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**Valuing conservation benefits of disease control in wildlife: A choice experiment approach to bovine tuberculosis management in New Zealand’s native forests**

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**Abstract**

We assess the non-monetary environmental benefits that accrue incidentally in New Zealand (NZ) from pest management conducted primarily to control an animal disease, bovine tuberculosis (TB). TB is an infectious disease that is one of the world’s most serious animal health problems and, in many parts of the developing world, still a major mortality risk for humans. The incidence of TB in New Zealand (NZ) farmed livestock has been reduced progressively over the last 20 years, largely due to extensive and sustained population control of the main wildlife reservoir of disease, the introduced brushtail possum. Possums are also major pests that threaten indigenous forest biodiversity, and so extensive possum control for TB mitigation also incidental benefits conservation, but the extent and public value of this benefit has yet to be quantified. We conducted a choice experiment survey of the NZ public in an effort to value the native forest biodiversity benefits of TB-related possum control. We find strong public support for conservation outcomes consequent to TB-possum control in public native forests. The public place substantial value on the most observable biodiversity benefits of TB possum control, such as improved forest canopies and presence of native birds. The benefits, costs and values of TB-possum control are discussed in relation to the future directives of NZ’s TB control programme, which is headed toward first regional and then national level disease eradication.

Key words: New Zealand; bovine tuberculosis; possum control; non-market benefits; biodiversity; conservation values.

## 1 **1. Introduction**

2 Valuing the non-monetary environmental benefits of pest management conducted for commercial  
3 or human or animal health reasons is difficult and has rarely been attempted, but here we document  
4 an attempt to do so in the context of bovine tuberculosis management in New Zealand. Bovine  
5 tuberculosis (TB) is a chronic zoonotic disease of livestock that still poses a significant threat to  
6 livestock production and human health in many developing countries (Ayele et al., 2004). In  
7 developed countries, however, TB has mostly been eliminated from livestock by identifying and  
8 removing infected or potentially infected animals from livestock herds (Cousins, 2002). In some  
9 places, however, eradication is far more difficult because the disease has widely established in  
10 wildlife — in NZ's case, the brushtail possum (*Trichosurus vulpecula*; a small forest-dwelling  
11 marsupial introduced from Australia) has, since the 1960s, become the main wildlife reservoir of TB  
12 (Nugent et al., 2015). Possums (and in a few places, ferrets (*Mustela furo*)) are the only wildlife hosts  
13 able to independently sustain TB infection, and can re-infect cattle, therefore control or eradication  
14 of TB from livestock necessarily requires controlling or eradicating it from possums. Government-led  
15 efforts to eliminate TB from livestock were therefore expanded (in 1970s) to include lethal control of  
16 infected possum populations. This eventually evolved into a public-private partnership between the  
17 government and the livestock industries under a formal National Pest Management Plan for Bovine  
18 Tuberculosis (NPMP) that is implemented by a statutory agency (OSPRI/TBfree, formerly the Animal  
19 Health Board; Livingstone et al., 2015). Since the inception of the NPMP in 1994, TB-related possum  
20 control has been implemented over about 8 million ha (approx. 30% of NZ), and TB levels in livestock  
21 have fallen by more than 95% (Livingstone et al., 2015b). The NPMP was reviewed in 2014-15, and,  
22 as part of that, the cost of possum control was evaluated in relation to the value of not only the  
23 direct TB-related benefits but also of other indirect benefits (NZIER, 2015).

24 As part of that evaluation, this paper focuses on valuing the benefits to conservation from TB-related  
25 possum control. These benefits arise because possums, as an invasive species, are also major pests  
26 that directly threaten native forest biodiversity (as well as causing other damage in other spheres  
27 such as plantation forestry (Jacometti et al., 2007)). In addition, TB-possum control (usually by  
28 poisoning) within native forests also typically reduces densities of other invasive conservation pests  
29 such as rats and stoats, further reducing the overall threat to biodiversity (Didham et al., 2009;  
30 Byrom et al., 2016). Possum are arboreal. They feed mainly on leaves, flowers, and fruits of  
31 preferred trees and other plants nestlings (Nugent et al., 2000) and their browsing can cause or  
32 exacerbate forest canopy dieback (Nugent et al., 2000; Gormley et al., 2012) and reduce the  
33 abundance of preferred sub-canopy plant species. In addition, as occasional omnivores, they also eat  
34 insects, bird's eggs and nestlings and even carrion (Nugent et al., 2000), adding to the devastating

1 effect of other introduced small mammal pests on NZs native fauna (Brown et al., 2015). The NZ  
2 public is deeply aware of these adverse impacts and almost universally sees possums and other non-  
3 native mammalian predators as pests to be exterminated (Russell, 2014). Because of those threats,  
4 particularly to indigenous biodiversity, the Department of Conservation (DOC), regional councils, and  
5 private conservation groups impose intensive possum control on many areas of public and private  
6 land, and would do so vastly more widely if they could afford it. Thus, the large amount of possum  
7 control undertaken for TB-related purposes produces co-benefits to conservation; especially where  
8 agencies and groups focussed on conservation of native forest biodiversity would like to see control  
9 imposed but cannot afford it. However, those co-benefits have been only partially quantified in  
10 biological terms (Byrom et al., 2016), and not valued at all in economic terms. Despite the  
11 substantial uncertainty about the exact nature and size of those co-benefits, the need for an  
12 economic valuation of them arose from the likelihood that on-going governmental funding (on  
13 behalf of the general public) of TB-related possum control would partly depend on the value of the  
14 ancillary benefits to conservation that it provides. Put simply, many New Zealanders are strongly  
15 aware of the damage that invasive alien pests (and weeds) cause in both productive and native  
16 ecosystems, and therefore desire action to be taken to reduce that damage (Russell 2014), and here  
17 we focus on determining how much they are willing to pay to mitigate part of that damage.

