (Compassion in World Farming, 2014), with transparent regulation of these independent  
701 standards being important from a consumer perspective.

702 Although citizens were WTP less than consumers the positive WTP highlights that the wider public  
703 (i.e. non-users) still place a value on higher welfare production systems. It is important to ensure that  
704 the growing proportion of those who do not consumer products still have their views taken into  
705 consideration in policy formulation., In addition, as the majority of those who consume animal  
706 products may adopt dissonance strategies (Clark *et al*, 2016) therefore market based solutions cannot  
707 be the only route forward. Policy therefore needs to take into account individuals who still take value  
708 from animals being in higher welfare systems yet may not be able to reveal their preferences through  
709 market choices, reflecting the social, as opposed to just private benefits, accrued from improvements  
710 to animal welfare (Bennett *et al*, 2012). These social benefits support government and farmer based  
711 policy solutions, such as legislation and subsidies which would act to guarantee minimum standards or  
712 incentivise higher ones respectively. This is supported by the findings of the review with WTP  
713 estimates decreasing as the proportion of vegetarians in the sample increased. Although it would be  
714 expected that vegetarians could still obtain utility from higher FAW, especially if this was a  
715 motivation for their choice, it could be explained by all the products in the analysis being meat (pork,  
716 ham and beef) and so would not be directly consumed by them. Therefore, a multi-faceted policy

717 approach is necessary to support both citizen and consumer preferences and to provide a feasibly  
718 acceptable *di minimus* standards of welfare supplemented with more stringent independent standards.

#### 719 **4.2.5. Methodological aspects**

720 Revealed preference studies provided higher WTP estimates than stated preference studies, which is  
721 the opposite of what is currently suggested in the literature suggests (Bateman *et al*, 2002). Half of the  
722 revealed preference studies were auctions, which also contributed more measures to the analysis.  
723 These typically were associated with much higher WTP estimates than either the hedonic analysis or  
724 real choice experiments which may explain this difference. Half of these studies were also conducted  
725 in Southern European countries, (where the highest WTP estimates were reported), which may also  
726 have contributed towards the higher WTP estimates for revealed preference studies. The addition of a  
727 cheap talk script, used to reduce hypothetical bias in stated preference methods, to a study decreased  
728 the WTP highlighting it as an important and recommended factor in WTP study design (Competition  
729 Commission, 2010; Carlsson *et al*, 2005a; 2005b). However, as cheap talk scripts were included only  
730 10 of the 27 stated preference studies published since its first occurrence in the FAW literature in  
731 2005, it appears that this recommendation is still not common practice despite its apparent benefits.

#### 732 **4.2.6. Multivariate analysis**

733 The results from the multivariate models support those from the subgroup analysis, confirming the  
734 importance of socio-demographic characteristics and that WTP values appear to differ slightly  
735 (although not largely significantly) between animal species and regions. The results for the socio-  
736 demographic characteristics confirm that WTP decreases with age, increases with income and is  
737 higher for females, with both age and income being significant. This again highlights the potential  
738 market based solutions have in improving animal welfare standards (Ingenbleek *et al*, 2012), and  
739 confirms these as important marketing segmentation variables in the targeting of niche markets. As per  
740 the subgroup analysis, both animal type and regional differences are apparent in the model, although  
741 significant differences were not consistent across models. Again this reinforces the conclusions from  
742 the respective subgroup analyses in that legislation needs to take into account regional and cultural  
743 differences and should also account for concerns towards specific farm animals. The negative WTP  
744 estimates for animal type appear to indicate that individuals wish to be compensated for higher welfare  
745 products, although they could be due to interaction effects in the data. This negative WTP is unlikely  
746 to be in monetary terms but in terms of the additional credence attributes often associated with higher  
747 FAW, such as quality, health and taste (European Commission, 2007; Harper & Henson, 2001).

748 As per the subgroup analysis, there were problems with missing data. Not all animal types were  
749 surveyed in all regions, and some regions had very few studies which reported socio-demographic  
750 characteristics (mainly those from the UK and Western Europe). This is a potential source of the  
751 interaction effects present across animal types and regions. However, despite this limitation it is likely  
752 that the regional and species differences as well as the trends observed for the socio-demographic  
753 variables are likely to be apparent, due to the consistency with results observed in the subgroup  
754 analysis.

