4   Neural Correlates of Attitudes and Risk Perception for Food Technology Topics[1]

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23   **ABSTRACT**

Food technologies provide numerous benefits to society and are extensively vetted for safety.

However, many technological innovations still face high levels of skepticism from consumers.

To promote development and use of food technologies, it is critical to understand the underlying

causes of consumer acceptability concerns. The current study uses a neuroscience-based

approach to understand consumer attitudes and perceptions of risk associated with food

technologies and investigate how such attitudes impact consumer's processing of information

related to food technologies. We used functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI) to measure

brain activation while participants processed infographics related to food technology topics. For

technology topics perceived as riskier (antibiotics and hormones), activation was higher in areas

of the lateral prefrontal cortex (P < .001) that are associated with decisional uncertainty. In

contrast, technology topics that were viewed more favorably (sustainability and animal welfare)

tended to activate the ventromedial prefrontal cortex (P = .049), a region that processes positive

affect and subjective value. Moreover, for information about hormones, the lateral PFC

activation was associated with individual differences in resistance to change in risk perception (P

= .01). These results reveal how attitudes and risk perception relate to how the brain processes

information about food technologies and how people respond to information about such

technologies.

Key words: food technology, human subjects, risk perception, fMRI, prefrontal cortex, attitudes

INTRODUCTION

Innovations in food technology hold great promise for improving food quality, availability, safety, and sustainability. However, like other technological innovations (Kleijnen et al., 2009), new food technologies are often met with resistance in the marketplace. Consumers tend to be neophobic when it comes to foods (Pliner and Hobden, 1992), particularly foods produced with new technologies (Cox and Evans, 2008), even when expert scientists have vetted the technologies for safety (Hansen et al., 2003). Such neophobia presents a barrier to development of novel technologies as well as their adoption by food producers. The high cost of investment in bringing technologies to market or deploying such technologies in food production can become financially risky when faced with the high potential for rejection by consumers (Lusk et al., 2014). Thus, to promote development of safe, effective technologies for improving food sustainability and safety, it is critical to understand the causes of consumer resistance to technological innovation.

Consumer research on food technologies has uncovered several factors that influence acceptance and resistance to innovation, as well as people's willingness-to-pay for such innovations in the marketplace (Lusk et al., 2014). At a proximal level, people's attitudes and perceptions of risk play a critical role in influencing acceptance of new food technologies. Compared to organic or "natural" foods, foods produced with technologies are often viewed as having lower benefits and higher risks (Frewer et al., 1994; Saba et al., 2000). Thus, consumers are often willing to pay more to avoid technologies such as genetically modified organisms (GMOs), hormones, or antibiotics than they are to purchase food created with them (Lusk et al., 2015; Lusk et al., 2014; Roosen et al., 2015). The origins of consumers' less positive attitudes and heightened risk perception to food technologies remain elusive, but factors that are known to

play a role are the perceived naturalness of foods or a technology (Tenbült et al., 2005; Siegrist,

2008), tendencies to overweight low probability risks (Slovic, 2016), perceived controllability of

exposure (Siegrist et al., 2008), familiarity (Tenbült et al., 2008), trust in science (Lang and

Hallman, 2005; Siegrist et al., 2007), and personal ethical beliefs (Sparks et al., 1995).

More recently, research on food technology has begun to turn to neuroscience techniques

to understand the cognitive mechanisms that give rise to consumer acceptance of food

technology at a finer-grained level (Bruce et al., 2014; Lusk et al., 2015). Neuroscience research

on food technologies follows the recent focus in behavioral economics on "neuroeconomic"

approaches that have proven useful for understanding a number of basic economic phenomena,

such as loss-aversion (Rick, 2011), temporal discounting (Kable and Glimcher, 2007; Ballard

and Knutson, 2009), and how uncertainty influences preferences and perceptions of value (Platt

and Huettel, 2008; Rushworth and Behrens, 2008). Multiple brain systems track basic behavioral

economic constructs like value and risk including "hot" affective systems that tend to be

governed by more automatic, affective information, and "cool" systems that promote more

deliberate, rational decision making (Bechara et al., 2000; Goel and Dolan, 2003; McClure et al.,

2004).

Much of neuroeconomic research has focused on the prefrontal cortex (PFC) as critical

for value-based decision making processes. The prefrontal cortex is part of the frontal lobe and

governs much of our "higher-level" cognitive functions such as planning and reasoning, as well

as numerous social and affective processes. In terms of its role in value-based decision making,

there are key differences within the prefrontal cortex between the lateral PFC (on the sides of the

brain) and the medial PFC (the middle part of the brain, behind the forehead and above the eyes).

The lateral PFC tends to track measures of economic risk and uncertainty, which are related to

variability in possible outcomes associated with a decision (Kahnt et al., 2011; Schonberg et al.,

2011). It typically activates more when a variety of different outcomes are possible and less

when an outcome is completely predictable. The lateral PFC also tends to track individual

differences in risk aversion, or people's tendency to overvalue sure bets (Christopoulos et al.,

2009). On a mechanistic level, the lateral PFC is thought to be critical for resolving conflicting

information (e.g., outcome variability) in cases of higher uncertainty due to its more general role

as a center for cognitive control (Miller, 2000; Koechlin et al., 2003; Badre and D'Esposito,

2009).

99   In contrast to the lateral PFC, the medial PFC, particularly the ventral part of it (the lower

side; ventromedial PFC), tends to track the overall subjective value of a decision (Levy and

Glimcher, 2012; Bartra et al., 2013). When a decision has high subjective value, this brain region

tends to activate more, and when there is low subjective value, it activates less. The medial PFC

tracks individual differences in preference for immediate reward (Kable & Glimcher, 2007) as

well as individual differences in sensitivity to gains versus losses (Tom et al., 2007). Whereas the

lateral PFC is often depicted as a "cold" rational part of the brain, the medial part is often

depicted as part of the "hot" affective or emotional part of the brain due to its sensitivity to

immediate reward (McClure et al., 2004; Krain, et al., 2006). However, both are sensitive to

cognitive and affective information. The lateral PFC is involved in basic regulation of cravings

and emotional responses (Delgado et al. 2008; Kober et al., 2010; Kahathuduwa et al., 2016,

2018). Likewise, the ventromedial PFC integrates cognitive and more visceral affective

information when computing a subjective value (Roy et al., 2012). For example, the

ventromedial PFC tracks people's tendency to rate wines as more subjectively valuable when

they are associated with a higher price tag than when the equivalent wine is low priced ("price

placebo effect"; Plassmann et al., 2008; Plassmann & Weber, 2015).