18 In this study we therefore aimed to quantify the economic value of the benefits to conservation of  
19 indigenous biodiversity in native forest ecosystems that flow from TB-possum control not previously  
20 available by employing a choice experiment survey of the NZ public's willingness to pay (WTP). This  
21 study adds to the limited empirical evidence base and also contributes to developing  
22 interdisciplinary approaches to evaluate pest management programmes by combining economic and  
23 biological measures of value (Laurila-Pant et al., 2015) to form an assessment of biodiversity  
24 outcomes that integrates natural and social science methods. To create a direct linkage between  
25 public preferences for biodiversity outcomes with assessment of possum control effectiveness and  
26 scale, our analysis relies on an approach that engages ecological expertise to characterise some key  
27 biodiversity attributes as readily understandable continuous measures of TB-possum control  
28 outcomes.

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## 1 **2. Methods and materials**

### 2 *2.1. Background to the use of a Choice Experiment approach*

3 In face of ongoing invasive incursions, declining acceptability of some existing response methods,  
4 and intensifying land use, budgets for pest management are typically inadequate (Goldson et al.,  
5 2015). This drives the need for robust prioritisation systems, and Cost Benefit Analysis (CBA) has  
6 become a standard decision tool (Goldson et al., 2015). However, non-market benefits, such as  
7 improved environmental outcomes are difficult to monetise and so are usually ignored (Shwiff et al.,  
8 2013). Whilst perhaps secondary to commercial imperatives (Slaney et al., 2010), omission of these  
9 benefits may lead to significant undervaluation of response programmes (Holmes et al., 2009;  
10 Rosenberger et al., 2012). To overcome this, numerous studies have used non-market valuation  
11 (NMV) to estimate (for example) recreation values associated with forest resources (Riera et al.,  
12 2012), but there are few estimates of the non-market benefits from management of invasive species  
13 (Meldrum et al., 2013) or of public willingness to pay for protection and/or enhancement of forest  
14 biodiversity (Czajkowski et al., 2014; Giergiczny et al., 2015).

15 NZ's export markets value biodiversity as part of the 'clean and green' brand (Tait et al., 2016), and  
16 international tourists value the 'natural' experience which native biodiversity provides (Sun et al.,  
17 2015). The recreational opportunities and aesthetic benefits provided by native ecosystems  
18 combined with the uniqueness of NZ's indigenous biodiversity (because it evolved in the absence of  
19 any terrestrial mammals; Brown et al., 2015) has played a major role in forming cultural identity  
20 (Roberts et al., 2015). However, these benefits have rarely been quantified. Kerr and Cullen (1995)  
21 used a contingent valuation approach to show that protection of vulnerable rare species was, in that  
22 context, the most important benefit of possum control, and they estimated an annual mean WTP for  
23 possum control of \$300 per adult. In another CV application, Yao et al. (2010) found households  
24 were WTP \$42 and \$82 annually to support public native tree planting programs on private and  
25 public land respectively. However, the validity and reliability of the contingent valuation approach  
26 has long been questioned, particularly for valuing abstract or complex phenomena (Diamond and  
27 Hausman, 1994).

28 However, choice experiments have relatively recently emerged as a more sophisticated non-market  
29 methodological approach that is considered capable of accounting for the complexity and  
30 abstractness of biodiversity concepts in valuation (Meyerhoff et al., 2009; Bartkowski et al., 2015,  
31 Haefele et al., 2016). In NZ, choice experiments have been applied to estimate values for native  
32 biodiversity outcomes within a planted forestry context (Yao et al., 2014). Globally, there have also

1 been some TB-related uses of choice experiments (Bennett and Willis 2008; Bennett and Balcombe,  
2 2012) but these are not directly relevant to TB management in NZ.

3 Choice experiments are based in Random Utility Theory in which a respondent's utility is  
4 decomposed into an observable deterministic part and an unobserved random component; and  
5 Lancaster's characteristics theory of value in which a good can be decomposed into its component  
6 attributes (Lancaster, 1966). This framework allows for preferences for the native forest good to be  
7 represented by the biodiversity attributes it contains, whilst econometrically accounting for  
8 unobserved influences on respondents utility not captured by the biodiversity attributes. This  
9 survey based method simulates a market in situations where no market exists. A good comprised of  
10 a bundle of attributes is offered at a given price, with respondents selecting their preferred  
11 combination of attributes and price (see Hensher et al. (2015) for substantive detail of the  
12 methodology). Responses are typically analysed within a probabilistic econometric framework to  
13 derive population estimates of changes in welfare for a substantive coverage. We also followed the  
14 guidance to best-practice in NMV of forest goods and services provided by Riera et al. (2012).