#### 755 **4.3. Limitations**

756 The heterogeneity of the data, in relation to a number of the study variables, makes it difficult to draw  
757 firm conclusions from the findings especially in relation to overall WTP values. Missing data  
758 introduced bias into the results and subsequently, due to the small sample sizes and heterogeneity for  
759 certain variables, the sub-group analysis should be interpreted cautiously. It is also important to note  
760 that the multivariate analysis was exploratory, due to missing data problems and confounding between  
761 variables, as indicated by AIC and the interaction effects apparent in the analysis. Multivariate  
762 analysis also assumed linearity of the variables, which may not be the case. It is also possible the  
763 results may be confounded by ecological bias (Stewart *et al*, 2012). However, despite the  
764 heterogeneity in the data, and small sample sizes in some sub-group analyses, meta-analysis was still a  
765 useful method for formal exploration of the data, providing a more transparent, formalised and robust  
766 assessment of the consistency of the effect (Higgins & Green, 2011; Pettigrew & Roberts, 2008)  
767 compared to a simple *ad hoc* summary of the literature (Borenstein *et al*, 2009). This transparent  
768 framework can also be updated as more evidence becomes available, and has had a transformative  
769 effect in other disciplines (Koricheva *et al*, 2013; Higgin & Green, 2011). In addition, as only a small  
770 amount of heterogeneity was explained by study characteristics (table 7), it is likely that variation in  
771 WTP estimates are more likely due to other factors, such as socio-demographic characteristics and  
772 other potential influential drivers not measured or reported in primary studies. This large variability,  
773 combined with the public preferring a holistic approach to welfare (Spooner *et al*, 2014), question the  
774 usefulness of economic measures such as WTP on highly specific welfare aspects, in the first instance,  
775 when there is very little replication of methodologies to enable direct comparison.

#### 776 **4.4. Policy implications summary**

- 777 • An evidence gap was highlighted in relation to the public's WTP for improved FAW through  
778 improved health from a reduction in production diseases. Policies and industry strategies  
779 currently focus on increased implementation of intensive production systems in relation to  
780 food security, which may not be acceptable to (some) consumers and citizens. It is therefore  
781 important that research is conducted in this area to explicitly examine public acceptability of  
782 the systems and interventions proposed, as some of the latter may be more controversial than  
783 others, especially in relation to antibiotic use.
- 784 • Although there is a group of highly concerned consumers, the majority of those who consume  
785 animal products are unlikely to consider FAW at the point of purchase, with there also being a  
786 growing proportion of the population who do not consume animal products altogether. Market  
787 based solutions can therefore only be part of the strategy for improving FAW, with legislation  
788 also required to reflect the concerns of non-purchasers. Consequently, a multifaceted response  
789 is needed to provide a feasibly acceptable *di minimus* standards of welfare supplemented with  
790 more stringent independent standards.
- 791 • There is a need to ensure that FAW standards and regulations are continually meeting public  
792 preferences, and as these are likely to continue to change (Mann, 2005) and be of great public  
793 concern (Mason, 2016), more formalised links between legislation and public perceptions  
794 should be developed to foster more acceptable *di minimus* standards. This will enable public  
795 views to be taken into account in future policy decisions, especially those concerning the  
796 management and handling of animals, on which the majority of the studies included in the  
797 review were based.

- 798 • A portfolio policy response/ industry response with higher again standards of welfare should  
799 be considered, providing a means for consumers with the opportunity to purchase products  
800 produced to higher than average welfare standards.
- 801 • Given the small sample sizes and heterogeneity within the data, it would seem pertinent to  
802 repeat analyses to test the replicability of results and an indication of how stable public  
803 preferences are and also further explore animal types and regions where there is little research.  
804 Given the problems with missing data in analysis, future research should also focus on being  
805 as transparent and as high a standard as possible to ensure that policy and can be based upon  
806 as sound an evidence base as possible.
- 807 • Due to the low strength of evidence identified in the WTP literature, and as economic  
808 valuation methodology (and WTP in particular) is a widely used in a number of fields  
809 including policy, more systematic and transparent review processes should be adopted. This  
810 includes the more formalised assessment of publication bias, and the robustness and the rigour  
811 of the methods used.

## 812 **5. Conclusion**

813 This study sought to establish public WTP for FAW with a specific focus on interventions to reduce  
814 production diseases in intensive production systems. The results indicated that consumers report a  
815 small premium for higher FAW products, although this should be treated cautiously due to the high  
816 heterogeneity and low strength of evidence presented. Although there are attributes which relevant for  
817 reducing production diseases, a research gap was highlighted in relation to the primary objective of the  
818 study with only four of the 54 studies specifically examining production diseases.

