

1 **Cue versus independent food attributes: the effect of adding attributes in**
2 **choice experiments**

3 **Abstract:**

4 We examine the effects of adding an independent food attribute on consumers' willingness to
5 pay estimates for both cue and independent food attributes. In three separate choice
6 experiments, a cue attribute present along the entire sequence of choices had independent
7 food attributes enucleated and made explicit from the cue at later stages. Logit models were
8 estimated using (1) a complete panel approach; (2) error components; and (3) utility in WTP
9 space. Results suggest that the way a subject processes food attributes depends not only on
10 the design dimensions but also on food attributes' functional roles. When complexity of
11 designs increases, models that account for different sources of heterogeneity have better fit to
12 the data.

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14 **Key words:** choice experiment, choice design complexity, cue and independent food
15 attributes; complete panel data approach, willingness to pay.

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23 **1. Introduction**

24 Choice experiments (CEs) have been widely employed in several fields of applied economics
25 such as transportation, market research, health, and environmental economics, amongst
26 others. Despite the potential scope for hypothetical bias (Lusk 2003a), its use has recently
27 increased in consumer food choice studies, especially to investigate behavioral issues on food
28 choice processes (Balcombe and Fraser 2011).

29 A key challenge in designing food CEs is how to frame experimental choice tasks in a
30 manner that closely resembles respondents' true purchasing behavior. To reflect the
31 increasing number of differentiated food products, CEs should feature product profiles that
32 differ in many dimensions and attribute types. However, while the use of multiple-food
33 attributes in choice tasks can increase choice realism, it can also complicate respondent's
34 tasks. For this reason, practitioners typically design CEs only using a limited number of food
35 attributes. A potentially serious weakness of this approach is that experimentally designed
36 attributes are assumed to be independent of other omitted attributes that could be also
37 available in the real product and relevant for consumer choice. Hence, the marginal
38 willingness to pay (WTPs) for any attribute is implicitly considered as a value that is
39 invariant to design dimensions. Nevertheless, if the WTP for a specific attribute depends on
40 the number of pre-existing attributes on the product (Lusk 2003b), then the information
41 garnered from CE studies may inaccurately reflect actual consumer purchase decisions (Lusk
42 2003b; Gao and Schroeder 2009), leading to biased estimates and incorrect forecasts.

43 In this paper, we focus on a recent and crucial debate in food CEs; i.e., the one
44 concerning the effects of adding "independent" food attributes to choice tasks on the
45 robustness of marginal WTP estimates of "cue" attributes (Gao and Schroeder, 2009,
46 henceforth GS). Studying how survey respondents process cue and independent attributes has

47 emerged as an important area of investigation because of the different functional roles of cue
48 and independent attributes in choice behavior.

49 A ‘cue’ attribute (e.g., *country of origin*) is described as one that embeds in its levels
50 some degree of information about the levels of other quality attributes not directly observed
51 by the decision maker¹. In other words, the levels of a ‘cue’ attribute may serve to convey
52 information about otherwise unobservable attributes (Lusk et al. 2014)². For example, the
53 *country of origin* or even the *district of production* of a food product may be perceived by
54 consumers as providing additional information, which might not be explicitly detailed in the
55 product’s description (Verlegh, Steenkamp and Meulenberg 2005), perhaps due to reputation
56 effects (Scarpa, Thiene and Marangon, 2008). Hence, with more attribute information
57 provided about the food product, the cue attribute might lose some of its role as a proxy for
58 overall quality. An ‘independent’ attribute, on the other hand, relates to the physical aspects
59 of the product, whose information stands alone, irrespective of other food quality
60 information, as it is commonly perceived to embed no further cues. For example, beef
61 leanness is not generally associated with additional attributes of a steak, and it is hence
62 considered an independent attribute. Thus, the value that consumers attach to an independent

¹ The information processing literature associates the word “cue” with two informational elements: the type of information examined (i.e., ‘the content’) (e.g. Jacoby, Speller and Berning 1974) and the amount of information sought (i.e., ‘the depth’) (Bettman, 1979). Hence, quality cues, also referred to as “chunks” (Simon, 1974), may provide more saliency and meaning that could then produce relative attribute dominance relations within information sets (Jacoby Olson and Haddock 1971).

² Hamlin (2010) also offers deeper insights into how cues are utilized and how they operate in a decision process.

63 attribute should be “independent” from the value attached to other attributes, especially when
64 those attributes are not direct substitutes for it. However, during a CE study, the degree to
65 which consumers use food attributes (both independent and cue) as quality cues might also
66 depend on the number of attributes presented to them. For instance, given a sufficiently small
67 set of attributes, even the "leanness of meat" might be perceived by some consumers as
68 having a cue component for other attributes. So, a clear separation between cue and
69 independent food attributes depends on context and is inherently subjective.

70 The issue about the sensitivity of CE estimates to changes in the structure of design
71 dimensions (e.g., number and types of attributes; differences in levels, etc.) has attracted
72 much interest. A number of studies have evaluated the effects of varying attribute information
73 load on WTP estimates in the fields of transportation (DeShazo and Fermo 2002; Arentze et
74 al., 2003; Hensher 2006a,b) and environmental economics (Meyerhoff, Oehlmann and Weller
75 2014). Results from these studies generally suggest that (i) welfare measure estimates such as
76 WTPs are affected by the dimensionality of the experimental design, and that (ii) individuals’
77 processing strategies are linked not only to the dimension of CE designs but also to the
78 functional relationship between attributes in the choice set (Hensher 2006a).