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## 16 *2.2. Choice experiment survey development and administration*

17 We characterised a set of biodiversity attributes reflecting the adverse effects of possums in New  
18 Zealand's native forest, and used these to describe the conservation outcomes of various levels of  
19 TB-related possum control in such forests. This characterisation was undertaken primarily at  
20 workshops involving the research team and NZ's leading researchers in native forest conservation.  
21 Participants debated and eventually agreed on what biological changes in native forest ecosystems  
22 were likely to result from TB-possum control, and how those changes could be characterised in the  
23 simple terms required for public surveying. Four broad areas of conservation benefit were  
24 considered as the most relevant to TB-possum control in the context of a national survey,  
25 improvements in: a) forest canopy cover; b) the abundance of large native invertebrates; c) native  
26 birds; and d) within-forest plants. As already noted, possums (often in conjunction with other pests)  
27 can adversely affect all of these components of native forest biodiversity because they are arboreal  
28 omnivores (Nugent et al., 2000). To be able to offer a wide range of conservation outcomes that  
29 were dependent on the scale and intensity of TB-possum control and consequent outcomes, four  
30 scenarios were developed. The first involved little or no TB-possum control in native forest on public  
31 land (resulting in no additional protection above the background level already provided by DOC). The  
32 second involved periodic low-intensity control of possums alone, and the third involved more

1 frequent high intensity possum control that also produced additional control of other small mammal  
2 pests (particularly rats). The fourth involved frequent possum control plus deliberate co-investment  
3 in more frequent control of rats and other pests.

4 The second and third scenarios were assumed to span the intensity of TB-possum control currently  
5 conducted in public native forest. The first scenario represents a major reduction in effort through  
6 either complete cessation of TB-possum control, or (more realistically) where TB-possum control  
7 (mostly on- or near-farm only) is undertaken on a non-orchestrated basis by industry and affected  
8 landowners (Animal Health Board, 2009), while the fourth scenario represented an expansion of  
9 management effort above current levels.

10 In framing the different levels of conservation benefits arising under the four scenarios, we  
11 recognised that a crucially important design principle was the need to describe the benefits from TB-  
12 possum control *relative* to those delivered by DOC. DOC manages approx. 9m ha of Public  
13 Conservation Land (PCL). To achieve a cost-effective method for actively conserving a full array of  
14 NZ ecosystem types, DOC has ranked 850 high-priority ecosystem management units spanning  
15 about 3m ha of PCL (Leathwick et al., 2012; Leathwick and Wright, 2012), but is only able to  
16 implement pest control in a subset of these. There is substantial overlap between the areas  
17 requiring possum control under DOC's priorities and those that are a priority for TB-possum control.  
18 In 2013, TB possum control was undertaken on approx. 1.75m ha PCL, with approx. 0.6m ha within  
19 DOC priority areas.

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1 **Table 1** The four broad attributes of native forest biodiversity affected by possums (in conjunction  
 2 with rats and predators), showing how we characterised and quantified (in broad approximation  
 3 terms) the increasing levels of benefit the we presumed would result from increasing levels of  
 4 possum and rat and predator control relative the levels under baseline management by DOC. Note  
 5 that possums are primarily arboreal foliovores able to browse plants at all levels within a forest, but  
 6 also omnivorously prey on large insects and birds (Nugent et al., 2000).

Native forest biodiversity attributes	No TBfree management No increase in protection above DOC level	TBfree management levels Increase in protection above DOC levels		
		TB-only possum control	Frequent TB possum and rat control	Frequent possum, rat and predator control
Health (foliar cover) of canopy tree species	<b>Heavy browse and substantial dieback</b> of vulnerable canopy species	<b>Most</b> TBfree managed forest with healthy unbrowsed trees. <b>100%</b> increase in protection above DOC level	<b>All</b> TBfree managed forest with healthy unbrowsed trees. <b>150%</b> increase in protection above DOC level	Same improvement (150%)
Abundance of large native invertebrates	All large native invertebrate populations <b>severely affected or eliminated</b>	<b>Some</b> possum-vulnerable large invertebrates partially protected but most still affected. <b>20%</b> increase in protection above DOC level	<b>Most</b> vulnerable large invertebrates well protected but a few still affected. <b>120%</b> increase in protection above DOC level	<b>All</b> large invertebrates protected in TBfree managed forest. <b>150%</b> increase in protection above DOC level
Abundance of native birds	All native birds threatened by possums <b>severely affected or eliminated</b>	<b>Some</b> possum-vulnerable native birds partially protected. <b>25%</b> increase in protection above DOC level	<b>Most</b> possum-vulnerable native birds protected. <b>100%</b> increase in protection above DOC level	<b>All</b> TBfree managed forest with healthy native bird populations. <b>150%</b> increase in protection above DOC level
Health of within-forest plants	All vulnerable within-forest plants <b>heavily defoliated, limiting regeneration</b>	<b>Some</b> but not all vulnerable within-forest plants protected <b>100%</b> increase in protection above DOC level	<b>All</b> TBfree managed forest with healthy unbrowsed within-forest plants <b>150%</b> increase in protection above DOC level	Same improvement (150%)
Annual tax contribution	\$0	\$25, \$50, \$75, \$100		

