

Traceability and demand sensitiveness: evidences from Italian fresh potatoes consumption¹

Francesco Caracciolo^a, Luigi Cembalo^a

^aDepartment of Agricultural Economics and Policy, University of Naples Federico II, Italy
Keywords: Traceability, early potato, censored demand system estimation, sample selection approach.

JEL classification: [D12, C31, C34]

Abstract

When a traceability system takes place, either when mandatory or voluntary, many questions arise that need to be addressed and answered. One of the firsts concerns whether it introduces new costs with no gain in efficiency or, on the contrary, the system efficiency increases lowering costs and, as a consequence, market price of the good in hand. Among others, another issue that only rarely is addressed regards the effect of a price change on the final market. The objective of this paper was to simulate the effect on fresh Italian vegetables market of prices change due to a newer traceability procedure, focusing on early potato. Reasons why early potato was the main object of our study will be explained in detail later in the paper. Moreover, this study concerns a demand system estimation that has, as main goal, the measurement of own and cross price elasticities as well as expenditure elasticities. Such estimations are not strictly related with traceability because they measure any change in quantity demanded due to price changes due to any market perturbation. However, since early potato is experiencing a peculiar market and chain change in Italy, our simulation is meant to reason in terms of a “what if” approach, formally simulating the effect of any change in price due to an hypothesis of traceability system involved. In order to estimate a demand system, real household consumption data (3,000 observations) of a statistically representative sample of the Italian population of households was taken into account. Relevant measures of market variables were estimated by means of a Linear Almost Ideal Demand System implementing a large set of fresh vegetables: potato split in early and late, cabbage, salad, mushrooms, fruits vegetables, roots, asparagus, onion, tomatoes, peppers, cucumbers, beans, zucchinis and others.

¹ This research was financed by the Italian Ministry of Agricultural Food and Forestry Policies (TIPIPAPA project). We would like to thank Gary D. Thompson, Pasquale Lombardi, as well as colleagues and participants from various seminars for useful discussions and comments. However, authors are solely responsible for all errors and omissions.

Corresponding author: Luigi Cembalo (Ph.D). Dipartimento di Economia e Politica Agraria, Via Università, 96 - 80055 Portici (Naples) ITALY. Tel. +39 0812539065
Email address: cembalo@unina.it

1 Introduction

Traceability can serve various purposes in the food sector, including that of chain quality control. However, the aspects that seem to be most frequently required of traceability are those related to food safety. Nevertheless, traceability systems development has recently shifted its focus from the major aspects of food safety to a price premium search approach. Although such an approach often appears to lie behind production strategies, there is no technical or theoretical evidence to support it: traceability systems do not guarantee, per se, quality. On the other hand, a rigorous traceability system that pursues multiple objectives involves costly procedures that are very likely to feed all the way up to the consumer side. However, in some cases, a traceability system involves an efficiency gain along the chain that induces costs reduction and market price stability and/or enhancement. In both cases, the most likely scenario is that some changes in prices occur.

The mainstream literature is rich in technical and economic studies on traceability. Nevertheless, little has been written on the effects of traceability costs change on quantity demanded. While numerous studies show a higher consumer willingness to pay for certified products, it is not clear in what way and to what extent price changes affect the market.

The objective of the present study is to estimate the effect of the introduction of a potentially rigorous traceability procedure on the Italian fresh vegetables market, with particular attention to new potatoes. In order to do so, a system of demand functions was built on real household consumption data (3,000 observations) statistically representative of the Italian population of households. Own- and cross-price elasticities, as well as other relevant measures of market variables, were estimated by

means of a demand system for a large set of fresh vegetables (potatoes split into early and late, salad, pulses, eggplants and peppers, asparagus, spinach, tomatoes, carrots, fennel, IV vegetables and others).

The traceability procedure took in mind in our study is only potential. It is now under study at the University of Naples Federico II in a project financed by the Italian Ministry of Agricultural and Forestry Policy. This system allows a fresh vegetable product to be unequivocally traced by means of molecular and spectrometer techniques. Although the study concerns new potato, results can be easily applied to other fresh vegetables. Indeed, while our demand system estimation focused on new potato, since we implemented a system of equations representing a large set of fresh vegetables, a larger amount of information for a wider set of products was obtained. From an empirical point of view, according to the established consensus, demand system estimates based on household cross section data can be cumbersome on several grounds. The two main ‘dangers’ are violation of theoretical regularity restrictions (Barnett and Serletis, 2008) and possible sample selection bias due to only a fraction of the population that has non-zero consumption for the items under study (new potatoes are consumed by 51.7% of Italian households). A Linear Approximation of an Almost Ideal Demand System (LA-AIDS) was used applying a two-step censored demand system approach (Shonkwiler and Yen, 1999).

In section 2 some background on traceability is outlined. In section 3 research outline and study motivation are presented. Section 4 is dedicated to data description. Section 5 concerns demand model specification, some econometric issues addressed, result and forecasts obtained by the demand model. The paper ends with some concluding remarks.

2 Background on traceability

Traceability may be considered as a product differentiation system and is commonly used by the food industry. Once contamination has been detected, traceability systems allow the source of a product to be identified, thereby enabling the situation to be remedied and limiting costs to total or partial product withdrawal from the market.

Traceability has to be primarily viewed as a means to enhance safety in the food chain. The recent development of traceability systems for production and market sectors has sought to translate attention from the primary concept of food safety into the search for a consumer price premium. This approach appears to be becoming increasingly established in product strategies even if there seems to be no theoretical motivation in support: traceability systems do not guarantee pursuance of product quality; rather, they 'simply' trace it 'from the field to the fork'.

The International Organization for Standardization (ISO 9001:2000) defines traceability as the ability to identify and trace the history, distribution, location, and application of products, parts, and materials. The Codex has adopted this definition to determine guidelines and standards for traceability (Codex Alimentarius Commission, 2001). The European Union has defined traceability with particular reference to GMO products or their derivatives.