79 So far, only the study by GS has analyzed this issue in the context of food choice.
80 Crucially, GS addressed the effect on the stability of WTP estimates for cue attributes when
81 an independent attribute, previously embedded in the cue attribute, was enucleated from this
82 and added as an explicit food descriptor. Using steak as the product of interest, the authors
83 argued that if more information on other product attributes is provided to respondents (e.g.,
84 an attribute such as *Guaranteed Tender*), then presenting a cue attribute (e.g., *Certified U.S.*
85 *Product*) may provide a weaker signal for overall product quality or for information about
86 other attributes. To test these hypotheses, they constructed two CE surveys with different
87 attribute numbers (one with three and four attributes, and the other one with four and five

88 attributes). In each of the surveys, respondents were presented with a sequence of choice
89 tasks split into two halves. GS then estimated separate choice models on data from the first
90 and second halves of the sequences. Using the estimated marginal WTPs from a random
91 parameter logit model, they then tested the null of no difference in WTPs between the first
92 and second sequence for each choice experiment. Their findings suggest that the sensitivity of
93 WTP estimates to changes in the label information was higher for attributes that are likely to
94 provide quality cues on other missing attributes (*cue* attributes such as *Certified U.S.*) than for
95 those which are less likely to do so (*independent* attributes e.g. *Guaranteed Tender*). They
96 found that the marginal WTP estimate for *Certified U.S. Product* attribute decreases when the
97 number of attributes increases from three to four, and it increases when the number of
98 attributes increases from four to five.

99 Given that GS is the only study so far that has analyzed this important issue within the
100 context of food choice, further investigation appears to be warranted to test the robustness of
101 their crucial findings. This study extends the investigation of GS. To ease comparison across
102 studies, we focus on the same product—steak—and a similar set of cue and independent
103 attributes as used by GS in their first set of surveys. However, our empirical strategy differs
104 from the one used by GS in a number of ways to tackle a number of unresolved
105 methodological and behavioral questions related to the choice of model specification and
106 design dimensions. One of the most formidable challenges in analyzing the effects of
107 information load on WTP estimates due to changes in design dimensions concerns the length
108 of the choice panel. Accordingly, we first propose an econometric approach based on the
109 permanence of the random coefficients along the entire panel of choices by the same
110 respondent. In this regard, we note that previous random utility coefficients analyses were
111 conducted using separate models for the first and second part of the choice sequence,
112 respectively, without and with the independent attribute (GS). This approach ignores the

113 dependence between attribute coefficient values for the same individual in the two sequences.
114 Since the respondent is the same in both sequences, the choices made by the same respondent
115 are coherently correlated because they share idiosyncratic randomness across the utility
116 evaluation of the attributes. By splitting the choice sequence, the information collected in the
117 first part is not incorporated in the analysis of the second part. It is as if the process had no
118 memory of the choices collected in the first part once it gets to the second part.

119 Second, we account for different sources of intra-panel variation between the two
120 choice sequences. In this application, systematic effects associated with choices in the second
121 half may show up as welfare effects, thereby confounding the effect of position in the
122 sequence with the effect due to the inclusion of new independent attributes. For instance,
123 differences in choice complexity produced by the addition of independent attributes can
124 affect respondents' learning and fatigue (Swait and Louviere 1993; Caussade et al., 2005;
125 Carlsson, Frykblom, and Lagerkvist 2007; Carlsson, Mørkbak and Olsen 2012; Day et al.,
126 2012; Hess, Hensher and Daly 2012). The scale of the Gumbel error may well change
127 between the two sequences due to other reactive factors, such as engaging in coping
128 mechanisms used by respondents to handle the additional cognitive effort (e.g., attribute
129 processing heuristics) (Hensher 2006a). Ignoring the possible combined and simultaneous
130 existence of these effects of taste permanence, scale change, and coping heuristics could lead
131 to biased parameter estimates and hence to erroneous interpretation and policy conclusions.

132 Finally, we estimate all our choice models with utility always specified in WTP-space
133 (Train and Weeks 2005), rather than in preference-space and introduce an error component
134 (EC) for every alternative different from the no-buy option to address heteroskedasticity
135 across the buy and no-buy options.

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137 **2. Theoretical framework**

138 Let us assume that there is a complete set of attributes \mathbf{x}_i that fully describes the utility of food
139 choice i and that the usual assumptions on the unobservable e_i and on additive utility hold.
140 Then $U_i = \boldsymbol{\beta}'\mathbf{x}_i + e_i$. However, to avoid issues such as overloading respondents, only a sub-set
141 \mathbf{x}^c of the independent attributes can be used in a choice experiment. So that \mathbf{x} is portioned into
142 \mathbf{x}^c (set of attributes included in the CEs) and \mathbf{x}^{-c} (complement set of attributes excluded from
143 the CEs) and the complete utility is $U_i = \boldsymbol{\beta}^c'\mathbf{x}_i^c + \boldsymbol{\beta}^{-c}'\mathbf{x}_i^{-c} + e_i$. The complement set \mathbf{x}^{-c} of excluded
144 attributes may include some for which some attributes in \mathbf{x}^c has a “cue component”. This
145 implies that to some respondents \mathbf{x}^c signal some values that pertain to attributes in \mathbf{x}^{-c} , even
146 though these are excluded from the CE. That is, some respondents in the CE evaluate the
147 utility as $U_i^* = \boldsymbol{\beta}^c'\mathbf{x}_i^c + \boldsymbol{\theta}'\mathbf{x}_i^{-c} + e_i = [\boldsymbol{\theta}' + \boldsymbol{\beta}^{-c}]'\mathbf{x}_i^c + e_i = \boldsymbol{\beta}^{c*}'\mathbf{x}_i^c + e_i$, where the vector $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ represents the
148 contribution to utility that cue attributes in \mathbf{x}^c signal with respect to the utility value of
149 independent attributes in $\boldsymbol{\beta}^{-c}'\mathbf{x}^{-c}$. This makes $\boldsymbol{\beta}^{c*}$ different from the desired estimate of $\boldsymbol{\beta}^c$. As a
150 consequence, the estimated marginal utility and WTP of cue attributes in \mathbf{x}^c will also differ.
151 As discussed earlier, food CEs can be designed using cue and independent attributes. Denote
152 x^a as a cue food attribute and x^b as an independent attribute potentially associated with cue
153 attribute x^a . The general expectation in choice modeling is that $\frac{\partial WTP}{\partial x^a} = \frac{\partial WTP}{\partial x^a} | x^b$. In other
154 words, the marginal willingness to pay for attribute a should be invariant to the presence or
155 absence of attribute b . If this were not the case, and a different marginal WTP is elicited for
156 cue attributes when an independent one is specified, then the WTP estimates for the cue
157 attributes would be contingent on information and hence would be invalid, or only
158 conditionally valid. GS find evidence of such invalidity in their experiments.