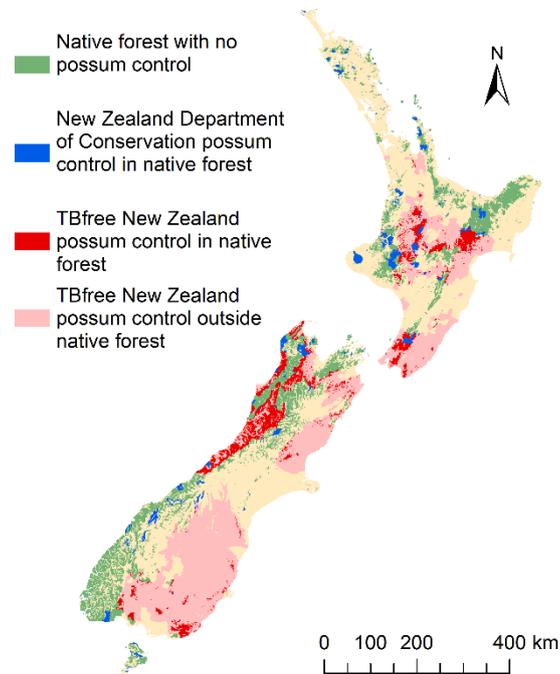
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9 For each of the four management scenarios, the levels of biodiversity outcomes were determined,  
 10 and described relative to those that would otherwise be provided by DOC under the 'no TB-possum  
 11 control' scenario (Table 1). This was intended to enable respondents to consider how TB-possum  
 12 control benefits compared in scale and intensity to the conservation benefits that they already pay  
 13 for (through taxes) for DOC's purpose-led management of biodiversity, providing respondents the  
 14 ability to express their preference for benefits additional to those delivered by DOC. To help  
 15 respondents assess the scale of TB-possum control activities relative to DOC's possum control

1 activities, we graphically characterised possum control activities nationally in 2013 (Fig. 1) in order to  
2 highlight the much greater scale of TB-related control relative to level currently affordable by DOC

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5 **Fig. 1.** Spatial extent of TBfree New Zealand Ltd and New Zealand Department of Conservation (DOC)  
6 possum control in New Zealand native forest. Note the area of native forest under TBfree New  
7 Zealand management (red) is substantially larger than the area in which possums are controlled by  
8 DOC (blue)

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10 Twelve choice sets were constructed, each made up of three alternatives, employing a  $d_p$ -efficient  
11 fractional factorial design optimised for Multinomial Logit using Ngenet<sup>TM</sup> (Bliemer et al., 2008). The  
12 design was blocked into two with each respondent presented with six choice sets (an example  
13 choice set is provided as Supplementary Material). This is a statistical efficiency approach that  
14 minimises the determinant of the asymptotic variance-covariance matrix with the aim to produce  
15 data that generates parameter estimates with as small as possible standard errors. Coefficient priors  
16 for generating the initial experimental design were derived from literature with this design used in a  
17 pilot study of 150 NZ residents using an online panel conducted in January 2014. Coefficient  
18 estimates derived from Multinomial Logit modelling of this data were used to update the  
19 experimental design applied to the remainder of the sample (n=663). Each choice task contained

1 the 'No TB-possum management' outcomes, paired with two options depicting different levels of  
2 outcomes with management. The survey instrument comprised three sections, the first explored  
3 respondent's attitudes and experiences regarding native forest, the second presented the choice  
4 experiment, while the third contained demographic questions.

5 The first section of the survey contained five-point likert-scale questions used to explore the relative  
6 importance (very important, somewhat important, neutral, somewhat unimportant, not important)  
7 respondents placed on native forest providing habitat for native flora and fauna (the attributes  
8 valued in the choice experiment) against other aspects of value that the public derives from native  
9 forest including employment and recreation. (Fig. 2 shows the complete list of use categories  
10 presented to respondents). A further set of questions were used to explore the types of forest based  
11 activities respondents participated in during the previous twelve months (open response) and the  
12 frequency of participation in those activities (Fig. 3 shows the frequency category options  
13 presented). The full internet-based survey of NZ residents was conducted in February 2014 using a  
14 national database maintained by Research Now ([www.researchnow.com](http://www.researchnow.com)). This facilitated a quota-  
15 based sampling approach by age, gender, education, occupation, income, household size, and  
16 location using NZ population level distributions (comparison of sample and population demographics  
17 presented in Supplementary Material)

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### 21 *2.3. Statistical analysis*

22 To allow modelling of variation in individual preferences for biodiversity outcomes we fit a Random  
23 Parameter Logit Error Component (RPLEC) model to the data (Train, 2009). The error component  
24 specification is chosen as appropriate to accommodate correlation between the two management  
25 options conducting possum control versus the no possum management option in each choice set.  
26 We specify attribute parameters to randomly vary according to a normal distribution across  
27 respondents but remain constant across choices for the same respondent (Revelt and Train, 1998).  
28 Other distributions considered included triangular, uniform, and log-normal with the choice of  
29 normal distribution determined by model fit based on the Log-Likelihood function. To accommodate  
30 behavioural plausible heterogeneity in preferences towards the tax attribute, while ensuring  
31 meaningful WTP estimates, the cost parameter is specified as a constrained triangular distribution  
32 with mean equal to standard deviation (Hensher and Greene, 2015; Bliemer and Rose, 2013). The  
33 choice of cost parameter distribution is an econometric consideration based on the empirical

1 distribution of the derived WTP estimates and ensures that the sign of the parameter estimate is  
2 behaviourally plausible throughout the entire population. Estimated choice probabilities for the  
3 RPLEC were simulated using Nlogit™5.0 based on 750 Shuffled Halton draws. When choosing their  
4 preferred option in each choice task, respondents may ignore some attributes and base their  
5 decisions on those remaining. This behaviour is commonly referred to as attribute non-attendance  
6 and can influence welfare estimates (Kragt, 2013). In a separate analysis we test for this influence  
7 using debriefing questions following each choice task (Carlsson et al., 2010).