115   Following general neuroeconomic research, fMRI research on the neurobiological

underpinnings of food technology choice has focused on how the PFC engages when making

willingness-to-pay judgments. Consistent with the role of the lateral PFC in resolving uncertainty

and conflict, lateral PFC has been found to be more active when participants are considering

multi-attribute food choices that require them to consider both price and technology attributes

(e.g., the price of milk and that it was produced from cloned cows; Lusk et al., 2015), and when

participants opt for a higher-priced organic food to avoid a technology (Linder et al., 2010; Lusk

et al., 2015). Likewise, activation in the lateral PFC tends to track relevant individual differences

that contribute to price-technology conflicts, such as trait-level food technology neophobia

(Bruce et al., 2014) and how much people adjust their willingness-to-pay judgments based on

advertising (McFadden et al., 2015). In contrast, the ventromedial PFC has been found to be

more associated with people's final willingness-to-pay decisions in price-technology trade-offs

(Crespi et al., 2015), consistent with its role in computing subjective value. In some cases, such

signals from the PFC have been shown to contribute above and beyond many well-established

demographic and individual difference contributors to willingness-to-pay, leading to the

conclusion that functional neuroimaging provides incremental value in predicting and

understanding consumer choices regarding food technology tradeoffs (Lusk et al., 2015).

132   With the relatively limited neuroscience research on how people perceive food

technologies, there are many open questions about how the brain processes information about

food technology and how these processes influence potential consumer behavior. Given the

critical role that information and education about technologies plays in consumer acceptance,

one important question is how the brain processes information about food technologies and how

this processing relates to perceived risk and consumer attitudes. Perceived risk and attitudes are

key pre-decisional factors that influence not only how consumers will behave when given a

choice between foods produced with new technologies or more "natural" foods, but also how

receptive they will be to new information (Sears and Freedman, 1967; Smith et al., 2008; Hart et

al., 2009).

In the present study, we scanned individuals while they were processing infographics

explaining risks and benefits of six food technology topics: hormones, antibiotics, vaccines,

GMOs, animal welfare technologies, and sustainability technologies (see Supplemental Figures).

These topics were predicted to vary in terms of perceived risk and attitudes, thus allowing us to

examine how risk perception and attitudes relate to and follow from processing information

about food technologies. Specifically, hormones and antibiotics were expected to be perceived as

most risky and lowest in terms of attitudes, GMOs and vaccines as intermediate, and animal

welfare and sustainability technologies were expected to be perceived as generally lower risk and

associated with more positive attitudes.

In terms of the brain, we expected that the same basic lateral and medial PFC regions that

are involved with processing decisional information in willingness-to-pay judgments would be

associated with processing risk and attitude information in the infographics. Indeed, although

risk perception is critically different from the outcome uncertainty that is generally thought to

underlie the lateral PFC's contribution to decision making (Schonberg et al., 2011), we

hypothesized that the lateral PFC would track perceptions of risk when confronted with

infographics viewed as riskier due to uncertainty arising from the conflict between the reader's

risk perceptions and the positive information presented in the infographics. Likewise, we

predicted that general positive attitudes toward the technologies would be associated with more

ventromedial PFC activation during infographic processing. This prediction follows from the

ventromedial PFC's role in tracking subjective value and positive affective information even

outside of choice contexts (Roy et al., 2012).

163   In addition to our primary goals, which are to examine how risk perception and positive

attitudes relate to brain activation, we also examine how individual differences in risk perception

and attitude change (from pre- to post-infographic) are associated with individual differences in

brain activation. These individual difference effects can augment the primary associations by

answering whether, for example, the hypothesized risk-related processing in lateral PFC is

generally associated with improving risk perception and attitudes or if it is associated with

resisting such change.

170   **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

Participants

Fifty-three participants completed the fMRI study. Participants were paid $25 and given an extra

$5 for a willingness-to-pay auction that was administered after the fMRI scans. An additional

394 participants completed online versions of the questionnaires without infographics to provide

normative data for the pre- and post-questionnaires that are used to measure attitudes and attitude

change for the imaging study. These participants were recruited through Amazon's Mechanical

Turk and paid $4 for participation. All protocols were approved by the Human Rights Protection

Program (HRPP) of Texas Tech University (Proposal number: IRB2018-730; Approved:

9/6/2018).

Behavioral Protocol

The behavioral protocol included pre-scan demographics, attitudes, and buying behavior surveys;

scanned infographics exposure, attitudes surveys, willingness-to-pay judgments; and a post-scan

survey on more general technology and food attitudes. The pre-scan demographics survey asked

people to report their age, sex, ethnicity, first language learned, ZIP code in which they spent the

majority of childhood, highest level of education completed, political orientation, and household

income. The pre-scan attitudes and behavior survey asked about organic buying behavior,

whether they eat meat, and whether they subscribe to any dietary philosophies (vegan,

vegetarian, etc.; see Table 1).

The pre-scan attitudes survey contained brief sections on six food technology topics:

antibiotics, vaccines, hormones, GMOs, sustainability, and animal welfare. Each section

contained two questions each on familiarity, subjective norms, trust in science (their beliefs that

scientists understand the risks of the technology), past behavior with the technology (consuming

or avoiding food produced with the technology), and perceived control (whether they were able

to control their exposure to the food; see Supplemental Table 1). After the pre-scan attitudes

survey participants were given brief instructions on how to complete the task inside the scanner.

For the scanned infographics exposure and attitudes surveys, infographics depicting the

six food technology topics (antibiotics, vaccines, hormones, GMOs, sustainability, and animal

welfare) were presented to participants separately in different scanning runs. The order of

infographics was balanced across participants using a Latin square. Within a run, participants

were presented with an infographic depicting one of the technologies three times. During each

presentation, participants were asked to either focus on attitudinal information (labeled as

"attitudes" and "benefits") or risks associated with the technologies. A brief cue (2 seconds)

would tell them prior to each presentation of an infographic which aspect they were to focus on

(risk, attitudes, or benefits), the order of which was randomized within each block for each

participant. This was separated by variable duration fixation cross (2, 3, or 4s), which

participants were simply told to keep their eyes on while awaiting infographics. The fixation

cross provides a baseline that helps to statistically isolate the responses to the different task

components. After fixation, the infographic was presented for 30s. After the infographic was

presented, fixation was briefly presented (5, 6, or 7 seconds) and then six Likert-type questions

about risks or attitudinal information (attitudes or benefits) were presented for 4 seconds each.

During these questions, participants keyed in their responses on a sliding scale that ranged from

1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*) by using an MR-safe button box held in their right

hand. Finally, the risk and attitudes questions were also separated by fixation, which averaged 4

seconds and was drawn from a truncated exponential distribution. A second and third infographic

cue, infographic presentation, and question period would then begin until all questions were

answered for an infographic.