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160 **3. Experimental procedures and survey designs**

161 In order to test the hypothesis of a constant consumer marginal WTP for the cue attribute
162 across varying degrees of independent attribute information, we repeat the two experiments
163 conducted by GS (experiments A and B). But we also add a third experiment (C) to further
164 increase the amount of attribute information offered in the CEs, which have a nested and
165 incremental information structure.

166 All respondents were randomly assigned to one of three experiments. All experiments
167 employ two CEs: CE1 that constituted the first half of the choice task sequence and CE2,
168 which constituted the second half and included one additional independent attribute missing
169 in CE1. Both CE1 and CE2 had 8 choice tasks, for a total sequence of 16 choices. Experiment
170 A includes three attributes (e.g., *Certified U.S.*, *Guaranteed Tender*, and *Price*) in the first
171 half of the sequence (A1) and four attributes in second half of sequence (e.g., *Certified U.S.*,
172 *Guaranteed Tender*, *Guaranteed Lean*, and *Price*)(A2). Experiment B includes the same set
173 of attributes used in A2 in the first half of the sequence (B1) and five attributes in second
174 sequence (e.g., *Certified U.S.*, *Guaranteed Tender*, *Guaranteed Lean*, *Sell-By Date*, and
175 *Price*). Experiment C includes the same set of attributes used in B2 in the first half of the
176 sequence (C1) and six attributes in the second sequence (C2) (.g., *Certified U.S.*, *Guaranteed*
177 *Tender*, *Guaranteed Lean*, *Sell-By Date*, *Enhanced Omega-3 fatty acids*, and *Price*). The
178 profile of the CE studies and the attributes levels included in the experiments are reported in
179 Table 1.

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Table1. Attributes and Levels in the Choice Experiment across Experiments

Attributes (attribute levels)	Experiment A		Experiment B		Experiment C	
	A1	A2	B1	B2	C1	C2
<i>Price (\$4.64;\$6.93; \$9.22; \$11.50)</i>	√	√	√	√	√	√
<i>Certified U.S. Product(absent/not absent)</i>	√	√	√	√	√	√
<i>Guaranteed Tender (absent/not absent)</i>	√	√	√	√	√	√
<i>Guaranteed Lean (absent/not absent)</i>		√	√	√	√	√
<i>Days before Sell-by Data (2 days; 8 days)</i>				√	√	√
<i>Enhanced Omega-3 fatty acids (absent/not absent)</i>						√

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196 Previous research indicates that experimental designs used in CE studies can
 197 significantly affect the efficiency of the final WTP estimates (Lusk and Norwood 2005).
 198 According to Scarpa, Campbell, and Hutchinson (2007) amongst others, increased estimation
 199 accuracy at given sample sizes can be achieved by adopting a sequential experimental design
 200 that progressively and iteratively optimizes some efficiency criterion. In this study, the
 201 allocation of the attribute levels was designed using a sequential experimental design with a
 202 Bayesian information structure geared to the minimization of the expected D_b -error (Scarpa
 203 Campbell and Hutchinson 2007; Ferrini and Scarpa 2007; Scarpa and Rose 2008), which is
 204 the expectation of the determinant of the asymptotic variance covariance matrix of the

205 estimated parameters. Such expectation is computed by simulation on the basis of some prior
206 (i.e. prior to the knowledge of the survey results) distributional assumptions. Hence, our
207 design is developed in three sequential steps, each of which was designed to enrich the prior
208 knowledge of such distributions. In the first step, we used as priors the estimates of a
209 Multinomial Logit Model (MNL) from a survey conducted in 2009 to generate the two
210 designs with 8 choice tasks each for experiment A (with three and four attributes,
211 respectively) and for experiment B (with four and five attributes, respectively). For
212 experiment C, the design with 5 attributes has 8 choice tasks while the design with 6
213 attributes requires 16 choice tasks to ensure complete identification of main effects. These are
214 divided into two blocks of eight, each randomly assigned to respondents so as to have the
215 same total length of the choice sequence per respondent as in the other experiments. The
216 second step was the pilot study, which was performed in December 2013 and this provided
217 the parameter values for the priors necessary to generate the final D_b -optimal choice design
218 for the experiments.

219 Overall, (i) each design includes eight choice sets, and (ii) in each experiment,
220 respondents are faced with 16 choice tasks, produced by combining 2 designs of 8 choice
221 tasks each. In each choice task, respondents choose between three alternatives: two different
222 beef steak profiles and the “no buy” option. As in GS, in order to avoid fatigue effects
223 associated with multiple scenario valuation tasks, questions regarding respondent
224 demographic characteristics were asked between the two halves of the sequence. Finally, in
225 each experiment, the order of the CE questions was randomized.