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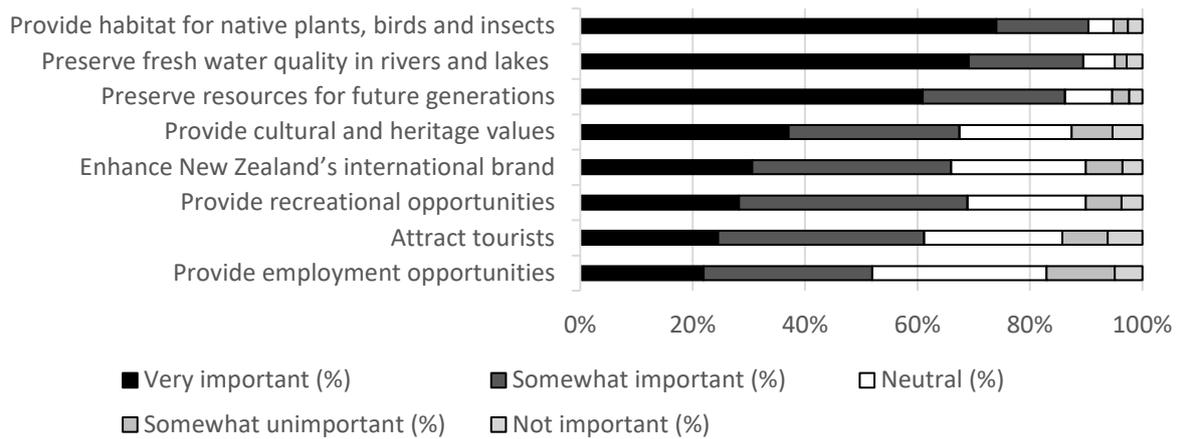
10 **3. Results and discussion**

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12 *3.1 Patterns of response*

13 A response rate of 15% was achieved, resulting in a total of 813 completed surveys being usable for  
14 the choice analysis generating 4,878 choice observations. Demographics did not depart from  
15 national Census survey data, except that the sample contained fewer than expected respondents  
16 with high school level qualifications only, and more with tertiary level qualifications (Supplementary  
17 Material). Examining responses to likert-scale questions, habitat for native flora and fauna was the  
18 most important use with 74% of respondents considering this use to be very important (Fig. 2).  
19 Commercial use was deemed to be the least important of the factors considered with just 22% of  
20 respondents considering providing employment opportunities as very important. However this type  
21 of use also generated the largest number of neutral responses, suggesting that the specific type of  
22 job creation may influence respondent support. Interestingly, respondents considered attracting  
23 tourism to be relatively less important in spite of NZ's native environment being a major reason for  
24 international visitors travelling to NZ. Overall, these results suggest that passive-use values are a  
25 more significant driver of importance to NZ residents (compared with direct-use activities),  
26 paralleling (for example) the high passive-use value placed on National Parks by the USA public  
27 (Haefele et al., 2016). This means that although many residents may not directly engage with native  
28 forests, they are still valued for the benefits they provide to the wider public, such as existence,  
29 bequest, and option values.

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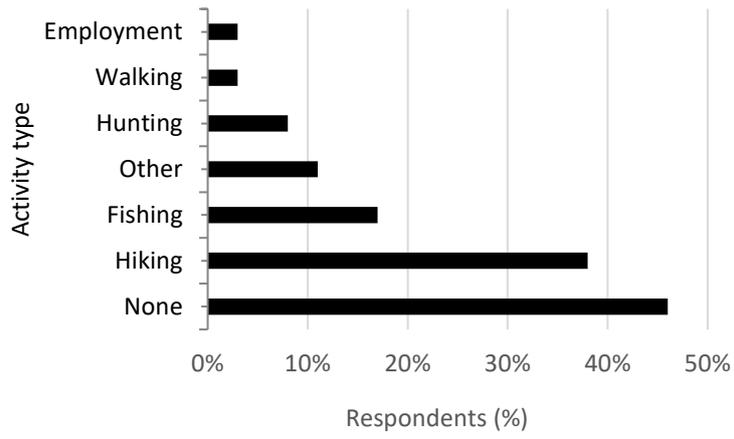
2 **Fig. 2.** Importance of native forest uses to survey respondents