819 Further research is therefore required to explore this research gap and to better understand the  
820 heterogeneity in WTP in relation to socio-demographic characteristics, which were found to account  
821 for the greatest proportion of heterogeneity within the data, and could be used to segment consumers  
822 to better facilitate market based solutions for improving FAW.

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## 1086 7. Appendices

### 1087 Appendix A: Studies included in the systematic review

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**Appendix B: Summary information of included studies**

Paper	Year data collection	Number of measures	Country	Sample size	Population	Method	Animal species
Bennett <i>et al</i> (2012)	2012	3	UK	300	Citizens	Choice Experiment	Beef cows, pigs, broiler chickens
Bennett & Blaney (2002)	2002	1	UK	164	Students	Contingent Valuation	Pig
Bennett <i>et al</i> (2002)	1998	2	UK	119	Students	Contingent Valuation	Animals in general and layer hens
Bennett (1998)	1996	1	UK	591	Citizens	Contingent Valuation	Layer hens
Bennett (1996b)	1996	2	USA	140	Students	Contingent Valuation	Layer hens and calves
Napolitano <i>et al</i> (2008)	2008	6	Italy	104	Consumers	Auction	Dairy cows
Moran & McVittie (2008)	2005	1	England	318	Citizens	Contingent Valuation	Broiler chickens
Liljenstolpe (2011)	2002	36	Sweden	1250	Citizens	Choice Experiment	Pig

Burgess & Hutchinson (2005)	2003	5	Northern Ireland	192	Citizens	Contingent Valuation	Layer hens, dairy cows, broiler chickens, pigs
Zanoli <i>et al</i> (2012)	2008	4	Italy	145	Consumers	Choice Experiment	Beef cows
Bernard & Bernard (2009)	2005	2	USA	154	Citizens	Auction	Dairy cows
Doherty & Campbell (2014)	2010	6	UK and Republic of Ireland	1173, 400	Citizens	Choice Experiment	Broiler chickens
Elbakidze & Nayga (2012)	2009	8	USA	215	Citizens	Auction	Dairy cows
Lopez-Galan <i>et al</i> (2013)	2013	1	Spain	803	Consumers	Choice Experiment	Layer hens
Heid & Hamm (2013)	2009	4	Germany	89	Consumers	Auction	Pig
Grimsrud <i>et al</i> (2013)	2010	4	Norway	737	Citizens	Choice Experiment	Salmon
Rolfe (1999)	1997	2	Australia	100, 224	Citizens	Contingent Valuation	Layer hens
Heng <i>et al</i> (2013)	2012	4	USA	449	Consumers	Choice Experiment	Layer hens

Uzea <i>et al</i> (2011)	2008	20	Canada	541	Consumers	Choice Experiment	Pigs
Loureiro <i>et al</i> (2013)	2010	6	Spain	92, 62	Consumers	Auction	Pigs
Olesen <i>et al</i> (2010)	2004	1	Norway	84	Consumers	Real choice experiment	Salmon
Lusk & Norwood (2011)	2011	6	USA	126, 134	Citizens	Auction	Layer hens and pigs
Nocella <i>et al</i> (2010)	2007	5	France, Germany, Italy, Spain, UK	133, 155, 792, 160, 182	Citizens	Contingent Valuation	General
Lusk <i>et al</i> (2007)	2004	2	USA	594	Citizens	Choice Experiment	Pigs
Makdisi & Marggraf (2011)	2007	1	Germany	300	Citizens	Contingent valuation	Broiler chickens
McFadden <i>et al</i> (2012)	2012	12	USA	29	Citizens	Contingent Valuation and Conjoint Analysis	Layer hens
Lusk <i>et al</i> (2003)	2000	8	France, Germany, UK, USA	93, 45, 109, 566	Citizens	Choice Experiment	Beef cows
Lagerkvist <i>et al</i> (2006)	2005	8	Sweden	285	Consumers	Choice	Pigs