226

227 **4. Estimation Techniques**

228 In our specific context, additional information about independent food attributes is made
229 available to respondents only in the second half of the choice sequence. Hence, the panel
230 structure of the estimator requires some adjustments. The additional attribute would explicitly
231 address the information that might have been conjectured by some respondents as being
232 embedded in the cue attribute in the first half of the sequence. As discussed, such an addition
233 does not warrant separating the choice sequence into two halves and fitting two independent
234 models to data from each half of the sequence. By the time the respondents reached the
235 second half of the sequence, they would have achieved a certain degree of familiarity with the
236 choice task and would have learned their tradeoffs with respect to the core set of attributes. A
237 separate panel model fitted only to the second half of choices would not account for this
238 effect since it would not account for the information collected on the individual distributions
239 of taste coefficients in the first half. We posit that a more adequate formulation of the panel
240 estimator must recognize the correlation structure of individual preferences between choices
241 by the same respondent along the entire sequence of observed choice outcomes.

242 There are further considerations to make. For instance, the introduction of additional
243 framing information is known to modify the degree of respondent's certainty in the
244 evaluations of the utilities associated with each alternative, the so-called preference
245 discrimination (Swait and Erden 2007). This might have an effect on the scale parameter of
246 the Gumbel distribution, which is inversely proportional to the Gumbel error variance,
247 inducing more determinism (discriminatory power across alternatives). The signal-to-noise
248 ratio may therefore be modified (shifted) between the first part and the second part of the
249 sequence. The scale of noise may be increased by making choice more stochastic (due to, for
250 example, increased complexity of choice or fatigue) or more deterministic, hence increasing
251 the ability of respondents to discriminate their preference due to learning (Swait and

252 Adamowicz 2001; DeShazo and Fermo 2002; Caussade et al., 2005; Swait and Erden 2007;
253 Fiebig et al. 2010; Daly, Hess and Train 2012).

254 Next, there is cumulative evidence that utility variance differs between those alternatives
255 that vary systematically across choice tasks due to the experimental design and those that
256 remain the same across all choice tasks in the sequence, such as the “no-buy” option (Scarpa,
257 Ferrini and Willis 2005; Hess and Rose 2009; Caputo, Nayga and Scarpa 2013). The former
258 are subject to substantially higher utility variance as they are subject to new conjectures at
259 each new choice task. Such conjecture, of course, may also involve the exact degree of
260 embedding of independent attributes into the levels of cue attributes. An efficient way to
261 selectively increase utility variance and induce correlation is to use a shared error component
262 shared by the utilities of experimentally designed alternatives which involve some degree of
263 common conjecture.

264 Given the above considerations, an adequate test of the effect of introducing an
265 additional independent attribute on the marginal WTP of cue attributes can only be achieved
266 by simultaneously addressing the following issues:

- 267 (i) adopting a complete panel approach in the random taste parameters to preserve
268 the real panel nature of the entire sequence of food choices by the same
269 respondent;
- 270 (ii) allowing the scale parameter of the error to be different when new independent
271 attribute information is introduced in the label (namely in the last part of the
272 food choice sequence in our study); and
- 273 (iii) accounting for additional covariance in the experimentally designed food
274 profiles.

275 A final consideration concerns the potential lack of definition of the second central
276 moments of the implied distribution of the ratio of two random coefficients. It is undesirable
277 to assume a random utility structure that may imply, depending on the estimation outcomes,
278 WTP distributions with infinite variance or implausibly “fat” tails, so as to ease inference.
279 Random utility specified in the preference space with random attribute and cost coefficients
280 often produces these problems in marginal WTP estimates (see Train and Weeks 2005,
281 Scarpa, Thiene and Train 2008; Daly, Hess and Train 2012; Carson and Czajkowski 2013).
282 While assuming a fixed cost coefficient gets around this problem, it implies a constant
283 marginal value of money across respondents. Random utility in the (marginal) WTP-space
284 overcomes all these shortcomings and it is undoubtedly a more appropriate approach when
285 comparisons across treatments are made and avoids issues of scale effects present in marginal
286 utilities (e.g., preference space). Therefore, in this study, all the models are specified in WTP-
287 Space³.

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289 **5. Econometric Model Specifications**

³ We also estimated choice models with utility specified in preference-space rather than WTP-space to test whether adding an independent attribute during the second half of the choice sequence causes significant effects on price coefficient estimates across all Experiments (A, B, and C). No effects were found (result are available from the authors upon request). As in Monroe (1976), this might be due to the presence of: (i) independent attribute information (e.g., *Guaranteed Tender*, etc.), (ii) no-price cue information (*Certified U.S.* label); and (iii) the no-buy option in our CE surveys.

290 We estimated two econometric models (i.e., Models 1 and 2 reported in the results section).
 291 The benchmark specification (i.e., Model 1 reported in the results section) is an Error
 292 Component model in WTP-space only accounting for correlation across WTPs, which
 293 represents the baseline model. The second specification (i.e., Model 2 reported in the results
 294 section) is an Error Component model in WTP-space accounting for correlation across WTPs
 295 and for both scale and marginal WTP shifters (i.e., models accounting for (i), (ii), and (iii)
 296 discussed above). Another advantage of the WTP-space framework is that it produces
 297 coefficients with a familiar and intuitive (OLS-like) interpretation for differential effects from
 298 dummy variables. These are denoted by Δ and they represent the effects on marginal WTP for
 299 attributes emerging from observed choices, after the independent attribute is included in the
 300 choice context in the second half of the sequence in each experiment, i.e., from $t=9, \dots, t=16$.
 301 The definition of the utility function for the generic steak alternative j across all experiments
 302 is as follows:

$$\begin{aligned}
 303 \quad U_{jnt} = V_{jnt} + \varepsilon_{jnt} = & \exp(\tau_n + \delta 1_{s2}) \times \\
 304 & [(\omega_{1n} + \Delta_1 1_{s2}) US\ Certified_{jt} + \\
 305 & (\omega_{2n} + \Delta_2 1_{s2}) Tender_{jt} + \\
 306 & (1_{s2} \times 1_A + 1_B + 1_C) (\omega_{3n} + \Delta_3 1_{s2}) Lean_{jt} + \\
 307 & (1_{s2} \times 1_B + 1_C) (\omega_{4n} + \Delta_4 1_{s2}) Days\ before\ Sell-by + \\
 308 & (1_{s2} \times 1_C) (\omega_{5n} + \Delta_5 1_{s2}) Omega + \\
 309 & - price_{jt} + 1_j(\eta_{nt})] + \varepsilon_{jnt} \quad (1)
 \end{aligned}$$