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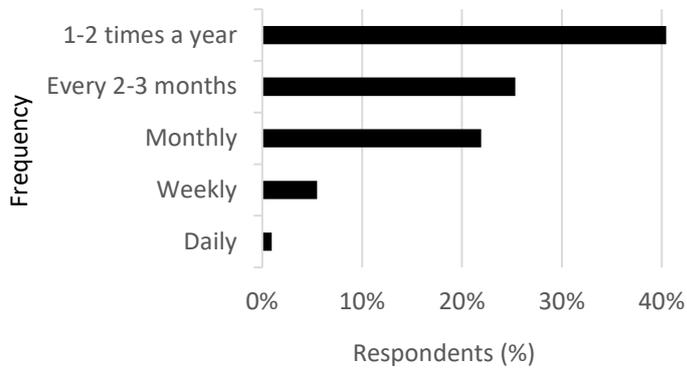
4 A small majority of respondents (54%) had participated in at least one activity based in a native  
 5 forest in the previous twelve months (Fig. 3). Hiking had the highest level of participation. Walking  
 6 and hiking (also commonly known trekking) are closely related, with hiking generally defined as  
 7 more demanding walking over terrain and distance. Few respondents undertook employment  
 8 activities in native forest. The 'other' activities category comprised a diverse range of uses including  
 9 sightseeing, bird watching, swimming and camping. The total sum of uses is greater than the sample  
 10 size as some respondents participated in more than one activity. Although it appears the number of  
 11 respondents engaging in activities is substantial, most do so infrequently. Most participants had  
 12 engaged in activities only once or twice in a year (40%) and just 6% on a weekly basis. This pattern of  
 13 engagement is consistent with native forests being generally distant from major populaces making  
 14 access more difficult.

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4 **Fig. 3.** Survey respondents' activity type and frequency in NZ native forests

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1 **Table 2**

2 Random Parameter Logit Error Component Model Estimates

	Coeff. (st. err.)		St. Dev. (st. err.)	
<i>Parameters in utility function</i>				
ASC-No TFree management option	-3.99***	(0.73)		
Important use as native habitat	1.01**	(0.05)		
Canopy tree species	2.14***	(0.31)	2.01***	(0.41)
Large native invertebrates	0.35***	(0.05)	0.01	(0.92)
Native birds	0.72***	(0.05)	0.49***	(0.09)
Within-forest plants	0.50***	(0.08)	0.02	(1.69)
Annual tax contribution	-0.99***	(0.73)	-0.99***	(0.01)
<i>Heterogeneity in mean of random parameters</i>				
Visits to native forest*Canopy tree species	0.005***	(0.001)		
Visits to native forest*Native birds	0.002***	(0.001)		
<i>Standard deviation of latent random effects</i>				
Expanded management options	4.39***	(0.61)		
Log likelihood	-3674			
McFadden Pseudo R <sup>2</sup>	0.33			
AIC	7370			
Number of observations	4,878			

3 Note: \*\*\*, \*\* Significance at 1% and 5% level.

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5 Attribute non-attendance analysis revealed that canopy tree species was ignored in 6% of choice  
6 tasks, native invertebrates 9%, native birds 6%, within-forest plants 8%, and tax contribution 18%. A  
7 restricted model specifying zero utility to ignored attributes was fitted (Kaye-Blake et al., 2009) and  
8 found to out-perform models not incorporating attribute non-attendance behaviour, and was  
9 therefore adopted in reporting (Table 2).

10 Biodiversity attributes are modelled in levels as percentage improvements in biodiversity outcomes  
11 in TFree managed native forests (Table 2). All the TFree-possum control attributes were highly  
12 statistically significant indicating that they were important factors in respondent's preferred  
13 management option. Respondents were more likely to choose a management option that had higher  
14 levels of protection for biodiversity outcomes, with changes in protection of canopy tree species  
15 having the largest influence, while they were less likely to choose options imposing greater tax  
16 contributions. Estimates of the standard deviation of parameter distributions for canopy tree  
17 species, native birds and tax are statistically significant indicating preferences heterogeneity, while

1 preferences for improvements in large native invertebrates and within forest plants appear constant  
2 across the population. The relatively large standard deviation associated with canopy tree species  
3 shows substantive preference heterogeneity for improvements in this outcome indicating disutility  
4 for some individuals. We also explored heterogeneity in preferences by specifying the number of  
5 visits to native forests as the source of variation of the parameter mean across individuals.

6 Respondents who believed that native forests were important to 'provide habitat for native plants,  
7 birds and insects' (Fig. 2) were more likely to choose a management option with improved  
8 biodiversity outcomes (dummy variable = 1 if important or very important, 0 otherwise). An  
9 alternative specific constant (ASC) is specified indicating the status-quo 'No TBFree management'  
10 option (ASC=1 if SQ, 0 otherwise). The significant negative parameter estimated for the ASC  
11 indicates a relatively strong preference overall for TB-possum management that avoids the poorer  
12 outcomes associated with the 'No TB-possum management' option. However, 13% of respondents  
13 chose the 'No TB-possum management' option at least once over the six choice tasks presented to  
14 them; 4% of these respondents chose this option only once, while 3% chose this option in all choice  
15 tasks. None of the status-quo behaviour were identified as protest responses (Meyerhoff and Liebe,  
16 2010) and all were included for analysis.

17 The significant standard deviation of the latent effects suggests there are sources of unobserved  
18 heterogeneity associated with the two management options (Scarpa et al., 2005). Respondent  
19 preferences for environmental improvements may be influenced by their spatial relationship to  
20 where those amenities might occur (Tait et al., 2012), so we tested for spatial or regional difference  
21 in respondents preferences, but found no evidence to support this possibility using data on the total  
22 amount of managed forest within a respondents region ( $p > 0.1$ ) or the distance to the nearest  
23 managed forest ( $p > 0.1$ ).