The most significant motivation was to be ready for any undesired eventuality at any stage of the chain for withdrawing the products causing a potential risk for consumers. In this case, traceability ensures the timely intervention of product withdrawal, as well as the reduction in costs in implementing withdrawal, being able to focus on withdrawing one or more brands, rather than withdrawing from the market an entire product category.

The economic literature has studied the phenomenon and functioning of traceability in various respects. Although traceability arose for the main purpose of ensuring food safety, Dickinson and Bailey (2002) showed, in an experimental market study, that consumers are willing to pay a price premium for those products that clearly show they are traceable.

Various traceability systems have been established in Europe and North America. In Canada, for example, traceability has been developed jointly with an integrated quality system so as to give foreign markets assurances, especially with regard to meat. In this case, it should be noted that the prime resistance came from producers insofar as they resented government interference on the issue of regulation, and hence violation of the freedom to make entrepreneurial decisions, of their own business. Moreover, the incentives derived from any price premium are unlikely to affect the production phase, tending to be distributed among the various actors in the chain in the post-production phase.

Since January 1st 2005 in the European Union, it has become mandatory for all food products to follow a procedure of traceability (Regulation EC no. 178/2002; de Stefano, 2007). The European Union issued two laws which, amongst others, provided the definitive thrust for setting traceability procedures that met the absolute priority for food safety. One of these, EC Reg. 178/2002 established the general principles and requisites of food legislation and set up the European Authority for Food Safety, establishing procedures in the ambit of food safety. The other, EC Regulation 1830/2003, concerned traceability and the labelling of GM products or their derivatives.

While the objectives and guidelines for the mandatory introduction of traceability in the agro-food system are clear, the effects that this system might have on

production, the distribution chain and end-consumers are somewhat controversial. A recent report of the USDA (United States Department of Agriculture) concerning traceability in the USA summarises the results from the most recent economic studies on traceability². The essential points that are considered appropriate to stress are as follows: 1) economic efficiency of traceability varies from case to case; 2) in almost all cases complete traceability cannot be achieved or, if it can, it is done so at very high costs; 3) benefits, especially at the production level, are not always assured, and when they are, their distribution is often asymmetric and inefficient.

3 Research outline and motivation

The demand for food safety is an age-old demand from the consumer. Obviously, albeit necessary and a reason for pleasure, food consumption entails the intake into the human organism of completely extraneous substances. Hence, a latent demand for food with a zero hazard level has always existed. What has changed in a highly evolved technological society is the relationship of the consumer with the eternal dilemma: need for nutrition vs. risk of introducing harmful substances into the organism.

The society of risk, according to *Beck's* definition, generates as a '*spillover*' permanent new fears and new risks together with the undoubted benefits arising from a hitherto unknown process of technological innovation. Faced with this situation, consumers on the one hand appreciate or negatively experience innovations; on the other, in particular in the food sector, they show increasing demand for safety. Together with a subjective perception of the distribution of probability of the adverse

² For further details on this study see the Internet site <http://www.usda.org> where the document is available

situation, which is completely different from that defined by the experts, this increased demand for food safety systematically generates crises of collective panic (risk of pesticides, BSE, avian flu, etc.) which in turn give rise to serious instabilities on agri-food markets.

As has been amply shown by Bevilacqua (2004), the path followed by public and private research in the agri-food sector in the last two decades explains the deep-seated mistrust harboured by many consumers, especially in Europe, over statements coming from the scientific community. Hence any reassurance made by experts in a period of crisis has a negligible effect on consumers.

In the context of industrialised countries, the benefits to be achieved by food safety policies are twofold. They not only allow the saving of human lives and avoidance of suffering, but also reduce the instability of the product markets concerned. As regards the latter, the cases of BSE and avian flu are particularly illustrative. Due to avian flu, poultry consumption in Italy collapsed in the months following the event. Twelve months from the outbreak of panic, consumption was about 18% lower than the previous year's levels. At the same time, prices had fallen by about 8%. The drop in demand and prices following the outbreak hit all the developed countries, but to a different extent. Italy was the country with the largest decline, showing extreme sensitivity to the crisis in the food safety system (Mazzocchi, 2005).

The aim of policies such as those for traceability, set up immediately after the wave of panic generated by BSE, is to reduce the impact of such crises upon markets. One wonders, however, when tackling a completely new consumer hazard like BSE or avian flu, whether this instrument is really effective.

Yet food safety policies usually entail particularly high social costs. It is therefore important to know the effects on consumption of price increases arising from added costs due to traceability procedures. The conviction is that pursuing the worries of the consumer could have a profoundly detrimental effect upon system efficiency.

The present paper refers to a traceability procedure being studied within the framework of a project at the Agricultural Faculty of Naples University funded by the Italian Ministry of Agricultural and Forestry Policy. The project sets out to ascertain whether a traceability system can be found for the potato using the analytical method based on Nuclear Magnetic Resonance (NMR), which allows the product to be linked to soil through chemical analysis. In this way, the product's geographical origin can be determined by region, macroregion and/or continent³.

Achievement of geographical recognisability would lead to two major results in the ambit of food safety and quality:

1. identification of product origin would combat counterfeiting and fraud, regrettably somewhat widespread, thereby safeguarding production value;
2. characterisation of various products would enhance knowledge of quality aspects and capitalise on their typicality with clear benefits for the consumer.

The research typically adopts a chain approach. However, an important link is the behaviour of consumers faced with end product price variations. In particular, it becomes indispensable to know the effects on demand for the good in question and the reallocation determinants of household expenditure for fresh vegetables.

³ This newer and potential traceability system would be stricter than the one required by the actual regulation. The underline idea is to implement this procedure to pursue a premium price generated by a clear identification system.