After the primary infographic runs, participants completed willingness-to-pay judgments

and a set of additional post-scan surveys that are beyond the focus of the present study.

Image Acquisition

Imaging data were acquired at Texas Tech Neuroimaging Institute on a 3T Siemens Skyra

using a 20-channel head-coil. Functional images were acquired in the axial plane using the

Siemen's product EPI sequence: TR = 2.09 s; TE = 25 ms; θ = 70°; FoV= 192 x 192 mm; matrix

= 64 x 64; number of slices = 41, slice thickness = 2.5 mm; 0.5 mm gap. Slices were tilted to

reduce orbitofrontal dropout (Deichmann et al., 2003). In addition, a high-resolution anatomical

image was collected for each of the participants using an MPRAGE sequence acquired in the

sagittal plane: TR = 1.9 s; TE = 2.49 ms; θ = 9°; FoV = 240 x 240 mm; matrix = 256 x 256 mm;

slice thickness = 0.9 mm, slices = 192.

fMRI Analysis

FMRI analysis was conducted using a standard three-level general linear model (GLM)

implemented in FEAT (FMRI Expert Analysis Tool) Version 6.00, part of FSL (FMRIB's

Software Library, www.fmrib.ox.ac.uk/fsl). Data were first pre-processed using rigid-body

motion correction and skull stripping. The first-level model included explanatory variables (EVs)

for cue presentation, infographic presentation (separate EVs for risk and attitudes prompts),

stimulus presentation for risk and attitudes questions, and participants' ratings as a parametric

modulator of the rating questions. First-level models also included nuisance regressors for

motion (6 motion parameters and their temporal derivatives) and regressors to "scrub" (censor)

volumes with framewise displacement > .9mm (Siegel et al., 2014). The first level model also

included temporal derivatives for each task variable, high-pass filtering, spatial smoothing (6mm

FWHM), two-stage registration to high resolution anatomical and standard space, and pre-

whitening to account for temporal autocorrelation. Second level models included EVs for each

infographic type (antibiotics, vaccines, hormones, GMOs, sustainability, and animal welfare).

Second-level contrasts included contrasts for each infographic type and two contrasts weighting

each infographic type by the average risk / attitude rating (z-scored to ensure contrast weights

summed to zero). Third-level models included models for risks and attitudes examining the

overall mean infographic effects within subjects, as well as models examining how participant-

level changes in infographic specific risk/attitudes impacted activation for those infographics.

The threshold for statistical maps were set at z = 3.1 (p = .001, one-tailed) and corrected for

multiple comparisons using a cluster-extent threshold based on Gaussian Random Field Theory.

250   **RESULTS**

Behavioral Results

Topic differences in average risk perception and attitudes. Our primary question for

the behavioral data was how attitudes and risk perception varied between the food technology

topics. For risk perception, linear mixed-effects models revealed significant variability between

infographics in both pre- and post-infographic exposure conditions [pre: $F(5, 260) = 8.84$, $p <$

$.001$; post: $F(5, 260) = 11.76$, $p < .001$; see Figure 2A]. The overall pattern for both pre and post

data was that hormones and antibiotics were viewed as more risky relative to both GMOs and

vaccines [pre: $t(52) = 4.64$, $p < .001$; post: $t(52) = 5.07$, $p < .001$], as well as animal welfare and

sustainability technology [pre: $t(52) = 4.69$, $p < .001$; post: $t(52) = 6.60$, $p < .001$]. However,

GMOs and vaccines were not viewed as more risky than animal welfare or sustainability

technology [pre: $t(52) = 1.06$, $p = .29$; post: $t(52) = 0.93$, $p = .35$].

The attitude results were consistent with the risk perception results, however the attitude

measures showed larger differences amongst the technologies viewed as less risky (vaccines and

GMOs) and the sustainability and welfare topics. There again was significant variability between

the food technology topics [pre: $F(5, 260) = 24.81$, $p < .001$; post: $F(5, 260) = 25.75$, $p < .001$;

see Figure 2B for post results]. Hormones and antibiotics were associated with less positive

attitudes than both GMOs and vaccines [pre: $t(52) = 5.93$, $p < .001$; post: $t(52) = 8.35$, $p < .001$]

as well as animal welfare and sustainability technology [$t(52) = 9.07$, $p < .001$; post: $t(52) = 7.65$,

$p < .001$]. GMOs and vaccines were also associated with less positive attitudes than animal

welfare and sustainability technologies for the pre-infographic survey, $t(52) = 4.36$, $p < .001$, but

not the post-infographic survey, $t(52) = 0.33$, $p = .74$.

Risk and attitude change. To assess whether the infographics had an overall positive

effect on attitudes and risk perception relative to the pre-infographics ratings, we standardized

the pre- and post-infographic ratings using the means and standard deviations of the normative

online sample. This standardization was done to neutralize mean differences between the pre-

and post-infographic ratings that are simply due to using different questions (see Supplemental

Table 1). Comparing these standardized pre- and post-scores, we found that all topics showed

reduced risk perception [hormones: $t(52) = 3.10$, $p = .003$; antibiotics: $t(52) = 3.11$, $p = .003$;

GMOs: $t(52) = 2.55$, $p = .01$; vaccines: $t(52) = 6.44$, $p < .001$; animal welfare: $t(52) = 4.13$, $p <$

$.001$; sustainability: $t(52) = 2.41$, $p = .02$] and higher attitudes [hormones: $t(52) = 3.77$, $p < .001$;

antibiotics: $t(52) = 3.63$, $p < .001$; GMOs: $t(52) = 4.92$, $p < .001$; vaccines: $t(52) = 5.24$, $p < .001$;

animal welfare: $t(52) = 3.10$, $p < .003$; sustainability: $t(52) = 2.78$, $p = .008$] after being exposed

to the infographics (post-infographic).

Between Infographic Differences in Activation

285   Our primary question was how the observed differences in risk and attitudes related to

286   activation during people's processing of the infographics. To test how activation tracked risk and

287   attitudes, we regressed activation during risk and attitude processing blocks on the average risk

288   and attitude ratings for the different infographics. This allows us to test which brain regions track

289   perceived risk during risk-related processing of infographics, and which regions track positive

290   attitudes during general attitude and benefit processing of infographics.