### 24 *3.2. Willingness-to-pay estimates*

25 The model parameters in Table 2 were used to estimate respondent's WTP for the biodiversity  
26 benefits generated indirectly from TBfree possum control in native forests. Marginal WTP was  
27 simulated from the unconditional parameter distribution accounting for significant preference  
28 heterogeneity in random parameters (Table 3).

29 Respondents were WTP most for improvements in canopy tree species. This may simply reflect that  
30 the greater visual impact of heavy tree defoliation by possums, relative to that of changes in the  
31 other three attributes. These WTP estimates are consistent with other relevant choice experiment  
32 studies. In Spain public WTP for a 1% increase in native forest has been valued at €1.4 (Hoyos et al.,

2012), broadly matching our WTP per 1% of native tree canopy protection. Similarly, regeneration of deteriorated forest in Poland has been valued at €0.4 per 1% increase in area of forest regenerated (Czajkowski et al., 2009); and WTP for increases in forest conservation areas in Finland has been estimated at €4 per 1% increase in area (Lehtonen et al., 2003). In NZ, WTP for increases in native birds and insects in native forests from few to many has been estimated at \$122 and \$94 respectively (Kerr and Sharp, 2008). In a plantation forest context, WTP for an increase from 0.5% to 10% of forests where Kiwi calls are heard has been estimated at \$28 (Yao et al., 2014). Although these comparisons vary over research contexts and design elements, they indicate that WTP estimated here are within the range recorded by others.

10

11 **Table 3**

12

13 Biodiversity attributes marginal willingness to pay

	Median WTP for each 1% increase in protection (New Zealand \$/person/year)
Canopy tree species	2.02 (1.53 - 2.50)
Large native invertebrates	0.35 (0.29 - 0.42)
Native birds	0.72 (0.64 - 0.79)
Within-forest plants	0.51 (0.37 - 0.63)

14 Note: 5<sup>th</sup> and 95<sup>th</sup> percentiles in brackets.

15

16 To estimate the total national value placed on biodiversity benefits provided by TB-possum control, we construct a compensating surplus estimate. This takes into account variation between different types of native forest in the degree to which possum control produces the biodiversity benefits we depicted. This variation arises from the major differences in species composition between forest types and the strong feeding preferences of possum (Nugent et al., 2000) – some common forest types have canopies comprised almost entirely of trees such as the various beech (*Nothofagus*) species that are unpalatable to possums, hence those forest canopies are unaffected by possums and therefore do not change in response to possum control. Others, such as tawa (*Beilschmiedia tawa*), have many more possum-palatable species in the canopy, so possum control produces the substantial improvement in canopy health that we depicted (Nugent et al., 2010, Gormley et al., 2012). However, possum control in both beech and tawa dominated forests is likely to benefit both birds and large invertebrates (Byrom et al., 2016). The compensating surplus estimate also needed to take into account differences in outcomes that depend on which control method was used. In

1 most areas of native forest on PCL, TB-possum control is undertaken using an aerially distributed  
2 poison that also kills other small mammal conservation pests, but in some area the primary method  
3 is ground-based trapping which largely does not affect pest species other than possums, and  
4 therefore is unlikely to be as beneficial to birds and invertebrates (Byrom et al., 2016).

5 To account for these factors in the valuation, we combined spatial data on 25 forest classes defined  
6 in the Forest Service Mapping Series 6, an ecological survey of NZ's indigenous forests, with spatial  
7 data on aerial and ground control application (Ollivier, 2008). Delphi survey approaches have  
8 recently been employed within a similar context by Giergiczny et al. (2015) and this study employs a  
9 modified Delphi approach (Linstone and Turoff, 1975) in which expert pest managers and ecologists  
10 were engaged to assign a percentage improvement to each combination of forest type, control  
11 method, and biodiversity attribute<sup>1</sup>. This process estimated improvements of a) 54% in forest  
12 canopy cover b) 24% in the abundance of large native invertebrates c) 24% in native birds d) 49% in  
13 within-forest plants. These improvements combined yield a value of \$NZ 156 (\$132 - \$179) per  
14 person annually relative to the magnitude of benefits achieved by DOC. If multiplied across the  
15 approx. number of taxpayers in NZ (2,773,911), total WTP would greatly exceed the amount of  
16 money actually spent on TB-possum control on all lands in recent years (\$50-60m annually;  
17 Livingstone et al., 2015), and also the level of total spending on pest control by DOC. However, that  
18 estimate would not take into account the potential for non-response bias, which is, those that did  
19 not respond to the survey may have different WTP than respondents. Some people for example, are  
20 strongly opposed to the use of aerial poison baiting for pest control, regardless of whether used by  
21 DOC and TBfreeNZ (Green and Rohan, 2012), so could conceivably have a negative WTP. However,  
22 continued wide public support for the method suggests that this group is a small minority. To derive  
23 a credible lower limit, we assumed the mean WTP for non-respondents was zero, we consider that is  
24 highly conservative, given the broad support for conservation identified by other surveys (DOC,  
25 2015). With that assumption national WTP for conservation benefits from TB-possum control is  
26 estimated at approx. \$66m annually (in 2013 \$NZ) and are therefore still greater than what is  
27 currently spent on obtaining them. That is consistent with evidence that the great majority of New  
28 Zealanders see possums as major threats to conservation and industry and that they should, ideally,  
29 be eradicated (Russell, 2014).