						Experiment	
Koistinen <i>et al</i> (2013)	2010	28	Finland	1623	Consumers	Choice Experiment	Beef cows
Lusk <i>et al</i> (2006)	2004	2	USA	291, 432	Citizens	Conjoint Analysis and Contingent Valuation	Pigs
Connor & Oppenheim (2008)	2007	2	USA	253	Consumers	Contingent Valuation	Beef cows and dairy cows
Bennett & Blaney (2003)	1996	1	UK	446	Citizens	Contingent Valuation	Layer hens
Bennett & Larson (1996)	1996	3	USA	137	Students	Contingent Valuation	Layer hens and calves
Carlsson <i>et al</i> (2007a)	2002	2	Sweden	450	Citizens	Choice Experiment	Layer hens
Allender & Richards (2010)	2008	1	USA (California)	993	Consumers	Hedonic Analysis	Layer hens
Carlsson <i>et al</i> (2005a)	2003	30	Sweden	710	Citizens	Choice Experiment	Broiler chickens, beef cows, pigs, dairy cows, layer hens
Carlsson <i>et al</i> (2007B)	2004	12	Sweden	395, 362	Consumers	Choice Experiment	Broiler chickens and beef cows

Goddard <i>et al</i> (2007)	2005	3	Canada (Alberta and Ontario)	292, 248	Citizens	Hedonic Analysis	Layer Hen
Tonsor <i>et al</i> (2009a)	2007	10	USA	205	Citizens	Choice Experiment	Pigs
Pozo <i>et al</i> (2012)	2012	10	USA	1312	Citizens	Choice Experiment	Pigs
Tonsor <i>et al</i> (2009b)	2008	1	USA	768	Citizens	Contingent Valuation	Pigs
Solgaard & Yang (2009)	2009	1	Denmark	1000	Citizens	Contingent Valuation	Fish
Ubilava <i>et al</i> (2010)	2004	2	USA	197	Citizens	Choice Experiment	Pigs
Olynk & Ortega (2014)	2011	12	USA	500, 399	Citizens	Choice Experiment	Dairy cows, pigs
Andersen (2011)	2000	2	Denmark	844	Consumers	Choice model	Layer hens
McVittie <i>et al</i> (2006)	2005	9	England	336, 318	Citizens	Choice Experiment and Contingent Valuation	Broiler chickens
Lu (2013)	2013	14	Canada	518	Citizens	Choice	Layer hens

						Experiment	
Viagas <i>et al</i> (2014)	2013	1	Portugal	613	Consumers	Choice Experiment	Beef cows
Vander Naald <i>et al</i> (2011)	2006	2	USA	240	Citizens	Conjoint Analysis	Broiler chickens
Satimanon & Weatherspoon (2010)	2007	1	USA	207	Consumers	Hedonic pricing	Layer hens
Olynk <i>et al</i> (2010a)	2008	32	USA	669	Citizens	Choice Experiment	Pigs
Morbak <i>et al</i> (2010)	2006	2	Denmark	1322	Consumers	Choice Experiment	Pigs
Chung <i>et al</i> (2009)	2007	4	Korea	1000	Consumers	Choice Experiment	Beef cows
Christensen <i>et al</i> (2006)	2005	2	Denmark	2301	Consumers	Choice Experiment	Broiler chickens

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## Appendix C: Critical appraisal tool

Considerations				
Type of Study		Standard	Criteria	Risk of Bias*
<b>Revealed Preference Measures</b>	Hedonic	Normal	Linear models, criteria based on previous research	Moderate
		Good	Panel data or scanner data, criteria based on previous research	Low
	Real Choice Experiment	Normal	If two or more of the below are not mentioned	Moderate
		Good	Reminded budget constraints, provided with information,	Low
Auctions	Normal	Reminded budget constraints, practice in the method beforehand	Moderate	
	Good	BDM Lottery/ Vickrey auctions, participants trained/ practiced in the method, made clear that participants have a commitment to buy, reminded budget constraints	Low	
<b>Stated Preference Measures</b>	Conjoint Analysis	Normal	If two or more of the below are not mentioned	Moderate
		Good	Opt out provided, reminded budget constraints, prior qualitative research, cheap talk script used	Low
	Choice Experiment	Normal	Cheap talk script not used, non-orthogonal design, prior qualitative research	Moderate
		Good	Use of a cheap talk script, orthogonal/ main effects design, cyclical or full/ fractional factorial design maintaining orthogonality, D-optimal design, prior qualitative research	Low
	Contingent Valuation Methods	Normal	Open-ended choice, if more than two of the below are not mentioned	Moderate
		Good	Single bounded, one and one half bounded, double bounded dichotomous choice, reminded budget constraints, realistic choices, cheap talk script, payment card or payment scale	Low
Modelling Used				
<b>Revealed Preference Measures</b>	Hedonic	Normal	Linear models	Moderate
		Good	Semi log model, log-log models, non-linear models	Low
	Real Choice Experiment	Normal	Multinomial and mixed multinomial logit models, probit model, conditional logit model, descriptive statistics	Moderate
		Good	Random parameter logit (mixed logit model), latent class model, nested logit model, random co-efficient logit model	Low
	Auctions	Normal	Descriptive or multivariate statistics, ordinary least squares	Moderate
		Good	Tobit model, random effects tobit model, log-linear model	Low
<b>Stated Preference</b>	Conjoint	Normal	Probit model, ordinary least squares, non-linear least squares	Moderate