310 where V_{jnt} is the indirect utility function; $1_j(\cdot)$ is an indicator function that takes the value of 1
 311 for experimentally designed food profiles; $1_{s2}(\cdot)$ is a dummy variable indicator for the second

312 choice sequence; $1_A(\cdot)$, $1_B(\cdot)$, and $1_C(\cdot)$ are mutually exclusive dummy variables indicators for
 313 experiments A, B and C; τ_n is the common scale factor; ω_{1n} is the coefficient of the estimated
 314 WTP values; δ and Δ denote the effects of the second half of the sequence (i.e., that with the
 315 additional label information), respectively on the scale factor and on marginal WTP, and
 316 finally η_{nt} is a respondent-specific idiosyncratic error component associated only with the
 317 conjectured purchase alternatives (e.g., excluded from the no buy option).

318 In the above specification, the vector of random marginal WTPs for the attributes is:

$$319 \begin{pmatrix} \omega_{1n} \\ \vdots \\ \omega_{5n} \end{pmatrix} \sim N[\mu, \Sigma] \quad (2)$$

320 where the elements of Σ are to be estimated from the Cholesky matrix⁴ along with the means
 321 in μ by using the maximum simulated likelihood approach and the choice data. The τ
 322 coefficients of the scale factor are also assumed to be distributed multivariate normal across
 323 respondents and are hence sub-scripted with n , while the effects on the scale factor of higher
 324 level of product information δ are fixed. Positive values of estimated δ are consistent with
 325 higher scale and hence more deterministic choice after the introduction of the independent
 326 attribute, while negative values suggest more stochastic choices (a higher noise-to-signal
 327 ratio). The exponential transformation makes the multiplicative scale/price coefficient factor
 328 strictly positive as required. The unobservable utility components denoted by ε are assumed
 329 to be i.i.d. Gumbel distributed.

330 In the estimation, for all the experiments (A, B, and C) and conditional on the
 331 respondent's draw of the random vector of parameters in V_n , the panel structure for the entire

⁴Cholesky matrix estimates are available upon request.

332 sequence of 16 choices in each of the surveys is specified to have a joint choice probability
 333 of:

$$334 \quad L_n = Pr(y_{n1}, \dots, y_{n8}, y_{n9}, \dots, y_{n16}) = \prod_{t=1}^{t=16} \frac{e^{V_{jnt}}}{\sum_i e^{V_{int}}} \quad (3)$$

335 The unconditional distribution is simulated by using $R=1000$ Halton draws as:

$$336 \quad \widetilde{L}_n = \frac{1}{R} \sum_{r=1}^R L_n^r \quad (4)$$

337 All models are estimated using Biogeme (Bierlaire 2003) where the log of the
 338 simulated likelihood for the sample is maximized using the CFSQP algorithm (Lawrence,
 339 Zhou and Tits 1997), which is suitable for functions with several local maxima. The stability
 340 of the maximizers μ and Σ was checked using a variety of starting values. In all the EC model
 341 specifications, the price, which is treated as a continuous variable, refers to a 12-ounce steak;
 342 the rest of the qualitative attributes such as *Certified U.S.*, *Tender*, *Lean*, *Sell-By Date*, and
 343 *Enhanced Omega-3 fatty acids* are included in the model as dummy variables. Discrete
 344 choice models are defined on utility differences. Thus, it does not matter what value is
 345 assigned to the omitted attributes. As long as they are the same across all choice alternatives,
 346 they will have no influence on choice probabilities because they imply no difference in
 347 utility. Accordingly, the omitted attributes (e.g., *Lean*, *Sell-buy*, and *Enhanced Omega-3 fatty*
 348 *acids* in the first sequence of choice of Experiments A, B, and C respectively) are, for
 349 simplicity, coded as zero.

350

351 **6. Data and Results**

352 *6.1 Sample characteristics and statement of attribute attendance*

353 A national sample of US consumers (i.e., people who have bought beef steak in the last 3
354 months) was randomly recruited through an email invitation by a professional market
355 research agency (Qualtrics) and then randomly assigned to the three CE experiments (A, B,
356 and C). A total of 201, 183, and 208 respondents completed Experiments A, B, and C,
357 respectively. Results are reported in the supplementary materials (Table S1).