291   **Activation related to risk processing.** Four clusters of activation were positively

associated with mean risk ratings across infographics (greater activation for higher risk; Figure 3;

Table 2): one spanning the left dorsolateral prefrontal cortex (PFC) and left inferior frontal gyrus

(IFG; $P < .001$), bilateral superior parietal lobe (left: $P = .002$; right: $P = .040$), and one in the

superior and middle temporal gyrus around the temporo-parietal junction ($P < .001$). The lateral

PFC was predicted *a priori* given this region's role in processing of uncertainty in decision

making (Kahnt et al., 2011; Schonberg et al., 2011). We hypothesized that this region would be

engaged more for higher perceived risk technologies because of the greater uncertainty

participants would have when processing positive information about the technologies they

perceive as risky. To further illustrate how activation in the lateral PFC varied between the

infographics, we extracted mean risk and attitude activation from each subject and plotted them

along with the whole-brain results in Figure 3. Note that, because these results are from a region

already showing significant tracking of between-infographic risk, it is not appropriate to run

additional statistical tests on them (Kriegeskorte et al., 2009); however, the graph is useful to

visualize how the lateral PFC is tracking risk. The graph shows that lateral PFC activation tends

to be highest for the high perceived risk topics (antibiotics and hormones), but there is less

differentiation between the lower perceived risk topics (GMOs, vaccines, animal welfare, and

sustainability). Interestingly, as the figure illustrates, the profile of activation across the

infographics was mirrored during attitude processing, suggesting that, in this case, the perceived

riskiness of the technologies is contributing to activation both when participants are processing

risk information and when they are processing more general attitudinal information and benefits.

The other brain regions observed in the temporal and parietal cortex all participate, along

with the lateral PFC, in broader attention and cognitive control networks that tend to be more

active during cognitively demanding tasks (Corbetta and Shulman, 2002; Spreng et al., 2013).

The deployment of more cognitive resources when considering risky technologies is consistent

with our overall hypothesis that participants would have greater uncertainty and conflict

surrounding these products.

Finally, in addition to the clusters that positively tracked between infographic differences

in risk perception, we also observed a small cluster that was negatively correlated with mean risk

differences in the lingual gyrus (P = .030). The lingual gyrus is associated with vision and visual

memory (Macaluso et al., 2002).

Activation related to attitude processing. Six clusters of activation were positively

associated with positive attitude differences (higher activation for more positive attitudes; Figure

4; Table 2) between the infographics, and nine clusters were negatively associated with positive

attitude differences between the infographics (higher activation for more negative attitudes;

Figure 4; Table 2). The positively associated regions included the a priori region of interest

ventromedial prefrontal cortex (P = .049), along with dorsal anterior cingulate cortex (ACC; P <

.001), two clusters in the precuneous (cluster 1: P < .001; cluster 2: P = .026), the supramarginal

gyrus (P = .007), and the lingual gyrus (P = .030).

The ventromedial PFC was predicted to correlate with positive attitudes given this region

tends to track subjective value (Levy and Glimcher, 2012; Bartra et al., 2013) as well as positive

affect more generally (Roy et al., 2012). The ventromedial PFC activation is depicted, along with

the whole brain activation, in Figure 4. As the bar graph illustrates, this region again primarily

distinguished between the low attitude (higher perceived risk; antibiotics and hormones)

technologies and the higher attitude technologies. Note that the overall direction of activation is

deflected negative in medial PFC, which simply reflects its lower activation relative to the

baseline fixation periods. This negative deflection is typical in cognitive tasks as this brain

region is part of the "default mode network," a network of regions that tend to be more active

during rest than during cognitive tasks and tend to be associated with more inwardly focused

attention and self-referential processing (Raichle, 2015).

The dorsal ACC was not predicted to track positive attitudes *a priori*, but is involved with

general cognitive conflict resolution (Weissman et al., 2004). The fact that these conflict-related

areas were positively correlated with attitudes suggests, perhaps, that some conflict or conflict

resolution was involved in processing the infographics associated with more positive attitudes.

However, it is not possible to fully infer this from the brain region activation alone (Poldrack,

2006), and thus the specific role these conflict-related areas may be playing is an important

question for future research.

In addition to the prefrontal regions, we again observed a cluster in the lingual gyrus that

tracked positive attitudes, as we did for the risk processing analysis. We also observed two

clusters in the precuneus that tracked positive attitudes, another brain region that is involved in

the default mode network and associated with episodic memory and self-reflection (Cavanna and

Trimble, 2006). Finally, we observed a cluster in the supramarginal gyrus that tracked positive

attitudes, a region of the parietal cortex associated primarily with reading and language function

(Price, 1998), but also linked with measures of moral reasoning in decision making (Reniers et

al., 2012) and automatic influences of brand information in consumer choice (Deppe et al.,

2005).

Clusters that were negatively associated with between-infographic differences in positive

attitudes were bilateral (both sides of the brain) lateral PFC regions (both $P < .001$), the left of

which overlaps with the cluster revealed for the risk perception analysis, as well as superior

parietal regions that overlapped with the risk results (both $P < .001$). These results suggest that

some of the same regions involved with processing risk are associated with processing more

general attitudinal information, which is expected, as perceived risk and more general attitudes

toward food technologies are often intertwined (Eiser et al., 2002). However, given the attitude

infographic processing sections were separate from the risk processing sections, these results

serve as an important internal replication of the risk results on separate data. Thus, the lateral

PFC and parietal results are particularly robust in the sense that they hold in both risk and

attitude processing. In addition to the clusters that overlapped with the risk processing clusters,

we observed clusters that were negatively associated with attitudes in several visual regions

including bilateral inferior temporal gyrus (both $P < .001$), a region involved in basic visual

object categorization, and the occipital pole ($P = .006$), a region involved in very basic visual

processing. Finally, we also observed activation in the cerebellum that was negatively associated

with attitudes ($P < .001$), which is most commonly associated with motor learning, but may also

play some roles in attentional processing (Gottwald et al., 2003).

Individual Differences in Attitude Change

376   In addition to examining overall risk and attitudes associated with the infographics, we

wanted to examine whether any brain regions were predictive of an individual's change in

attitudes or risk perception toward the food technologies. To this end, we standardized

participants pre- and post-infographic attitudes and risk scores using the means and standard

deviations of the normative online sample, as per the behavioral results. We then used the

difference between the standardized pre- and post-infographic measures as measures of how

much an individual changed their attitudes and perceptions of risk after seeing the infographics.

These measures of attitude and risk perception change were entered into third-level whole-brain

GLM analysis to test which brain regions were significantly associated with individual

differences in risk and attitude change.