### 30 *3.3. Policy implications and uptake*

31 The results generated here were subsequently employed directly in CBA of OSPRI TB control  
32 activities (OSPRI, 2016). The ability to widen the scope of possible benefits demonstrated the gain to

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<sup>1</sup> Two control methods x four biodiversity attributes x 25 forest classes = 200 areas in total.

1 managers in valuing programme outcomes not typically considered, nor able to be measured using  
2 conventional market-based economic method. These results underpinned a case for continued  
3 government support (on behalf of the public) of the TBfree management programme in NZ. Until  
4 now the NPMP for TB has focussed on reducing the threat to agricultural industries, having  
5 successfully achieved that to the extent that TB-related production losses and threats to NZ's ability  
6 to trade are minimal (Livingstone et al., 2015). Local and central government have contributed to the  
7 cost of the NPMP largely on a 'good neighbour' or 'exacerbator' basis because public and non-  
8 agricultural lands harboured TB-infected wildlife that undermine effort to reduce the disease on  
9 agricultural lands. However, the success of the NPMP has undermined the case for continued  
10 government support for what has reduced to a now modest benefit to agriculture. As a  
11 consequence, both the last two reviews of the NPMP in 2008-09 and 2014-15 canvassed the option  
12 of abandoning the NPMP (as a nationally coordinated and funded plan) in favour of locally based TB-  
13 possum control programmes funded by the direct agricultural beneficiaries. Such programmes  
14 would focus primarily on agricultural lands and only extend modest distances into the large tracts of  
15 native forest that comprise the bulk of such ecosystems.

16 The most recent review of the NPMP also canvassed national eradication of TB from wildlife as an  
17 option (PGG, 2015). That option required TB-possum control over 2-3m ha of native forest mostly  
18 remote from farmland not previously controlled i.e. at least as much again as the area depicted in  
19 Fig. 1. The benefit to agriculture from eliminating TB from those remote areas of native forest lies in  
20 enabling complete cessation of TB management everywhere. The direct and immediate benefit to  
21 agriculture of reduced TB risk to livestock would be minimal. In this context, our finding that the  
22 public are WTP substantial additional tax for the immediate benefits to conservation from TB-  
23 possum control in such areas therefore provided support for the national eradication option.  
24 Subsequently, government and industry agreed in 2016 not only to continue to fund the NPMP but  
25 also to adopt the objective of nationally eradicating the disease from livestock and wildlife by 2055,  
26 with government contributing approximately 40% of the annual cost of approximately \$60-65m p.a.  
27 over the next 15 years, both as a 'good neighbour', and in return for biodiversity and environmental  
28 benefits (PGG, 2015).

29 Globally, there appear to be few, if any, similar studies aimed at valuing the incidental benefits of  
30 pest management actions, but there are parallel studies showing (for example) greater willingness to  
31 pay for forest carbon sequestration in Mexico where the co-benefits of that were higher (Torres et  
32 al., 2015). More broadly, however, this study adds to an increasing number of examples where  
33 choice experiments have been used to assess willingness to pay for the direct benefits of

1 conservation or restoration activities through accurate depiction of a wide range of possible  
2 outcomes (Hjerpe and Hussain, 2016).

### 3 **4. Conclusions**

4 We conclude New Zealanders are willing to pay substantially more for additional conservation  
5 benefits over and above the amounts they are already paying for (by way of the tax revenue used to  
6 fund DOC pest control). Further, they appear willing to pay for those benefits even if they are  
7 derived incidentally from pest management conducted primarily for other purposes (in this case, the  
8 eradication of bovine tuberculosis from New Zealand). Further still, they appear to value protection  
9 of the forest as whole (through preservation of an intact forest canopy) than on lesser components  
10 of the ecosystem.

11 This study has demonstrated how non-market valuation methods based on choice experiments can  
12 be used to help inform high-level pest management decisions. By providing evidence that ancillary  
13 or co-benefits are seen by the public as worthwhile and important, our findings supported the case  
14 for governmental support for a pest management programme that otherwise might have been seen  
15 as solely being an industry problem. That enabled a more comprehensive assessment of all of the  
16 benefits (direct and ancillary) generated by TB management activities. By contributing significantly  
17 (we believe) to an overall analysis of costs and benefits, this study helped in achieving broad multi-  
18 party stakeholder commitment to a long-term multi-decade programme.

19 The specific outcome of this study is unlikely to be relevant to the management of TB in wildlife  
20 elsewhere in the world, because lethal control of wildlife hosts to low densities using poisoning are  
21 extremely unlikely to be acceptable in other developed countries where the disease has established  
22 in wildlife. Lethal control of TB-infected badgers (*Meles meles*) in Britain, for example, is highly  
23 controversial, and widely opposed. Outside the TB management context, however, we suggest that  
24 our approach of using experts to simply but meaningfully characterise conservation attributes  
25 provides a useful way of valuing complex abstract phenomena such as biodiversity and its  
26 conservation.

27

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29

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