358

359 *4.2 WTP-space estimates*

360 Tables 2 reports WTP-space estimates for Experiment A, B, and C.

361 **Table2. Estimates of EC models in WTP space of Experiment A (with three and four attributes), Experiment B (with four and five**
 362 **attributes), and Experiment C (with five and six attributes) (standard errors)**

		Experiment A		Experiment B		Experiment C	
		<i>Model 1</i>	<i>Model 2</i>	<i>Model 1</i>	<i>Model 2</i>	<i>Model 1</i>	<i>Model 2</i>
<i>WTP parameters</i>							
<i>No-Buy</i>	Coeff.	-6.32*** (0.80)	-7.90*** (1.27)	-12.4*** (1.93)	-11.50*** (1.78)	-10.30*** (0.54)	-9.31*** (0.42)
	Mean	-0.53*** (0.14)	-0.59*** (0.13)	-0.72*** (0.12)	-0.51*** (0.17)	-0.35*** (0.09)	-0.51*** (0.14)
$\pi(n)$	St.dev.	1.17*** (0.12)	1.55*** (0.14)	1.21*** (0.11)	1.18*** (0.14)	1.16*** (0.12)	1.20*** (0.13)
	Mean	6.05*** (0.93)	8.50*** (1.00)	6.04*** (0.48)	6.44*** (0.64)	4.03*** (0.28)	4.90*** (0.55)
<i>US Certified</i>	St.dev.	7.92*** (0.98)	7.32*** (0.71)	5.94*** (0.33)	5.71*** (0.46)	3.49*** (0.19)	3.67*** (0.18)
	Mean	3.29*** (0.46)	4.23*** (0.52)	3.40*** (0.35)	2.89*** (0.31)	1.80*** (0.16)	1.82*** (0.28)
<i>Tender</i>	St.dev.	0.93* (0.21)	1.05*** (0.18)	1.67*** (0.32)	2.52*** (0.22)	0.24*** (0.11)	0.24 (0.16)
	Mean	2.29*** (0.32)	2.75*** (0.36)	2.09*** (0.23)	2.26*** (0.28)	1.49*** (0.16)	1.75*** (0.23)
<i>Lean</i>	St.dev.	0.33 (0.25)	0.12 (0.08)	0.21** (0.11)	0.38*** (0.09)	0.16 (0.11)	0.04 (0.10)

<i>Sell-By</i>	Mean			2.19*** (0.39)	2.20*** (0.46)	1.07*** (0.18)	1.24*** (0.24)
	St.dev.			0.15 (0.87)	0.13 (0.28)	1.32*** (0.16)	1.29*** (0.29)
<i>Omega</i>	Mean					0.90*** (0.24)	1.00*** (0.28)
	St.dev.					1.64*** (0.23)	2.04*** (0.31)
Error Comp.	St.dev.	6.95*** (0.71)	5.49*** (0.72)	8.40*** (1.38)	6.76*** (0.76)	6.12*** (0.44)	5.65*** (0.58)
Scale and utility shifters							
<i>Shift in scale (δ)</i>			0.21* (0.11)		-0.24* (0.14)		0.23*** (0.12)
Δ <i>US certified</i>			-1.06*** (0.11)		-1.04*** (0.28)		-1.23 (0.24)
Δ <i>Tender</i>			-0.56*** (0.17)		1.00*** (0.35)		0.06 (0.17)
Δ <i>Lean</i>					-0.47** (0.22)		-0.28 (0.18)
Δ <i>Sell buy</i>							-0.19 (0.22)
Summary Statistics							
<i>N</i>		3216	3216	2928	2928	3328	3328
<i>Log likelihood</i>		-2024	-1988	-2007	-1987	-2319	-2301
<i>AIC/N</i>		1.271	1.251	1.389	1.378	1.415	1.407
<i>BIC/N</i>		1.309	1.294	1.444	1.442	1.479	1.480

	<i>N. of parameters</i>	20	23	27	31	35	40
363	Note: ***, **, * indicate that parameters are statistically significant at 1%, 5% and 10% level.						

364

365 As previously mentioned, two different error-component specifications in WTP-space
366 (Models 1 and 2) are reported for each experiment. Models 1 is the basic specification
367 accounting only for correlation across WTPs, while Models 2 adds shifts due to the
368 introduction of the additional independent attribute in the second half of the sequence of the
369 panel. In particular, two types of late sequence shifters are accounted for: the scale shifter
370 denoted by δ , which accounts for net effect of learning (if positive) or fatigue (if negative),
371 and the shifters of attribute-specific marginal WTPs, denoted by Δ . A negative and significant
372 sign of δ is evidence of a shrinking scale—and hence a more deterministic choice often
373 linked to relatively less cognitively complex choices—following the introduction of an
374 independent steak attribute. A positive effect suggests a more stochastic choice, perhaps due
375 to higher cognitive load. In contrast, a positive and significant sign of Δ indicates a WTP
376 increase in the sequence of choices after the inclusion of the independent steak attribute;
377 while a negative and significant sign would be consistent with the decrease of WTPs in the
378 sequence of choices after the inclusion of the independent steak attribute. In all the models,
379 all attribute coefficients (marginal WTPs) were specified as random, while τ_n is assumed to
380 be log-normally distributed, but independently of the multivariate normal distribution of the
381 marginal WTPs for beef steak attributes.

382 In all the models from the three experiments, the estimates of population means for the
383 marginal WTPs are found positive and significant at the 1% level. Restrictions on the
384 Cholesky matrix imposing preference homogeneity are strongly rejected. Finally, the
385 distribution of error component associated with experimentally designed alternatives has a
386 significant and large estimate for the standard deviation, indicating that utility variance is
387 much larger for purchase than for no-purchase alternatives.

388 In Experiment A (first two columns of Table 2), the relative ranking based on the
389 estimated mean of the marginal WTP distribution is consistent across all 2 Models and as
390 follows. *Certified US* (range \$6.05 -\$8.50) has the largest value estimate, *Guaranteed Tender*
391 (range \$3.29-\$4.23) has intermediate value estimate, and *Guaranteed Lean* (range \$2.29-
392 \$2.75) has the lowest value. Turning to the effects on mean values of the marginal WTP
393 estimates of an additional independent attribute (Δ) (Model 2), we find these to be negative
394 and significant for both the *Certified U.S.* (\$ -1.06) and *Guaranteed Tender* (\$ -0.56). This
395 finding is consistent with the findings of GS who found that when more label information
396 was used to describe the product, the cue attribute (*Certified U.S.*) was affected more than the
397 independent attributes (e.g., *Guaranteed Tender*). They ascribed this effect to the loss of
398 power in terms of quality signal suffered by the cue attribute. However, in our case no
399 statistically significant difference is found between cue and independent attributes (see 95%
400 confidence intervals of Model 2 in Table S2 of the supplementary materials). This suggests
401 that both cue and independent attributes are perceived by consumers as having a cue
402 component. Finally, we provide separate evidence on the scale effects by introducing the
403 additional independent attribute (δ) in the second half of the sequence in Model 2. The
404 estimate for the scale shifter is positive and significant, implying more determinism in choice
405 in the second half of the sequence and in the presence of additional food descriptors.