386   Two of these analyses showed significant results: change in risk perception for the

hormone infographic and change in attitudes for the GMOs infographic. For the hormone

infographic (Figure 5A, 5C; Table 2), we found four clusters that were significantly associated

with change in risk perception: bilateral lateral PFC (Left: P = .01; Right: P = .006), superior

frontal gyrus (P = .01), and frontal pole (P = .006). Specifically, these regions were positively

associated with change in risk perception, which indicates that these regions were associated

with either resisting change in risk (since most participants decreased) or increasing perceptions

of risk. These results help to interpret the within-subject lateral PFC effects, where the lateral

PFC was associated with higher risk and lower attitudes across the infographics. Specifically,

they suggest that the lateral PFC may be inhibiting attitude change for hormones, as opposed to

encouraging attitude change. However, these results seem to be specific for hormones as they did

not appear for any of the other risk change measures. Reasons for why this result may be specific

to hormones are discussed below.

In addition to the hormone results, we found three significant clusters that were positively

associated with attitude change for GMOs (higher activation for more positive attitude change):

in the supramarginal gyrus (P < .001), the thalamus (P = .01), and left cerebral white matter (P =

.02; Figure 5B & 5C; Table 2). The supramarginal gyrus overlaps with positive attitude results in

the between-infographic analysis and may indicate either language-related processing or perhaps

decisional factors, as discussed above in the attitudes section. The thalamus and white matter are

not easily related to any single cognitive function and may simply indicate some sort of global

cognitive or affective engagement.

407   **DISCUSSION**

Food technologies play an important role in food quality, sustainability, and global food

security, yet technological innovation is often met with resistance from consumers. The present

study used neuroimaging to reveal how the brain processes information related to food

technology topics and how these neurobiological processes vary with perceived riskiness and

attitudes associated with the technologies. Participants viewed infographics about six different

food technology topics including antibiotics, hormones, GMOs, vaccines, sustainability, and

animal welfare. We found that activation in lateral PFC tracked between-infographic differences

in risk perception and attitudes and was most activated for the higher perceived risk / low attitude

topics antibiotics and hormones. Contrastingly, ventromedial PFC activation tracked positive

attitudes and was most activated for the higher perceived attitude topics (GMOs, vaccines,

sustainability, and animal welfare). In addition to our primary, between-infographic results, we

found individual differences in risk perception change for hormones was negatively correlated

with lateral PFC activation, suggesting that, for this topic, higher lateral PFC activation was

associated with resistance to attitude change. Finally, part of the supramarginal gyrus was

positively correlated with individual differences in attitude change for GMOs.

The fMRI results present a critical step forward in understanding consumer attitudes and

risk perceptions surrounding food technology. Because education and accurate dissemination of

information are critical tools for reducing consumer resistance to technological development, it is

important to understand how processing such information is related to differences in attitudes

and risk perception. Functional neuroimaging provides a promising window into consumer

information processing as it has the potential to show—above and beyond self-report surveys—

which information is being processed overall more positively, by examining how activation in

regions associated with positive subjective value, such as the ventromedial PFC, track attitudes

and risk perception. It also has the potential to uncover which information is being processed

more effortfully, which tends to activate regions associated more with uncertainty processing.

Brain activation patterns can thus reveal how and whether informational campaigns are leading

to effective processing by consumers, and thus potentially index attitude and risk perception

change.

Despite the success of the current study at identifying regions that track attitude and risk

perception differences between food technologies, it is important to note that it remains unclear

whether attitudes are affecting how the information about the technologies is being processed or

are a reflection of the information the infographics contain. For example, the increased

ventromedial PFC may reflect more positive attitudes toward animal welfare technologies and

sustainability in general, or may reflect the fact that participants like the contents of these

infographics better. Future research will need to dissociate individuals' baseline affective and

cognitive information about food technology topics from the information present in the

infographics and determine how these factors overlap. Nevertheless, the current results point to

critical connections between infographic processing and attitudes/risk perception that are useful

for understanding how consumers approach information about food technologies.

The present results complement and extend previous fMRI studies on willingness-to-pay

for foods (e.g., milk, eggs) produced with food technologies. Previous studies have largely

focused on the same lateral PFC regions that we identified here. The lateral PFC tends to be

more active when participants are considering both price and technology in willingness-to-pay

judgments and track's participants' choices to opt for more expensive organic or natural choices

(Linder et al., 2010; Lusk et al., 2015). These results are related to the present finding that the

lateral PFC tends to activate more for the less positive attitude, higher perceived risk

technologies and may reflect the same general uncertainty-related mechanism. When people are

confronted with technologies that conflict with their preferences, the lateral PFC may be engaged

to help them resolve this uncertainty. Likewise, consistent with previous findings that the

ventromedial PFC tracks the outcomes of willingness-to-pay judgments (Crespi et al., 2015), we

found the ventromedial PFC tracks overall positive attitudes for the technologies.

What is critical about the present results, relative to previous willingness-to-pay studies,

is that such lateral PFC and medial PFC activation are connected to information processing

surrounding technologies outside of choice-related contexts. This suggests that the activation

found in previous willingness-to-pay studies may not reflect simple trade-offs between price and

technology, but more basic pre-decisional attitudes that feed into such choice trade-offs. For

example, it may be the case that lateral PFC activation during a choice to pay more for organic

foods specifically reflects negative attitudes toward technologies as opposed to uncertainty about

the decisions per se. Whether the PFC activation observed in previous studies reflects an

attitudinal "input" into the decision process or an "outcome" of the decisional process (see e.g.,

Davis et al., 2009) is an important question for future research. In many cases, attitudes, risk

perception and decision processes are tightly coupled, and thus the practical upshot—that people

will pay to avoid technologies that generate conflict—may be the same in both scenarios.

In addition to its relation to neuroimaging research on food technologies, the present

study has important relationships to neuroeconomic research more generally. The

neuroeconomic literature has often focused on the topic of risk processing using the economic

definition of risk as uncertainty in outcome (Schonberg et al., 2011). This contrasts with the use

of the term risk in everyday language, which tends to be more related to perceived potential for

negative outcomes. The risk perception measures we used in the present study are more directly

connected to people's perception of negative consequences from technologies, and thus the

overlap between our results and studies of economic uncertainty is potentially enlightening.

Indeed, as discussed above, the lateral PFC tends to track uncertainty in economic decision

making tasks; as a result, the present finding that it also tracks differences in risk perception

between the technology infographics has the potential to unite these different areas. An important

question is whether the lateral PFC tracks both economic uncertainty and risk perception

separately or perhaps both follow from a more basic cognitive function, such as cognitive control

processes. Given the role that uncertainty plays in risk perception more broadly (Slovic, 2016),

the current results also open the possibility that the lateral PFC is specifically where uncertainty

gets incorporated into people's beliefs about the potential negative outcomes associated with

technologies.