<b>Measures</b>	Analysis	Good	Logit model	Low
	Choice Experiment	Normal	Multinomial logit model, conditional logit model	Moderate
		Good	Mixed logit model (random parameter logit, WTP-Space model, random co-efficient logit model, mixed multinomial logit model), latent class model, multinomial probit model	Low
	Contingent Valuation Methods	Poor	Descriptive statistics	High
		Normal	Binary logit model (binomial logit model), probit model	Moderate
		Good	Ordered probit model, tobit model	Low
<b>Directness</b>				
<b>Population</b>	General citizen or consumer	Good	Looking at consumers of specified product(s) or wider citizens in general	Low
	Specific population	Normal	Appropriateness of the sample for the product in question (relevance and representativeness)	Moderate
<b>Representativeness</b>	Quota or stratified sample	Good	The sample used is representative of the chosen population in most aspects, national sales data, clustered sampling technique	Low
		Normal	The sample used is representative of the chosen population in only one aspect, regional sales data	Moderate
	Simple random or systematic sample	Normal	A randomly sample of the chosen population, convenience sample, supermarket sample	Moderate

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1241 \*Where no information is provided, or it is unclear, the risk of bias will be rated as high for that given aspect

1242 NB) Novel or modified methods will be assessed based on the criteria of similar traditional methods e.g. Calibrated Auction Conjoint Method and Matching  
1243 Method

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**Appendix D: Critical appraisal of included studies**

Study	Causation						Directness			Overall Risk of Bias
	Type	Rating	Risk of Bias	Model	Rating	Risk of Bias	Population	Representative	Risk of Bias	
Bennett <i>et al</i> (2012)	Choice Experiment	Normal	Moderate	Mixed Logit Model	Good	Low	Citizens	Stratified, quota sample contacted randomly	Low	Low
Bennett & Blaney (2002)	Contingent valuation	Normal	Moderate	Binary Logit Model	Normal	Low	Students	Random and convenience	Moderate	Moderate
Bennett <i>et al</i> (2002)	Contingent valuation	Normal	Moderate	Binary Logit Model	Normal	Moderate	Students	Unclear how chosen	Moderate	Moderate
Bennett (1998)	Contingent valuation	Normal	Moderate	Descriptive Statistics	Poor	High	Citizens	Random stratified sample by socio-economic characteristics	Low	High
Bennett (1996)	Contingent valuation	Normal	Moderate	Probit Model	Normal	Moderate	Students	Described as <i>a sample</i>	Moderate	Moderate
Napolitano <i>et al</i> (2008)	Auction	Good	Low	Multivariate Statistics	Normal	Moderate	Consumers	Screening criteria, mostly students	Moderate	Moderate
Moran & McVittie (2008)	Contingent valuation	Normal	Moderate	Binary Logit Model	Normal	Moderate	Citizens	Stratified for age and gender, no sampling method	Moderate	Moderate

Liljenstolpe (2011)	Choice Experiment	Normal	Moderate	Latent Class model	Good	Low	Citizens	Unclear due reporting, sample obtained from database	Moderate	Moderate
Burgess & Hutchinson (2005)	Contingent valuation	Normal	Moderate	Binary Logit Model	Normal	Moderate	Citizens	random sample using electoral register	Low	Moderate
Zanoli <i>et al</i> (2012)	Choice Experiment	Good	Low	Multinomial Logit Model, Multiple Variations of Random Parameter Logit Model (inc. WTP-Space Model)	Good	Low	Consumers	Quota sample of beef consumers, and occasional organic purchasers	Moderate	Low
Bernard & Bernard (2009)	Auction	Normal	Moderate	Descriptive Statistics	Normal	Moderate	Citizens	Random sample using ads, local organizations	Moderate	Moderate
Doherty & Campbell (2014)	Choice Experiment	Normal	Moderate	Latent Class Model	Good	Low	Citizens	Representative sample collected by research agency	Low	Low
Elbakidze & Nayga (2012)	Real Choice Experiment	Normal	Moderate	Descriptive Statistics	Normal	Moderate	Citizens	Mostly students, no real information on	Moderate	Moderate