As regards products, the key focus of our research is the new potato. Though present on the market for no more than two months a year, the new potato is a particular important crop chiefly in Sicily, Campania and Puglia. The fortunes of this crop lie in the fact it ripens before the common potato, reaching markets in a period when there is not yet active competition with the common potato. The economics of the sector comprising the new potato is particularly important. However, the problem which the sector has to tackle is twofold: both competition, especially pricewise, from non-EU Mediterranean countries and, above all, the fact that, after entry into Italy, imported new potatoes can no longer be distinguished from their Italian counterparts. This chiefly occurs due to insufficiently stringent legislation on the origin of farm produce. Hence, the objective to set up a traceability system based on an analysis technique such as to detect the source of produce through soil residues on tubers.

As we already point out in the introduction, a rigorous traceability system involves, at least in the short period, costly procedures that are very likely to feed all the way up to the consumer side. So it is consistent to predict the effects of this increasing of prices due to traceability on the demand side. The following three-step strategy has been performed. First a benchmark has been built through the demand system estimation; second the traceability adoption has been included increasing the sale price; third, the estimated model has been used to forecast the traceability effects, providing a set of quantitative predictions on measures of interest.

4 Data description

In our paper household consumption micro-data are used to distinguish among different household types (e.g. by socio-demographic characteristics, Huang and Lin, 2000) and evaluate how they respond to changes in prices. Households are sampled in

a statistically representative way by GfK-Eurisko (a leading market research organization operating in Europe) which collects household real consumption of many products. Households involved in the GfK panel regularly record their purchases through a scanner (ConsumerScan). In accordance with our study purposes, the collected data thus consist of household expenditure and are representative of Italian domestic consumption of fresh vegetables. For each household GfK-Eurisko also collects other information, such as socio-demographic data, that are crucial in a consumer side study.

We collected value (€) and volume (kg.) of purchases made by 2,849 representative Italian households for fresh vegetables (for a total of 49 items), during the period September 2008 - September 2009. Information on prices paid by each household are provided through unit values (€/kg.).

Following the guidelines in Deaton and Zaidi (2002), when the prices were unavailable due to the household's non-consumption of the listed item, we replace unobserved values with the median reported by households per degree of urbanization and region of residence. Quantities (kg.), prices (€/kg.) and expenditure (€) of fresh vegetables are then grouped in 12 homogeneous categories. The final fresh-vegetable groups are: salad, pulses, potatoes, eggplants and peppers, asparagus, spinach, tomatoes, new potatoes, carrots, fennel, IV vegetables and other vegetables.

As can be seen from the summarised statistics of the vegetable groups included in the model (Tab. 1), for our representative sample the average household expenditure on fresh vegetables per year is nearly €257. Percentages of zero food-consumption (censoring) are substantial, especially for our target food category, new potatoes, which were consumed by 51.8 percent of households. Italian households spent 1.5 percent of their fresh vegetables budget on new potatoes, 9.1 percent on potatoes,

although the prices of the two food items (potatoes and new potatoes) are quite similar (respectively €0.90/kg and €0.96/kg).

Finally, Table 2 describes the variables used in the empirical model. Almost 70 percent of households have no children younger than 15 years old, and 27 percent live in a city with more than 100,000 inhabitants. As regards the educational level of household heads, 44 percent of household heads have high school diplomas or university degrees.

5 Traceability: Demand System approach

5.1 Demand Model Specification

In this section, we present the economic model adopted to estimate the system of demand. Huge attention in the economic literature has focused on consumer demand modelling. A recent work of Barnett and Serletis (2008) surveys the extensive scientific discussion on the subject. Following other food demand studies applied to cross sectional survey data on expenditure (Huang and Biig-Hwan Lin, 2000; Akbay, *et al.*, 2007; Haq *et al.*, 2008;) the functional form chosen to specify the model is a linear approximation (LA) of the Almost Ideal Demand system (Deaton and Muellbauer, 1980). Although many alternatives to the AID system exist, including the QAIDS (Banks, *et al.*, 1997) which has the advantage of a more flexible specification of the Engel curves, the LA-AIDS model was preferred for its well-known theoretical properties. Furthermore, it presents a computationally reasonable level of complication when a two-stage estimating equations approach for the censored dependent variable is empirically embedded. The adopted procedure (Shonkwiler and

Yen, 1999) consistently solves the problem of corner solutions of zero-food consumption.

We consider a consumer multi-stage budgeting process that implies home consumption of fresh vegetables as strictly separable from the demands for other goods. This hypothesis justifies the exclusion of other goods expenditure on which information is not fully available. The assumption is reasonable if the estimation objectives are restricted to understanding consumption substitutability in the same food category.

Deaton and Muellbauer (1980) consider a first order approximation of the demand functions allowing exact aggregation over consumers, and propose a system of equations for the budget share w_i of the i th good (LA model) as

$$w_i = \alpha_{i^*} + \sum_{j=1}^J \gamma_{ij} \ln P_j + \beta_i \ln \left(\frac{X}{P^*} \right) + u_i \quad \forall i = 1, \dots, I \quad (1)$$

where P_j is the price of the j -th good, X is the total expenditure on food categories in the system, α_{i^*} , β_i and γ_{ij} are parameters for the demand shifter, for own-, cross-price and expenditure elasticities respectively, u_i is the error term and P^* is a price index, useful to standardize all prices. It must be recognized that the possible measurement error introduced by the Stone price index would make the estimate inconsistent. Hence, in line with other studies we use the following specification (Moschini, 1995):

$$\ln P^* = \sum_{i=1}^I \bar{w}_i \ln P_i \quad (2)$$

where \bar{w}_i is the mean budget share. We also introduce a set of K demographic attributes that are demand shifters, such that:

$$a_{i^*} = a_i + \sum_{k=1}^K \delta_{ik} D_k \quad \forall i=1, \dots, I \quad (3)$$

The economic theory provides a set of restrictions that are known as homogeneity, adding-up and symmetry. The symmetry and homogeneity conditions are respectively imposed by:

$$\gamma_{ij} = \gamma_{ji} \quad \forall i, j=1, \dots, I; \quad (4)$$

and

$$\sum_j \gamma_{ij} = 0 \quad \forall i, j=1, \dots, I; \quad (5)$$

As the adding-up issue is still an open question in censored demand systems, following other studies we prefer to perform estimation ignoring the restriction (Drichoutis *et al.*, 2008).