488   In addition to its higher activation for technologies that were perceived as higher risk, our

finding that lateral PFC activation was negatively correlated with individual differences in

change in risk perception for hormones gives important information about the lateral PFC's

potential function in the present context. The lateral PFC has been shown in previous studies to

track individual differences in decision making and cognitive performance (Christopoulos et al.,

2009; Schonberg et al., 2011; Worthy et al., 2016). Although the lateral PFC has been shown to

track participants' willingness to pay more to avoid food technologies and is often associated

with individual differences in risk aversion, other results suggest that activation in lateral PFC

may not always be associated with increases in negative attitudes or perceived risk. Indeed, a

recent study on willingness to pay for animal welfare technologies in egg production has shown

that lateral PFC may more generally reflect updating of willingness-to-pay based on information

(McFadden, et al., 2015). This could mean that lateral PFC activation is not necessarily

positively or negatively related to acceptance of a technology, but may simply reflect controlled

deliberation (i.e., elaboration; Petty and Cacioppo, 1986). The outcome of such controlled

deliberation may be an increase or decrease in attitudes, depending on several factors such as

argument strength, personal relevance, cognitive ability, and participants' motivations for

changing their attitudes (Priester et al., 2009). For example, here lateral PFC was associated with

resistance to changing risk perception for hormones, but perhaps with different arguments or

with participants motivated to change their risk perceptions, it may have been associated with

improvements in attitudes.

The idea that lateral PFC may reflect differences in the outcomes of attitude processing

between participants who processed the information centrally versus peripherally (Petty and

Cacioppo, 1986) may explain why we did not see many other large individual difference effects

for the other technologies. Under this explanation, an individual difference effect should only be

observed in a brain region to the extent that the brain region governs a process that is

differentially engaged between individuals (e.g., central vs. peripheral processing), and the

differential activation of this process leads to differences in attitude ratings. In the case of the

infographics that did not show an individual difference effect in the lateral PFC, it is possible

that people did vary in terms of how effortfully they processed the information, but perhaps, in

these cases, both central and peripheral processing had equivalent attitudinal effects. This

hypothesis suggests that future work relating lateral PFC activation to attitudes and risk

perception will benefit from looking at arguments that differ in terms of their effects on attitudes

depending on whether people use effortful or more automatic processes. In this way, fMRI has

the potential to be a useful applied technique for vetting educational and branding-related

information to test whether more effortful processing of the presented information is leading to

better or worse attitudes, or if it has a homogeneous effect across processing strategies. Further,

on a more theoretical level, if our hypotheses about the connections between our results and

theories of persuasion are borne out, fMRI could become a key tool for measuring neural latent

variables related to central and peripheral processing as well as attitude strength and value, much

as it has in other areas of "model-based" fMRI (e.g., O'Doherty et al., 2007; Davis et al., 2012;

Turner et al., 2017).

One limitation of the present study is that the infographics we employed contained a wide

range of varied strategies to convey the safety and utility of the food technologies. Thus, it is not

possible to separately conclude which aspects of the infographics may have been stronger or

weaker in influencing attitudes and risk perception, or brain activation, the most. For example,

the hormones infographic contains information highlighting the low tissue accumulation of

hormones from hormone implants, relative to other dietary sources of estrogen, information

about sustainability and environmental benefits, and the fact that the implants replace some

naturally occurring hormones that are removed by food production practices. Any of these

strategies could be leading to the observed attitude and risk perception results and activation for

this infographic. Future studies interested specifically in isolating cognitive and neurobiological

factors that lead to increases in attitudes and consumer acceptability may wish to constrain the

arguments to be presented in more serial fashion to isolate their individual effects. Nevertheless,

the use of real-world infographics offers a strong, ecologically valid simulation of how

participants may encounter information about food technologies outside of the laboratory. The

tight coupling we observed between participants' attitudes and risk perception and brain

activation suggests that fMRI may be useful for screening such infographics before public

information campaigns are deployed.

546   **CONCLUSIONS**

The present study examined the neurobiological processes engaged when participants

viewed information related to food technologies. We found that areas of the lateral PFC tracked

heightened risk perception and lower attitudes for technologies, whereas the medial PFC tracked

positive attitudes. These results give a unique window into the minds of consumers, as they

illustrate how differences in attitudes and risk between food technologies affect basic

information processing in the brain. Connections between the basic attitudinal-risk processing

and individual differences in activation suggest that functional neuroimaging may be a useful

tool for assessing how people process informational materials about the benefits of food

technologies, which may lead to more effective strategies for combatting resistance to such

technologies. Indeed, to promote increasing advances in food quality, sustainability, and security,

technological innovation will continue to be critical, and consumer acceptance of such

innovation will continue to play a large role in determining whether it succeeds.

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566   the data. Address correspondence to tyler.h.davis@ttu.edu.

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748   **Figure Captions**

Figure 1. An example of the infographics presentation phase for the fMRI task. One cycle of the

task would give participants a cue for what to consider in the following infographic (risks,

attitudes, benefits). Then they completed 6 survey questions before the next cycle began. The +'s

indicate random fixation that was interspersed to allow the fMRI signal to be separated between

different task components.

Figure 2. Mean post-infographics behavioral ratings for risk (A) and attitudes/benefits (B). The

ratings were obtained during the scanning blocks after the infographic presentations. The error

bars indicate +/- 1 standard error of the mean.

Figure 3. (A) Brain regions positively correlated with between infographic differences in risk

during the risk processing blocks (red; greater activation = higher risk) and brain regions

negatively correlated with between infographic differences in risk during the risk processing

blocks (blue; greater activation = lower risk). (B) A bar graph depicting the pattern of activation

within the observed lateral PFC cluster. The red bars indicate activation in this region during the

risk processing blocks (when participants were asked to process the infographics with respect to

risk). The yellow bars indicate activation during the independent attitudes processing blocks

(when participants were asked to process attitudes or benefits).

Figure 4. (A) Brain regions positively correlated with between infographic differences in

attitudes during the attitude rating blocks (red; greater activation = higher attitudes) and brain

regions negatively correlated with between infographic differences in attitudes during the

attitude rating blocks (blue; greater activation = lower attitudes). **(B, C)** A bar graph depicting

the pattern of activation within the observed medial **(B)** and lateral **(C)** PFC clusters. The red

bars indicate activation in this region during the risk processing blocks (when participants were

asked to process the infographics with respect to risk). The yellow bars indicate activation during

the independent attitudes processing blocks (when participants were asked to process attitudes or

benefits).