								sampling procedure		
Elbakidze & Nayga (2012)	Auction	Normal	Moderate	Descriptive Statistics	Normal	Moderate	Citizens	Mostly students, no real information on sampling procedure	Moderate	Moderate
Gracia <i>et al</i> (2014)	Choice Experiment	Good	Low	Latent Class model	Good	Low	Consumers	Stratified, random sample of consumers	Low	Low
Heid & Hamm (2013)	Auction	Normal	Moderate	Descriptive statistics	Poor	High	Consumers	Quota sample, recruitment strategy unclear	Moderate	High
Grimsrud <i>et al</i> (2013)	Choice Experiment	Normal	Moderate	Random Parameter Logit Model	Good	Low	Citizens	Stratified and random sampling to be representative	Low	Low
Rolfe (1999)	Contingent valuation	Normal	Moderate	Binomial Logit Model	Normal	Moderate	Citizens	A random sample of households	Moderate	Moderate
Heng <i>et al</i> (2013)	Choice Experiment	Normal	Moderate	Random Parameter Logit Model	Good	Low	Consumers	Nationally representative, stratified sample. Use screening questionnaire	Low	Low
Uzea <i>et al</i> (2011)	Choice Experiment	Normal	Moderate	Latent Class Model	Good	Low	Consumers	Representative sample collected by	Low	Low

								research agency		
Loureiro <i>et al</i> (2013)	Auction	Normal	Moderate	Random Effects Tobit Model	Good	Low	Consumers	Random stratified procedure by age	Moderate	Moderate
Olesen <i>et al</i> (2010)	Real Choice Experiment	Good	Low	Random Parameter Logit Model	Good	Low	Consumers	Participants recruited locally is only information	High	Moderate
Lusk & Norwood (2011)	Auction	Good	Low	Descriptive Statistics	Normal	Moderate	Citizens	Randomly recruited by market research companies	Moderate	Moderate
Nocella <i>et al</i> (2010)	Contingent valuation	Good	Low	Binary Logit Model	Normal	Moderate	Citizens	Randomly recruited online	High	High
Lusk <i>et al</i> (2007)	Choice Experiment	Normal	Moderate	Random Parameter Logit Model	Good	Low	Citizens	Random sample matched to be representative	Low	Low
Makdisi & Marggraf (2011)	Contingent valuation	Normal	Moderate	Binomial Logit Model	Normal	Moderate	Citizens	Unclear	High	High
McFadden <i>et al</i> (2012)	Contingent valuation	Normal	Moderate	Descriptive Statistics	Poor	High	Citizens	A quota sample	Moderate	High
McFadden <i>et al</i> (2012)	Conjoint analysis	Unclear	High	Non-Linear Least Squares	Normal	Moderate	Citizens	A quota sample	Moderate	High

Lusk <i>et al</i> (2003)	Choice Experiment	Normal	Moderate	Random Parameter Logit Model	Good	Low	Citizens	Representative sample accessed through private companies	Low	Low
Lagerkvist <i>et al</i> (2006)	Choice Experiment	Good	Low	Binary Logit Model	Normal	Moderate	Consumers	Random sample of the census registry	Low	Low
Koistinen <i>et al</i> (2013)	Choice Experiment	Normal	Moderate	Conditional Logit Model and Latent Class Model	Good	Low	Consumers	Representative of internet users	Moderate	Moderate
Lusk <i>et al</i> (2006)	Choice based conjoint analysis	Normal	Moderate	Multinomial Logit Model	Normal	Moderate	Citizens	Participants recruited in a grocery store	Moderate	Moderate
Connor & Oppenheim (2008)	Contingent valuation	Unclear	High	Tobit Model	Good	Low	Consumers	Sample of consumers from outside supermarket	Moderate	High
Bennett & Blaney (2003)	Contingent valuation	Good	Low	Binary Logit Model	Normal	Moderate	Citizens	Random stratified sample by socio-economic characteristics	Low	Low
Bennett & Larson (1996)	Contingent valuation	Normal	Moderate	Binary Logit Model	Normal	Moderate	Students	Convenience sample of students	Moderate	Moderate
Carlsson <i>et al</i> (2007b)	Choice Experiment	Good	Low	Random Parameter	Good	Low	Citizens	Sample from census data	Moderate	Low