5.2 Econometric model issue

The statistical and economic importance of censoring data has amply demonstrated, starting from the works by Gronau (1974) and Heckman (1979). In consumer demand studies the zero-food consumption problem arises because only a subset of households shows a positive consumption for the i -th good. If a consumption equation were to be based only on the subset, it would probably estimate a significant effect on the *level* of consumption for those covariates that, instead, affect the probability of positive consumption (a spurious relation). More formally, estimates would be inconsistent but simple procedures fix the problem, treating it as a specification error. Heckman (1979) suggests a simple two-step approach to solve the censoring problem: in the first step the probability of non-null in the censored variable

is estimated, then in the second step the new set of covariates includes the inverse Mills ratio to correct for the selection bias.

In a demand system case, since the seminal work of Heien and Wessels (1990), several empirical procedures for censored data have been developed such as those suggested by Perali and Chavas (2000) and Shonkwiler and Yen (1999). Following Shonkwiler and Yen (1999) the zero-food consumption for a demand system of I equations is modelled as below:

$$y_1^* = (x_1\beta_1)\Phi(x_2\hat{\beta}_2) + \delta\phi(x_2\hat{\beta}_2) + e_1 \quad \forall \begin{cases} i = 1, \dots, I \\ n = 1, \dots, N \end{cases} \quad (6)$$

and

$$e_i = u_i + (x_{1,i}\beta_{1,i}) \left[\Phi(x_{2,i}\beta_{2,i}) - \Phi(x_{2,i}\hat{\beta}_{2,i}) \right] + \delta_i \left[\phi(x_{2,i}\beta_{2,i}) - \phi(x_{2,i}\hat{\beta}_{2,i}) \right] \quad (7)$$

where $\phi(x_2\hat{\beta}_2)$ and $\Phi(x_2\hat{\beta}_2)$ are the probability density function (PDF) and the cumulative distribution function (CDF) respectively, which are obtained from a probit model using the equation 8 in the first stage,

$$y_2^* = (x_2\beta_2 + e_2) \quad (8)$$

with

$$y_2 = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } y_2^* > 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } y_2^* = 0 \end{cases} \quad (9)$$

and

$$y_1 = y_2 y_1^* \quad (10)$$

To estimate a system of I equations, an ITSUR approach jointly considers the covariance in the consumption equations. For the same reason as in the single-equation case due to the downward bias of the population variance, we also bootstrapped the standard errors.

5.3 Empirical results

The entire sample was used in the above-specified model, addressing the problem of corner solutions of non-positive food consumption. Overall, the demand system results (Tab. 3) show a reasonable goodness-of-fit in spite of the cross-sectional characteristics of our estimation: R^2 values lie between 0.22 (new potatoes) and 0.78 (other vegetables). Coefficients on the PDF (δ_ϕ) are on the whole statistically significant (except for the spinach equation) and positive (except for fennel equation). It strongly supports the idea that correction for sample selection bias was necessary. Although 65 percent of the estimated parameters are different from zero at the 10 per cent level or less, almost all the own-price parameters are significantly different from zero (except for the potato equation).

As discussed in the previous section the cross-price parameters are symmetric due to the imposed restriction $\gamma_{ij} = \gamma_{ji}$. Socio-characteristic variables included in the model also influence demand statistically, especially the regional dummies. Most degrees of urbanization and employment status of the household head dummies are also statistically significant.

Marshallian own- and cross-price average elasticities and expenditure average elasticities are shown in Table 4. The elasticities are calculated by the parameters estimated (Tab. 3) through the procedure suggested by Yen *et al.*, 2002:

$$\eta_{ii} = (\gamma_{ii} - \beta_i \hat{w}_i) \Phi(x_2 \beta_2) / \hat{w}_i - 1, \quad (11)$$

$$\eta_{ij} = (\gamma_{ij} - \beta_i \hat{w}_j) \Phi(x_2 \beta_2) / \hat{w}_i \quad (12)$$

and

$$\exp_i = 1 + \Phi(x_2 \beta_2) \beta_i / \hat{w}_i \quad (13)$$

The sign of own-price and expenditure elasticities are consistent with theory, and their magnitudes are within the expected range.

The demands for IV vegetables are more price-sensitive to price changes ($\eta_{ii} = -0.88$) than cheaper food such as carrots ($\eta_{ii} = -0.48$), new potatoes ($\eta_{ii} = -0.57$) and fennel ($\eta_{ii} = -0.50$). Uncompensated cross-price elasticities are generally small in magnitude, especially when there is a complementarity relation ($\eta_{ij} < 0$). The relationship of complementarity ($\eta_{ij} < 0$) and substitutability ($\eta_{ij} > 0$) between fresh-vegetable categories indicate changes in consumption pattern resulting from price changes.

Combining the box plot and density trace (or smoothed histogram) into one diagram (Hintze and Ray, 1998) the distribution of heterogeneity among households may be further explored for new potato own-price elasticities. Figure 1 shows two distinct peaks around the values of η_{ii} equal to - 0.6 and - 0.4. The heterogeneity is due mainly to regional characteristics of the population, as also demonstrated in more details by Fig. 2. In southern Italy demand for new potatoes is more inelastic than in northern or central Italy due to local food habits. The discovered heterogeneity will be used in the course of this paper to figure out the impact of traceability on consumers choices.