Figure 5. (A) Results from the whole brain analysis identifying areas that are positively

correlated with change in risk perception for hormones. (B) Scatterplot illustrating association

between the right lateral PFC and change in risk perception for hormones. (C) Results from

whole brain analysis identifying areas that are positively associated with change in attitudes for

GMOs. (D) Scatterplot illustrating association between right supramarginal gyrus and change in

attitudes for GMOs. Note that the scatterplots in these figures are primarily suitable for

evaluating the relationship (e.g., the direction of association, linearity assumption) depicted in

the brain maps and do not constitute independent statistical tests (Friston, 2012).

Tables

Table 1

Demographics

N	53
Age	18-43
	M = 23.1, *SD* = 5.6
Sex	Male = 22 (41.5%)
	Female = 31 (58.5%)
	Other = 0 (0%)
	Prefer not to say = 0 (0%)
Ethnicity	Asian-American = 1 (1.9%)
	Black or African American = 9 (17.0%)
	Hispanic = 14 (26.4%)
	Native American = 0 (0%)
	Native Hawaiian = 0 (0%)
	White or European = 26 (49.1%)
	Other = 3 (5.7%)
	Prefer not to say = 0 (0%)
First language	English = 47 (88.7%)
	Arabic = 2 (3.8%)
	Portuguese = 1 (1.9%)
	Spanish = 4 (7.5%)
Highest Level of Education	Middle or junior high school = 0 (0%)
	Some high school = 4 (7.5%)
	Some college = 31 (58.5%)
	College degree = 6 (11.3%)
	Some post-graduate work = 2 (3.8%)
	Post-graduate degree = 10
Household income	< 10k = 12 (22.6%)
	10k-19.9k = 8 (15.1%)
	20k-29.9k = 5 (9.4%)
	30k-39.9k = 2 (3.8%)
	40k-49.9k = 1 (1.9%)
	50k-59.9k = 4 (7.5%)
	60k-69.9k = 3 (5.7%)
	70k-79.9k = 2 (3.8%)
	80k-89.9k = 9 (17.0%)
	90k-99.9k = 10 (18.9%)
	100k-149.9k = 5 (9.4%)
	>150k = 3 (5.7%)
Political Orientation	Very liberal = 5 (9.4%)
	Somewhat liberal = 20 (37.7%)

	Neither liberal nor conservative = 15 (28.3%) Somewhat conservative = 10 (18.9%) Very conservative = 3 (5.7%)
Buys organic	Only buy organic = 0 (0.0%) Buy organic when alternative exists = 5 (9.4%) Frequently buy for select produce = 20 (37.7%) Only when convenient or affordable = 3 (5.7%) Rarely buy = 8 (15.1%) Don't pay attention to organic = 2 (3.8%) Don't buy organic = 15 (28.3%)
Eats meat	Yes = 51 (96.2%) No = 2 (3.8%)
Dietary philosophy	Vegan = 1 (1.9%) Vegetarian = 2 (3.8%) Pescatarian = 1 (1.9%) Paleo = 3 (5.7%) Carnivore = 3 (5.7%) Omnivore = 9 (17.0%) Low Calorie = 6 (11.3%) Low Sodium = 4 (7.5%) I just eat what I like = 45 (84.9%) Other = 5 (9.4%)

793
794
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796   **Table 2**
797
798   *fMRI Results*
799

Contrast	Region	Cluster size (k)	Cluster p-value	Peak MNI coordinate <x,y,z>	Peak Z
Mean risk correlation > 0 (positively correlated with perceived risk)					
	Lateral prefrontal cortex (dorsolateral and inferior frontal gyrus)	1496	<.001	<-48,28,2>	5.20
	Superior and middle temporal gyrus / temporo-parietal junction	458	<.001	<-54,-36,0>	4.82
	Left lateral occipital cortex/ superior parietal lobule	318	.002	<-28, -60, 42>	4.24
	Right lateral occipital cortex/ superior parietal lobule	170	.040	<38, -58, 44>	4.03
Mean risk correlation < 0 (negatively correlated with perceived risk)					
	Lingual gyrus	175	.030	<10, -60, 4>	4.36
Mean attitudes correlation > 0 (positively correlated with attitudes					
	Dorsal anterior cingulate cortex	585	<.001	<-4,24, 20>	4.54
	Precuneous / posterior cingulate cortex	512	<.001	<0,-40,46>	4.44
	Supramarginal gyrus	229	.007	<62,-36,36>	3.88
	Lingual gyrus	188	.03	<-30,-44,-6>	4.52
	Precuneous	173	.026	<-14,-64,22>	3.96
	Ventromedial prefrontal cortex / ventral anterior cingulate cortex	147	.049	<-12,46,-2>	4.24
Mean attitudes correlation < 0 (negatively correlated with attitudes)					
	Left middle frontal gyrus (dorsolateral PFC) and inferior frontal gyrus	1765	<.001	<-48,12,36>	5.38
	Left lateral occipital	999	<.001	<-26,-58,42>	5.11

cortex/superior parietal lobule				
Left inferior temporal gyrus	968	<.001	<-46,-56,-12>	5.73
Right occipital pole	745	<.001	<36,-92,2>	4.83
Cerebellum	670	<.001	<-6,-80,-32>	4.57
Right middle frontal gyrus (dorsolateral PFC)	648	<.001	<50,24,28>	4.63
Right lateral occipital cortex / superior parietal lobule	393	<.001	<34,-56,52>	4.54
Right inferior temporal gyrus	379	<.001	<54,-50,-12>	4.97
Left occipital pole	239	.006	<-28,-94,-8>	4.47
Hormone Risk Change (positively correlated with change in risk)				
Right frontal pole	230	.006	<28,52,20>	4.28
Right middle frontal gyrus (dorsolateral PFC)	229	.006	<40,2,56>	4.02
Left middle frontal gyrus (dorsolateral PFC)	194	.01	<-30,0,58>	3.98
Superior frontal gyrus	194	.01	<2,48,38>	3.36
GMO Attitude Change (positive correlated with change in attitude)				
Supramarginal gyrus	708	< .001	<56,-38,26>	5.53
Thalamus	214	.01	<-22,-20,12>	5.14
White matter	198	.02	<-30,-30,30>	4.19

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805   **Figure 1.** An example of the infographics presentation phase for the fMRI task. One cycle of the

806   task would give participants a cue for what to consider in the following infographic (risks,

807   attitudes, benefits). Then they completed 6 survey questions before the next cycle began. The +'s

808   indicate random fixation that was interspersed to allow the fMRI signal to be separated between

809   different task components.

Figure 2. Mean post-infographics behavioral ratings for risk (A) and attitudes/benefits (B). The

ratings were obtained during the scanning blocks after the infographic presentations. The error

bars indicate +/- 1 standard error of the mean.