				Logit Model						
Allender & Richards (2010)	Hedonic Pricing	Good	Low	Random Parameter Logit Model	Good	Low	Consumers	From homescan database	Low	Low
Carlsson <i>et al</i> (2005)	Choice Experiment	Normal	Moderate	Random Parameter Logit Model	Good	Low	Consumers	Random sample from census registry	Low	Low
Carlsson <i>et al</i> (2007a)	Choice Experiment	Normal	Moderate	Random Parameter Logit Model	Good	Low	Consumers	Random sample from census registry	Low	Low
Goddard <i>et al</i> (2007)	Hedonic Pricing	Normal	Moderate	Conditional Logit Model	Normal	Moderate	Consumers	From homescan database	High	High
Goddard <i>et al</i> (2007)	Choice Experiment	Unclear	High	Conditional Logit Model	Normal	Low	Citizens	Unclear - a market research agency was used	High	High
Tonsor <i>et al</i> (2009a)	Choice Experiment	Good	Low	Random Parameter Model and Latent Class Model	Good	Low	Citizens	Unclear, used a market research agency	Moderate	Low
Pozo <i>et al</i> (2012)	Choice Experiment	Good	Low	Multinomial Logit Model and Random Parameter Model	Good	Low	Citizens	Representative sample using market research agency	Low	Low



Tonsor et al (2009)	Contingent valuation	Normal	Moderate	Binary Logit Model	Normal	Moderate	Citizens	Representative sample using panel data	Low	Moderate
Solgaard & Yang (2009)	Contingent valuation	Unclear	High	Binomial Logit Model	Normal	Moderate	Citizens	Representative sample using panel data	Low	High
Ubilava <i>et al</i> (2010)	Choice Experiment	Unclear	High	Random Parameter Logit Model	Good	Low	Citizens	Representative sample	Moderate	High
Olynk & Ortega (2014)	Choice Experiment	Normal	Moderate	Random Parameter Logit Model	Good	Low	Citizens	Representative sample using panel data	Low	Low
Andersen (2011)	Choice Model	Good	Low	Mixed Multinomial Logit Model	Normal	Moderate	Consumers	Retail purchase data	Low	Low
McVittie <i>et al</i> (2004)	Choice Experiment	Moderate	Normal	Multinomial Logit Model	Normal	Moderate	Citizens	Stratified sample	Moderate	Moderate
McVittie <i>et al</i> (2004)	Contingent valuation	Moderate	Normal	Binary Logit Model	Normal	Moderate	citizens	Stratified sample	Moderate	Moderate
Lu (2013)	Choice Experiment	Moderate	Normal	Conditional Logit Model	Normal	Moderate	Citizens	Unclear	High	High
Viagas <i>et al</i> (2014)	Choice Experiment	Good	Low	Random Parameter Logit Model	Good	Low	Consumers	Stratified random sample	Low	Low

Vander Naald <i>et al</i> (2011)	Conjoint Analysis	Normal	Moderate	Conditional Logit Model	Normal	Low	Citizens	Chosen from jury register	Moderate	Moderate
Satimanon & Weatherspoon (2010)	Hedonic Analysis	Good	Low	Hedonic Model	Unclear	High	Consumers	Sales data	Low	Moderate
Olynk <i>et al</i> (2010a)	Choice Experiment	Normal	Moderate	Random Parameter Logit Model	Good	Low	Citizens	Representative, used a market research agency	Low	Low
Morbak & Norstrom (2009)	Choice Experiment	Good	Low	Random Parameter Logit Model	Good	Low	Consumers	Recruited online through an agency	Moderate	Low
Chung <i>et al</i> (2009)	Choice Experiment	Normal	Moderate	Multinomial Logit Model and Mixed Multinomial Logit Model	Normal	Moderate	Consumers	Convenience sample of supermarket shoppers	Moderate	Moderate
Christesen <i>et al</i> (2006)	Choice Experiment	Good	Low	Multinomial Probit Model	Good	Moderate	Consumers	Panel data, random quota sample	Low	Low

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**Appendix E: Summary of evidence**