The consequences of a j -th good price change on the demand for i goods (*ceteris paribus*) is reported by each j -th column (Tab. 4). As regards the *new potatoes* column, the results strongly confirm a relation of substitutability with potatoes ($\eta_{ij} = 0.16$), fennel ($\eta_{ij} = 0.13$) and pulses ($\eta_{ij} = 0.12$). Although some complementarities exist, they are small in magnitude and except for salad ($\eta_{ij} = -0.07$) and other vegetables ($\eta_{ij} = -0.08$) they are not statistically significant. The above result may suggest that consumers do not compare often relative prices among all the widely differing fresh vegetables. Nevertheless, it is not a coincidence that the cross price elasticities between potatoes and new potatoes magnitudes' are large and statistically bigger than zero, confirming the obvious substitutability between the two vegetables. The consequences of changes in demand for the i -th good due to the change in j good prices (*ceteris paribus*) can be investigated from each i -th row. As regards the *new potatoes* row, an increase in the price of *potatoes* ($\eta_{ij} = 0.57$) has practically the same impact on the demand for *new potatoes* as an increase in the price of *new potatoes* ($\eta_{ii} = 0.57$). Unexpectedly, both other vegetable ($\eta_{ij} = -0.53$) and salad prices ($\eta_{ij} = -0.32$) also seem to considerably affect the demand for new potatoes. A reasonable explanation lies in the fact that both demands are quite inelastic, and are characterized by a high expenditure share. An increase in their prices causes a reallocation of the expenditure among the goods, with direct repercussion on *new potato* consumption.

In the next paragraph the relevance of estimation results will be stressed especially as concerns the interpretation of the relationships between the goods involved in the traceability program. The quantitative evidence will support the qualitative intuition about the link between price-sensitiveness and consumers' attitude toward traceability.

5.4 Simulation results

The previous analysis is the first step for the main objective of the paper, which consists on the assessment of the effects of the introduction of a newer and stricter traceability program on *new potatoes*. With regard to adopted strategy, it is crucial to remind that the modelling aim's is in showing roughly trends, rather than precise predictions, consequently due the following approximations used. First of all, the traceability adoption has been included in the model as a "pure cost" t increasing by a quota s , the sale price, of the product of interest ($t = s \times P$).

Secondly, a possible higher consumer willingness to pay for traceable product has not been here considered. Thirdly, the analysis includes only *ceteris paribus* short-time effects, involving the strict separability of the estimated demand model.

Regarding the choice of the quota s , Regattieri *et al.* (2007) calculated a total cost of traceability implementation equal to 0.07 €/kg for the Parmigiano Reggiano cheese. Focusing on Italian beef supply chain, Mora and Menozzi (2005) reported a total cost of around 4 percent on total costs of production of meat. This cost represents obviously a very delicate point when the value of the product is very low (Regattieri *et al.*, 2007) while tracing and tracking the origin of a raw perishable food product with a large area of production such as *new potato* poses a scientifically complex challenge. The s parameters are so motivated, by choosing a small interval around the nominal value of $s \times P = 0.07$ €/kg ($s = 0.05$; $s = 0.07$; $s = 0.10$; $s = 0.15$).

Table 5 shows the simulated traceability impact on household's food consumption, per different values of t . Notice that there is a compounded effect, one indirect on the propensity to buy the product, measured by the changes in market penetration, one direct on the quantity consumed.

The different traceability scenarios imply an expected reduction of *new potatoes* consumption across household while they shift consumption to other food groups, in particular to *potatoes*. Regarding the consumed quantity, the result confirms that we could likely observe a significant change in potatoes consumption set, due to variations of the sale price. The outcome is definitely not surprising and fully consistent with the previous elasticity estimation.

Beyond the estimated impact reported, it is necessary to remind that the common *potato* is, in terms of Italian food habits, a direct substitute of the *new potato*. In the presence of similar prices between the two potato types, increasing the price scissor would amplify the substitution effect. A similar result set can be, in fact, observed lowering the price of *common potatoes*.

6 Concluding remarks

The purpose of our research was to estimate the effects of potential price changes upon fresh vegetable demand resulting from the introduction of an innovative method of traceability that ensures the geographical identification of the product. Although our study focused on the *new potato*, by implementing a demand estimation model for the whole category of fresh vegetables we were able to obtain detailed information on almost all the other complementary and substitute products of the *new potato*. The study was carried out in 2009 using consumption data for about 3,000 Italian households that were statistically representative of the nationwide population.

The hypothesis empirically tested in this study was motivated by the fact that, with respect to food safety, consumer attitudes and those of policy makers appear more focused on reassurance at any cost rather than actual knowledge of the effects

on markets arising from the introduction of regulatory standards that impose product traceability along the whole chain. This behaviour has not always obtained the desired results. Faced with the mere perception of hazard for a certain product, consumers react in the vast majority of cases with behaviour of real collective panic towards that project or category of products, despite the presence of control and traceability systems.

The cost of implementing the new traceability system, and how it will be transmitted along the supply chain to the consumption side, is not yet known. However, some reflections may be made on the new potato market according to how the system is introduced. Let us assume that a stricter traceability system would become mandatory for all or some of the products of the same goods category. This will lead to the current situation in which, assuming that the unit costs of implementation are the same for each product, a negative externality is induced in the short run in the market whose costs are likely to be borne by the end consumers. This has already happened in Italy for other product categories in which the obligation of traceability entailed an inefficient allocation of costs among the economic agents of the chain. This holds even more for production in which an almost entirely competitive form of market may be observed⁴.

Alternatively, one could conceive of a voluntarily implemented traceability system, like that currently researched by the University of Naples, which also certifies product origin. In this case, entrepreneurial success would stem only from consumer willingness to pay a premium if the certified end product is perceived as a superior

⁴ Many farm products in Italy show that in the business phase the production costs do not deviate significantly from the sale price of the product.

good. There is extensive empirical evidence in the literature in which this behaviour has been observed but, in the case of the Italian *new potato*, has not yet been proved⁵.