406 In Experiment B (first two columns of Table 2), the independent attribute added in the
407 second half is *Sell-By Date*, while the independent attributes *Guaranteed Tender*, *Guaranteed*
408 *Lean* and the cue attribute *Certified U.S.* were part of all choice tasks. The relative ranking of
409 the estimated means of the marginal WTPs is as follows. *Certified U.S.* (\$6.04-\$6.44)
410 followed by *Guaranteed Tender* (\$2.89-\$3.40), then by *Guaranteed Lean* (\$2.09-\$2.26), and
411 by *Sell-By Date* (\$2.19-\$2.20) in both EC models, except for the *Sell-By Date* (\$2.19) and
412 *Guaranteed Lean* (\$2.09) attributes, which are ranked as third and fourth value estimate

413 respectively in Model 1. Turning to the effects on the mean values of the marginal WTP
414 estimates of an additional independent attribute (Δ) (Model 2), we find these to be negative
415 and significant for the *Certified US* (\$ -1.04) and *Guaranteed Lean* (\$ -0.47), and positive and
416 significant for *Guaranteed Tender* (\$ 1.00). Finally, we report a negative and significant
417 estimate for the scale effect (δ).

418 In Experiment C (last two columns of Table 2) the independent attribute added is
419 *Enhanced Omega-3 Acids*, while all others are in the entire sequence. The relative ranking of
420 the estimated means of the marginal WTPs for *Certified U.S.* (range \$4.03–\$4.90) and
421 *Guaranteed Tender* (range \$1.80–\$1.82) is stable at the top, albeit with a lower value than
422 from Experiment A and B across all error component models. Looking at the magnitude of
423 the marginal WTP estimates for the independent attribute *Sell-By Date*, we note that this is
424 much smaller in C than in A and B. Also, the estimated means of the marginal WTP for the
425 additional independent attribute *Enhanced Omega-3 Acids* are smaller than those of the other
426 independent attributes added in Experiments A (e.g. *Guaranteed Lean*) and B (e.g. *Sell-by*
427 *Date*). In our case, it seems that the diminishing marginal utility from an extra attribute is
428 conditional to the number of attributes used as conjectured by Lusk (2003b). Unfortunately,
429 we cannot control for the effect of order on the estimated value for this attribute coefficient
430 (e.g., when it is in 3rd or 4th position). Thus, it may also be that the attribute itself has a lower
431 value. The most interesting result emerging from Experiment C is that the WTP effects of an
432 additional independent attribute (Δ) are found to be consistently negative and significant only
433 for the cue attribute *Certified U.S.* (\$-1.123). All other independent attributes have
434 insignificant estimates of Δ . Hence, only the value estimates for the cue attributes are
435 significantly affected by the addition of independent food attributes. Turning to the effects of
436 the second half of the sequence on the scale of the error, we find these to be significant and

437 positive (implying more deterministic choice and/or higher preference discrimination), which
438 could be due to learning effects or better discrimination due to the additional information.

439 Table 2 also reports the information criteria used to decipher the relative fit of the various
440 models. The lower the information criterion value, the better is the fit. The reduction in the
441 AIC and BIC statistics in models 1 and 2 indicate that Model 2 is superior to Model 1 in all
442 Experiments (e.g., A, B, and C).

443

444 **7. Main findings and Conclusion**

445 In food CEs, understanding the extent to which estimates of marginal WTPs for product or
446 service attributes are influenced by the number and type of attributes presented to the
447 respondents has important implications for both study design and reliability of estimates.
448 Such implications can be extended to both hypothetical and non-hypothetical choice studies.
449 The research agenda aims to disentangle the important relationship between value estimates
450 and their context dependency.

451 To date, only the study by GS has analyzed the effect of introducing one additional food
452 attribute in a CE on food choice. Hence, scant information is available on how WTP
453 estimates are affected by varying the number of food attributes in a CE design; especially
454 when information potentially embedded in cue attributes becomes explicit by the addition of
455 independent attributes.

456 This study offers a novel methodological and empirical approach in analyzing the effects
457 of adding attribute information in CEs. It builds on previous knowledge in many respects:

- 458 1) First, and most importantly, this is the first study that uses models based on a complete
459 panel approach as opposed to an approach based on models from a split panel. This
460 allows us to capture two different sources of intra-panel variation (differential effects)
461 such as shifters of the scale factor and shifters of attribute-specific marginal WTP;
- 462 2) Second, the GS study and ours are the first studies to analyze the effects of food choice
463 complexity on WTP estimates by focusing on the different information type (cue versus
464 independent), rather than simply on the number of attributes in CE designs.