<b>Outcome</b>	<b>Number of Studies (number of measures)</b>	<b>Risk of Bias</b>	<b>Imprecision</b>	<b>Inconsistency</b>	<b>Indirectness</b>	<b>Publication Bias</b>	<b>Overall Strength of Evidence</b>	<b>Effect Magnitude (95% CI)</b>	<b>Adjusted WTP</b>
Complete Case Studies	37	Moderate	Moderate	High	Moderate	Strongly Suspected	Low	0.6302 (0.5016, 0.7587)	€ 0.27
Overall (Complete case and imputed value studies)	54	Moderate	Moderate	High	Moderate	Strongly Suspected	Low	0.5709 (0.4599, 0.6819)	€ 0.34
Aggregated (by paper)	54	Moderate	Low	High	Moderate	Strongly Suspected	Low	0.4690 (0.2075, 0.7036)	€ 0.92
Pigs	13(90)	Low	Moderate	High	Moderate	Strongly Suspected	Low	0.2843 (0.1936, 0.3750)	€ 0.54
Layer Hens	10 (47)	Moderate	Moderate	Moderate	Moderate	Strongly Suspected	Moderate	0.7823 (0.3594, 1.2053)	€ 0.09
Broiler Chickens	8 (26)	Moderate	Moderate	High	Low	Strongly Suspected	Low	0.4024 (0.2653, 0.5394)	€ 1.24
Dairy Cows	7 (27)	Moderate	High	High	Moderate	Strongly Suspected	Low	1.2276 (0.7776, 1.4575)	€ 0.50
Beef Cows	7 (24)	Low	High	High	Low	Strongly Suspected	Low	1.022 (0.7294, 1.6750)	€ 5.00
Multiple	2 (6)	High	Moderate	Moderate	Low	Strongly Suspected	Low	0.6547 (0.4206, 0.8888)	€11.20
Calves	1 (1)	Moderate	High		High		Low	4.8344 (4.6526, 5.0162)	€8.69

Fish	3 (6)	Moderate	Low	Moderate	Low	Strongly Suspected	Moderate	0.3712 (-0.0073, 0.7497)	€3.53
UK	7 (27)	Moderate	High	High	Low	Strongly Suspected	Low	0.6479 (0.5113, 0.7845)	€ 1.72
Northern Europe	8 (76)	Moderate	Moderate	Moderate	Low	Strongly Suspected	Moderate	0.1060 (0.0376, 0.1744)	€ 0.41
Western Europe	3 (7)	High	High	Moderate	Low	Strongly Suspected	Low	1.0741 (0.7720, 1.7630)	€ 4.28
Southern Europe	6 (23)	Moderate	High	High	Low	Strongly Suspected	Low	1.4329 (0.9577, 1.9082)	€ 0.68
Asia	1 (4)	Moderate	High		High		Low	2.3820 (2.0842, 2.6799)	€ 5.40
North America	16 (90)	Moderate	High	Moderate	High	Strongly Suspected	Low	0.7515 (0.5026, 1.0004)	€ 0.15
Citizens	26 (187)	Moderate	Moderate	Moderate	Moderate	Strongly Suspected	Moderate	0.5122 (0.3810, 0.6435)	€ 0.33
Consumers	11 (40)	Low	High	High	Moderate	Strongly Suspected	Low	1.1796 (0.8287, 1.5304)	€ 0.25
Age	24 (156)	Moderate	Low	High	Moderate	Undetecte d	Moderate	-0.0377 (-0.0530, - 0.0224)	€ 0.19
Income	19 (123)	Moderate	Low	High	Moderate	Undetecte d	Moderate	0.0207 (0.0131, 0.0284)	€ 0.11
% Female	26 (157)	Moderate	Low	Moderate	Moderate	Undetecte d	Moderate	0.0086 (-0.0002, 0.0175)	€ 0.19

% Vegetarian	6 (59)	Low	Low	Moderate	Low	Undetected	High	-0.7024 (-0.9654, -0.4394)	€ 0.25
Education	15 (74)	Moderate	Low	High	Moderate	Strongly Suspected	Low	0.0246 (0.0113, 0.0379)	€ 0.17
Revealed Preference	8 (31)	Moderate	High	High	Moderate	Undetected	Low	1.1935 (0.9077, 1.4793)	€ 0.41
Stated Preferences	29 (196)	Moderate	Moderate	High	Moderate	Strongly Suspected	Low	0.5416 (0.4035, 0.6796)	€ 0.25
Cheap talk script used	9 (83)	Low	Low	Moderate	Low	Strongly Suspected	Moderate	0.3595 (0.2259, 0.4932)	€ 0.11
Cheap talk script not used	20 (113)	Moderate	Moderate	Moderate	Moderate	Strongly Suspected	Low	0.6758 (0.4600, 0.8916)	€ 0.50
Cheap talk script not needed	8 (31)	Moderate	High	High	Moderate	Undetected	Low	1.1935 (0.9077, 1.4793)	€ 0.41

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