This latter aspect is particularly important in light of the joint analysis of cross elasticities between the new potato and the common potato. Indeed, in the event of a price increase in new potatoes, the latter is substituted by the common potato at a rate of 0.16. Otherwise, that is if it is the price of the common potato which rises, new potato consumption grows by 0.57. It may thus be stated that consumers perceive the common potato as a slightly inferior good when compared to the new potato. The implication is that the latter is already deemed as a superior good to potato⁶. However, an increase in the price scissors in favour of the common potato would have a significant effect on *new potato* consumption.

⁵ Though, this study phase has already been launched within the TIPIPAPA-MIPAF project, the results will be available at the end of 2010.

⁶ The assertion is an authors' intuitive implication since it cannot be confirmed by data: the estimated expenditure parameters of *common* and *new potatoes* have too large standard errors.

References

- Akbay, C. , Boz I. and W. Chern, (2007). “Household food consumption in Turkey. ”, *European Review of Agricultural Economics*, 34(2): 209–231.
- Banks, J., Blundell, R. and A. Lewbel, (1997). “Quadratic Engel curves and consumer demand”, *Review of Economics and Statistics* 79, 527-539.
- Barnett, W. A. and A. Serletis (2008). “Consumer preferences and demand systems“, *Journal of Econometrics* 147(2): 210-224.
- Beck, U. (2000). *La società del rischio. Verso una seconda modernità*, Roma, Cartocci Editore.
- Bevilacqua P. (2004). *La mucca è savia: ragioni storiche della crisi alimentare europea*, Donzelli Editore, Roma, pag. 130.
- Dickinson, D. L. and B. DeeVon, (2002). “Meat traceability: Are U.S. consumers willing to pay for it? ”, *Journal of Agricultural and Resources Economics*, vol. 27, issue 2(December).
- Deaton, A. and J. Muellbauer, (1980). “Economics and Consumer Behavior”, *Cambridge University Press*.
- Deaton, A. and Zaidi, S. (2002), “Guidelines for Constructing Consumption Aggregates for Welfare Analysis”, *World Bank Publications*.
- de Stefano F. (2007), “Problematiche economico-sociali dei paesi avanzati: intervento pubblico sulla sicurezza alimentare”, XLIV Convegno SIDEA

“Produzioni agroalimentari tra rintracciabilità e sicurezza: analisi economiche e politiche di intervento”, Taormina, 8-10 novembre 2007

Drichoutis, A. C., Klonaris, S., Lazaridis, P. and R. M. Nayga, (2008).

“Household food consumption in Turkey: a comment.”, *European Review of Agricultural Economics* 35:93–98.

Gronau, R. (1974). “Wage Comparisons - A Selectivity Bias”, *The Journal of Political Economy* 82: 1119–43.

Heckman, J. (1979). “Sample Selection Bias as a Specification Error”, *Econometrica* 47: 153–61.

Heien, D. and C.R. Wessells, (1990). “Demand System Estimation with Microdata: A Censored Regression Approach”, *Journal of Business and Economic Statistics* 8: 365–371.

Hintze, J. L., and R. D. Nelson, (1998). “Violin Plots: A Box Plot-Density Trace Synergism”, *The American Statistician* 52(2):181-84.

Huang, K.S. and B.H. Lin, (2000). “Estimation of Food Demand and Nutrient Elasticities from Household Survey Data”, *Technical Bulletin No. TB1887, USDA, pp. 40.*

Mazzocchi, M. (2005). “Sicurezza alimentare, nutrizione e salute: tendenze recenti in Europa e negli Stati Uniti”, *Agriregionieuropa*, Anno I, n.3.

Mora, C., and D. Menozzi. (2005). Vertical contractual relations in the Italian beef supply chain, *Agribusiness* 21, 213-235.

- Moschini, G. (1995). "Units of measurements and the stone index in demand system estimation", *American Journal of Agricultural Economics* 77: 63–8.
- Perali, F. and J. P. Chavas, (2000). "Estimation of censored demand equations from large cross-section data", *American Journal of Agricultural Economics* 82: 1022–1037.
- Regattieri, A., Gamberi, M. and R. Manzini, (2007). "Traceability of food products: General framework and experimental evidence", *Journal of Food Engineering*, 81 (2), 347–356.
- Shonkwiler, J.S. and S. Yen, (1999). "Two-Step Estimation of a Censored System of Equations", *American Journal of Agricultural Economics* 81: 972–82.
- Ul-Haq, Z., Nazli H. and K. Meilke, (2008). "Implications of high food prices for poverty in Pakistan", *Agricultural Economics* vol. 39(s1): 477-84.
- Yen, S. T., Kan, K. and S. Su, (2002). "Household demand for fats and oils: two-step estimation of a censored demand system", *Applied Economics* 34: 1799–1806.

Table 1: Percentage of positive consumption, expenditure share and purchase frequency by food group

Fresh Veg. Group	Household purchasing (%)	Mean Veg. Expenditure (%)	Avg. Purch. Frequency (days)
Salads	98.3	12.5	24
Spinaches	62.8	1.9	163
Pulses	79.9	3.6	114
Potatoes	92.7	9.1	56
New potatoes	51.8	1.4	272
Asparaguses	74	4.1	131
Tomatoes	97.5	16	27
Eggplants and Peppers	98.4	14.4	25
Carrots	91.9	3.5	61
Fennels	80	3.4	108
IV Veg.	85.2	12.7	33
Other Vegetables	98.8	17.5	17