Figure 3. (A) Brain regions positively correlated with between infographic differences in risk

during the risk processing blocks (red; greater activation = higher risk) and brain regions

negatively correlated with between infographic differences in risk during the risk processing

blocks (blue; greater activation = lower risk). (B) A bar graph depicting the pattern of activation

within the observed lateral PFC cluster. The red bars indicate activation in this region during the

risk processing blocks (when participants were asked to process the infographics with respect to

risk). The yellow bars indicate activation during the independent attitudes processing blocks

(when participants were asked to process attitudes or benefits).

Figure 4. (A) Brain regions positively correlated with between infographic differences in

attitudes during the attitude rating blocks (red; greater activation = higher attitudes) and brain

regions negatively correlated with between infographic differences in attitudes during the

attitude rating blocks (blue; greater activation = lower attitudes). **(B, C)** A bar graph depicting

the pattern of activation within the observed medial **(B)** and lateral **(C)** PFC clusters. The red

bars indicate activation in this region during the risk processing blocks (when participants were

asked to process the infographics with respect to risk). The yellow bars indicate activation during

the independent attitudes processing blocks (when participants were asked to process attitudes or

benefits).

Figure 5. (A) Results from the whole brain analysis identifying areas that are positively

correlated with change in risk perception for hormones. (B) Scatterplot illustrating association

between the right lateral PFC and change in risk perception for hormones. (C) Results from

whole brain analysis identifying areas that are positively associated with change in attitudes for

GMOs. (D) Scatterplot illustrating association between right supramarginal gyrus and change in

attitudes for GMOs. Note that the scatterplots in these figures are primarily suitable for

evaluating the relationship (e.g., the direction of association, linearity assumption) depicted in

the brain maps and do not constitute independent statistical tests (Friston, 2012).

851	**Supplemental Materials**
852	
853	**Supplemental Table 1**
854	
855	*Technology-Specific Survey Questions*
856	
857	Asked for each technology
858	
859	5-point scale: *strongly disagree, somewhat disagree, neither agree nor disagree,*
860	*somewhat agree, strongly agree*
861	
862	**Technologies / phrasing:**
863	
864	vaccinating livestock/ vaccinated livestock.
865	
866	sustainable food technology (/ies)
867	
868	using hormones on livestock/hormone treated livestock
869	
870	genetically modified (GM)
871	
872	using antibiotics on livestock/ antibiotic treated livestock
873	
874	animal welfare technology
875	
876	
877	**Familiarity (pre only)**
878	
879	1. I am familiar with the practice of t.
880	
881	2. I am knowledgable about the practice of t.
882	
883	**Perceived Norms (pre only)**
884	
885	1. Most people who are important to me approve of t.
886	
887	2. Most people who are like me support t.
888	
889	**Trust in Science (pre only)**
890	
891	1. Scientists understand the risks posed by t.
892	
893	2. I trust scientists to explain the risks posed by t.
894	
895	
896	**Past Behavior (pre only)**

897
898   1. In the past three months, I have consumed food produced from t.
899
900   2. In the past three months, I have avoided food produced from t.
901
902   **Perceived Control (pre only)**
903
904   1. I am able to control how much I am exposed to food produced from t.
905
906   2. I am able to avoid purchasing food produced from t.
907
908   **Risks**
909
910   **Pre:**
911
912   1. The risks posed by t are acceptable.
913
914   2. t presents a risk to the global food supply.
915
916   **Post:**
917
918   1. t presents a risk to the environment.
919
920   2. t presents a risk to me personally.
921
922   3. t presents a risk to future generations.
923
924   4. People are likely to suffer negative health consequences from t for food
925   production.
926
927   5. There is no safe level of exposure to food (dairy, eggs, meat) from t.
928
929   6. Even a small amount t affects the safety of food.
930
931   **Attitudes (personal)**
932
933   **Pre:**
934
935   1. I intend to support the use of t for food production.
936
937   2. It is good to buy food produced from t.
938
939   **Post:**
940
941   1. Consuming food produced from t is healthy.
942

943   2. I approve of t.
944
945   3. Food produced from t should be available for everyone.
946
947   4. t for food production is smart.
948
949   5. Overall, t is a good application of technology.
950
951   6. I would rather purchase food produced from t.
952
953
954   **Attitudes (benefits)**
955
956   **Pre:**
957   1. t benefits society.
958
959   2. t the environment.
960
961   **Post:**
962   1. t benefits me personally.
963
964   2. t benefits the livestock.
965
966   3. t promotes animal welfare.
967
968   4. t helps make food available for everyone.
969
970   5. t helps make food affordable for everyone.
971
972   6. Overall, t is ethically sound.
973

There are far more farm animals in the United States than people:
323 million people vs. **9.3 billion** cows, pigs, turkeys and chickens processed in the U.S.[1,2,3,4]

You may have heard that 80% of antibiotics in the United States are used in agriculture, but that statistic makes more sense when it's put into perspective.[2]

* Other species are also included in the 80% statistic like sheep, goats, fish and companion animals - dogs, cats and horses. They increase the number of animals but are not reflected on this chart.

323 million

9.3 billion + animals*

Since some farm animals are generally more massive than humans, they require a larger volume of antibiotics to treat, prevent and control disease.[5,6]

195 lbs.
1,300 lbs.
283 lbs.

Most antibiotics are used mostly in animals or in humans, not in both.[4]

Use by Volume	Humans	Animals
Penicillins	44%	6%
Cephalosporins	15%	Less than 1%
Sulfa	14%	3%
Quinolones	9%	Less than 1%
Macrolides	5%	4%
Tetracyclines	4%	42%
Ionophores*	0%	33%

* Ionophores are never used in human medicine

Antibiotics are used to treat, control and prevent illness in animals. Antibiotics are thoroughly tested and regulated and are used judiciously by farmers and veterinarians.[7]

FDA The FDA sets "withdrawal times" based on research to assure antibiotics have cleared an animal's system before it enters the food supply.[8]

USDA The USDA's Food Safety and Inspection Service routinely tests food to ensure it is free of antibiotic residues.[9]

Antibiotics that are medically-important to humans must be administered under direct veterinary supervision.[10]

CDC The CDC is working to reduce antibiotic use in humans and says at least 30% of antibiotics prescribed in U.S. doctor's offices and emergency rooms are unnecessary.[11]

974
975   *Supplemental Figure 1.* Antibiotics infographic used in the study.

976
977 *Supplemental Figure 2.* Sustainability infographic used in the study.

978
979   *Supplemental Figure 3.* GMO infographic used in the study.

980
981   *Supplemental Figure 4.* Animal welfare infographic used in the study.

982
Supplemental Figure 5. Hormone infographic used in the study.
984

985
986   *Supplemental Figure 6.* Vaccine infographic used in the study.
987