465 Results suggest that the number of attributes affects marginal WTP estimates, which is
466 consistent with some previous results in transportation (Hensher 2006b,) and in
467 environmental economics (Meyerhoff, Oehlmann and Weller 2014). They also suggest that
468 when complexity increases in CE designs due to the addition of more attributes, changes in
469 marginal WTP estimates not only depend on the number of attributes but also on the
470 functional role played by the attribute type: cue or independent attributes. This finding also
471 aligns with previous results linking individuals' processing strategies to both the functional
472 relationship between attributes in the choice set and their number (Hensher 2006a). Most
473 importantly, they also align with those from GS, which indicate that the WTPs for both the
474 cue attribute (e.g., *Certified US*) and the independent attributes (*Guaranteed Tender*,
475 *Guaranteed Lean*, and *Days Sell-by*) seem to significantly depend on the dimension of CE
476 designs when the number of attributes is changed from 3 to 4 (i.e., Experiment A) and from 4
477 to 5 (i.e., Experiment B) for both cue and independent attributes. However, when the number
478 of attributes increases from 5 to 6 (Experiment C), our results only confirm the finding of GS
479 regarding the effects of the cue attribute on marginal WTP estimates, since no significant
480 change is found for independent attributes. An overview of the main findings of our study is
481 exhibited in Table 3.

482 **Table 3. Overview of the main findings from Model 2 across Experiments**

	Experiment A	Experiment B	Experiment C
Marginal WTP Rankings¹			
<i>US certified</i>	1 st	1 st	1 st
<i>Tender</i>	2 nd	2 nd	2 nd
<i>Lean</i>	3 rd	3 th	3 rd
<i>Sell buy</i>		4 rd	4 th
<i>Enhanced</i>			5 th
<i>Omega-3 fatty acid</i>			
Scale and utility shifters²			
<i>Shift in scale (δ)</i>	Positive ^{***}	Negative*	Positive ^{***}
Δ <i>US certified</i>	Negative ^{***}	Negative ^{***}	Negative ^{***}
Δ <i>Tender</i>	Negative ^{***}	Positive ^{***}	Positive
Δ <i>Lean</i>		Negative ^{***}	Negative
Δ <i>Sell buy</i>			Negative

483 ¹ Relative ranking of the marginal WTPs for the attribute information across Experiments
 484 (e.g. A, B, and C).

485 ² Effects (e.g. positive and negative) and significance (e.g. ***, **, * indicate that parameters
 486 are statistically significant at 1%, 5% and 10% respectively) of the scale shifters and shifters
 487 for the attribute-specific marginal WTP across Experiments (e.g. A, B, and C).

488

489 As for the reason for this departure, we can only speculate. We suspect that the difference
 490 might be due to our use of the entire sequence of choices in the panel to estimate random

491 coefficients. This speculation is supported by the ancillary robustness analysis we conducted
492 in our data. In fact, when we applied the split panel approach used by GS to our data (see
493 supplementary material – Table S3), statistically significant differences in WTP estimates do
494 emerge for both independent and cue attributes (e.g., *Certified US*, *Guaranteed Tender*,
495 *Guaranteed Lean*, and *Sell-By Date*). Therefore, from a methodological perspective, our
496 study shows that the use of the entire sequence of choices in the panel, along with appropriate
497 behavioral models, can produce different results to the ones obtained from a simple random
498 parameter logit model using a split sequence approach. Moreover, we also show that the use
499 of a “within subjects” approach instead of a “between subjects” approach, together with the
500 adoption of a complete panel approach, also allows for a thorough investigation of the
501 differential effects and shifts in behaviors across treatments in experimentally designed
502 treatment-effect studies; such as differential information provision, mitigation of hypothetical
503 bias, context effects, etc.

504 Finally, from an empirical perspective, our findings show that the functional role played
505 by both cue and independent food attributes is affected by the dimension of the attributes
506 space. Specifically, our CE design consists of a relatively small number of attributes (from 3
507 to 4 and from 4 to 5), with both independent and cue attributes exhibiting a cue component,
508 and with a corresponding change in their marginal WTP estimate when adding a new
509 independent attribute for both cue and independent attributes. On the other hand, with a larger
510 attributes space (from 5 to 6), we find that only the cue attribute (*Certified US*) exhibits the
511 cue component. It is encouraging to compare this evidence with that found by Hensher
512 (2006a) in the field of transportation, who showed that an independent attribute such as the
513 mean-weighted average WTP for a specific attribute (i.e., time saving), was unaffected by the
514 design dimensionality after controlling for all design dimensions (i.e., number of choice sets,
515 attributes, alternatives, attribute levels, and range of attribute levels).

516 We hope that these findings can motivate other food CE researchers to delve into this
517 promising research area. For instance, future studies should investigate how WTPs for food
518 attributes are affected when varying other measures of design complexity such as its entropy,
519 the number of choice sets, attribute levels, alternatives, and ranges of attribute levels. As
520 DeShazo and Fermo (2002:pp.141) argued: “...economists should vary complexity across
521 survey instruments so that welfare estimates may be evaluated at either the optimal level of
522 complexity or the level of complexity most often encountered by respondents”. Further
523 research effort should also be placed on determining whether there is symmetry in effects
524 when increasing or decreasing attribute information load. For example, it would be
525 interesting to know what happens to marginal WTP estimates if information on attributes is
526 decreased from an initially richer set. That is, what if the cue and independent food attributes
527 are first used for profile descriptions and then are removed? If a constant budget reallocation
528 mechanism is in place, then the marginal effects on WTP for cue attributes should be positive
529 when independent attributes for which they proxy are removed. It is also possible that the
530 dimension of the attribute space could induce alterations in marginal WTPs through a
531 different mechanism such as “information overload”. While we recognized this in our study,
532 we have not directly tested this effect since information overload can have broader impacts
533 than task complexity. Future research should also examine respondents’ use of “heuristics”
534 when they intend to filter out irrelevant information when facing information overload or task
535 complexity. Also, while it is true that each of the independent attributes may not induce a
536 change in WTP estimates for the cue attribute, future studies should check if the joint
537 information of multiple independent attributes could do so. Lastly, future studies should also
538 test methodologically if a heterogeneous design such as that used by Sandor and Wedel
539 (2005) can improve statistical efficiency.

540

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