Table 2: Description of variables used in food demand system

Parameters	Variable	Mean	sd
γ_{ij}	Price of Salads	2.15	0.72
γ_{ij}	Price of Spinaches	1.54	0.62
γ_{ij}	Price of Pulses	2.41	0.49
γ_{ij}	Price of Potatoes	0.9	0.2
γ_{ij}	Price of New potatoes	0.96	0.18
γ_{ij}	Price of Asparaguses	4.34	0.98
γ_{ij}	Price of Tomatoes	2.05	0.48
γ_{ij}	Price of Eggplants and Peppers	1.73	0.35
γ_{ij}	Price of Carrots	1.16	0.18
γ_{ij}	Price of Fennels	1.43	0.26
γ_{ij}	Price of IV Veg.	9.26	2.36
γ_{ij}	Price of Other Vegetables	1.82	0.52
β_i	Total fresh vegetables expenditure of the household (€/year)	256.95	219.43
$\delta_{1,i}$	1 if the head of the household has finished High School or Univ.	0.44	0.5
$\delta_{2,i}$	1 if the household lives in North Est Region	0.19	0.39
$\delta_{3,i}$	1 if the household lives in Centre&Sardinia Region	0.21	0.41
$\delta_{4,i}$	1 if the household lives in South&Sicily Region	0.3	0.46
$\delta_{5,i}$	1 for highest income group and 0 otherwise	0.29	0.45
$\delta_{6,i}$	1 if the household lives in more than 100.000 in-habitants city	0.27	0.44
$\delta_{7,i}$	1 if the head of the household is ≥ 44 years old	0.64	0.48
$\delta_{8,i}$	1 if the household has more than 2 members	0.53	0.5
$\delta_{9,i}$	1 for the presence of a children ≤ 15 years old	0.3	0.46
$\delta_{10,i}$	1 if the household head is employed	0.26	0.44

Table 3: Estimated parameter demand

	Salads	Pulses	Potatoes	Eggpl.&Pepp.	Asparag.	Tomatoes	New potatoes	Carrots	Fennels	Oth. Veg.	Spinach	IV Veg.
γ_{Salads}	0.041***	0.007**	0.009**	-0.014***	-0.009**	-0.032***	-0.009***	-0.012***	-0.001	-0.018***	-0.007***	0.034***
γ_{Pulses}	0.007**	0.014***	-0.005	0.007*	0.003	0.010**	0.005*	-0.004	0.007**	-0.015***	0.001	-0.009***
γ_{Potatoes}	0.009**	-0.005	0	-0.021***	0.007*	0.010*	0.015***	0.010***	-0.006*	0.001	-0.001	-0.014***
$\gamma_{\text{Egg.Pepp.}}$	-0.014***	0.007*	-0.021***	0.061***	0.001	-0.015***	-0.003	0.007*	0.002	-0.009*	-0.007*	-0.009**
$\gamma_{\text{Asparag.}}$	-0.009**	0.003	0.007*	0.001	0.010*	0.016***	-0.004	-0.003	-0.003	-0.008*	-0.005*	-0.002
γ_{Tomatoes}	-0.032***	0.010**	0.010*	-0.015***	0.016***	0.024***	-0.006	0.011***	0.002	-0.022***	0.001	0.007
$\gamma_{\text{New potat.}}$	-0.009***	0.005*	0.015***	-0.003	-0.004	-0.006	0.012***	0	0.005*	-0.015***	-0.001	-0.001
γ_{Carrots}	-0.012***	-0.004	0.010***	0.007*	-0.003	0.011***	0	0.020***	0.004	-0.005*	-0.003	-0.010***
γ_{Fennels}	-0.001	0.007**	-0.006*	0.002	-0.003	0.002	0.005*	0.004	0.021***	-0.014***	0.002	-0.009***
$\gamma_{\text{Oth. Veg.}}$	-0.018***	-0.015***	0.001	-0.009*	-0.008*	-0.022***	-0.015***	-0.005*	-0.014***	0.088***	-0.006**	0.011***
γ_{Spinach}	-0.007***	0.001	-0.001	-0.007*	-0.005*	0.001	-0.001	-0.003	0.002	-0.006**	0.013***	-0.004
$\gamma_{\text{IV Veg.}}$	0.034***	-0.009***	-0.014***	-0.009**	-0.002	0.007	-0.001	-0.010***	-0.009***	0.011***	-0.004	0.016***
β_1	0.004**	-0.010***	-0.002	0.008***	0.012***	0.001	-0.003	-0.002*	-0.023***	0.013***	-0.008***	-0.001
δ_1	-0.007**	0.001	-0.007***	-0.004	0	0.004	0.001	0	0	-0.011***	0.004**	0.019***
δ_2	0.027***	0.005**	-0.021***	-0.004	-0.009***	-0.013***	-0.003	0.002	0.005**	0.032***	0.005*	-0.024***
δ_3	0.010**	0.003	-0.009**	-0.001	0.002	0.024***	0.016***	-0.008***	-0.006***	-0.003	0.009***	-0.021***
δ_4	0.001	0.022***	0.031***	0.049***	-0.017***	0.015***	0.016***	-0.002	-0.002	0.005	0.011***	-0.106***
δ_5	0.014***	-0.006***	-0.003	0.001	-0.010***	0	-0.003	-0.003**	-0.005***	0.007*	-0.004***	0.010***
δ_6	0.003	0.006***	-0.011***	0.008***	0.009***	-0.008**	0	-0.003**	-0.002	-0.006*	0.005***	-0.003
δ_7	0.003	0.003	0.001	-0.020***	0.018***	-0.010**	0.003	-0.005***	0.002	0.003	-0.002	0.001
δ_8	-0.002	-0.005***	0.004	0.012***	-0.013***	0	0.005***	0.001	0.002	-0.008**	0.002	0.011***
δ_9	0.012***	-0.003	0.001	0	-0.005	0.003	-0.004*	0.002	0.003	-0.009**	0.001	-0.007
δ_{10}	-0.008*	0.006***	0.008**	-0.027***	0.008**	-0.010**	0.004*	-0.006***	0.002	0	0.001	0.018***
δ_ϕ	0.481***	-0.019*	0.135***	0.518***	0.054***	0.144***	0.047***	0.034***	-0.055***	0.272***	-0.006	0.042***
α_i	0.035***	0.084***	0.110***	0.100***	-0.03	0.133***	0.019	0.081***	0.180***	0.105***	0.081***	0.102***
R^2	0.65	0.41	0.6	0.71	0.34	0.71	0.22	0.47	0.43	0.78	0.26	0.58

legend: (* $p < 0.10$; ** $p < 0.05$; *** $p < 0.01$)

Table 4: Uncompensated price, cross-price and expenditure elasticities by fresh vegetables group (mean value)

	Salads	Pulses	Potatoes	Egg. Pepp.	Asparaguses	Spinaches	Tomatoes	New Potat.	Oth. Veg.	Carrots	Fennels	IVVeg.
Salads	-0.68	0.05	0.07	-0.11	-0.07	-0.05	-0.26	-0.07	-0.15	-0.1	-0.01	0.26
Pulses	0.17	-0.68	-0.09	0.19	0.09	0.02	0.26	0.12	-0.29	-0.08	0.17	-0.18
Potatoes	0.09	-0.05	-1	-0.22	0.08	-0.01	0.1	0.16	0.02	0.1	-0.07	-0.14
Egg. Pepp	-0.1	0.05	-0.15	-0.6	0.01	-0.05	-0.11	-0.02	-0.07	0.05	0.01	-0.07
Asparag.	-0.19	0.05	0.11	-0.01	-0.83	-0.09	0.25	-0.07	-0.18	-0.06	-0.05	-0.07
Spinaches	-0.21	0.03	0	-0.19	-0.16	-0.56	0.08	-0.02	-0.17	-0.09	0.07	-0.09
Tomatoes	-0.2	0.06	0.06	-0.09	0.1	0.01	-0.85	-0.04	-0.14	0.06	0.01	0.04
New Potat.	-0.32	0.2	0.57	-0.09	-0.13	-0.02	-0.21	-0.57	-0.53	-0.01	0.21	-0.03
Oth. Veg.	-0.11	-0.09	0	-0.06	-0.05	-0.04	-0.14	-0.08	-0.52	-0.03	-0.08	0.05
Carrots	-0.31	-0.1	0.26	0.19	-0.08	-0.07	0.29	-0.01	-0.11	-0.48	0.12	-0.26
Fennels	0.05	0.19	-0.1	0.12	-0.04	0.05	0.12	0.13	-0.24	0.12	-0.5	-0.15
IVVeg.	0.24	-0.06	-0.1	-0.06	-0.01	-0.02	0.05	-0.01	0.08	-0.07	-0.06	-0.88
Expenditure	1.03	0.77	0.98	1.06	1.22	0.74	1.01	0.89	1.08	0.94	0.47	0.99

Values calculated through Yen *et al.*, procedure (2002).

Table 5: New potatoes price change simulation, percentage of positive consumption, quantity consumption (Kg.) and percentage variation.

	Fresh Veg. Group	Household purchasing (%) and percentage variation		Quantity consumption (Kg.) per household per year and percentage variation	
Benchmark	Potatoes	92.7		26.11	
	New Potatoes	51.8		3.34	
$t = 0.05P_{\text{new potatoes}}$	Potatoes	92.7	0	+0.21	+0.8
	New Potatoes	51.4	-0.8	-0.09	-2.7
$t = 0.07P_{\text{new potatoes}}$	Potatoes	92.7	0	+0.29	+1.1
	New Potatoes	51.2	-1.2	-0.12	-3.7
$t = 0.1P_{\text{new potatoes}}$	Potatoes	92.7	0	+0.40	+1.6
	New Potatoes	51	-1.6	-0.18	-5.3
$t = 0.15P_{\text{new potatoes}}$	Potatoes	92.7	0	+0.59	+2.3
	New Potatoes	50.7	-2.1	-0.26	-7.7

Figure1: Violinplot of new potato own-price elasticity

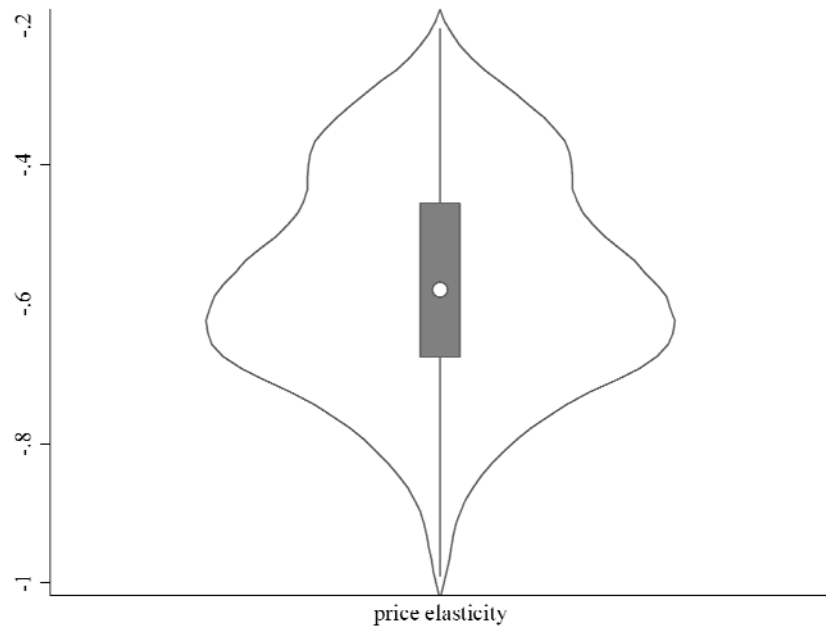


Figure 2: Violinplot of new potato own price elasticity by region

