

78-10

Food Demand Matrix Derived
from Additive Quadratic Model

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It is a general belief that the pattern of food consumption has undergone change during the recent period as a result of the high rate of economic growth in Japan. In other words, consumption pattern has been markedly modernized and modernized for both food and non-food categories with greatly improved living standards (see [4, 9, 12]). It is of great interest, therefore, to elucidate on the change of food consumption pattern within the framework of economic theory.

This paper is intended to adopt a dynamic approach in an attempt to analyze the structure of food demand over the past sixteen years. In the previous studies [8, 10] of food demand analysis, alternative versions of the linear simultaneous system have been fitted to Japanese data in the relatively recent years. These models were found considerably well-fitted to the data. Since the models were static, however, there remained a problem of investigating dynamic factors affecting the consumer demand, particularly for food commodities. The method applied in this study is the additive quadratic model by Theil and Taylor ([2] ch.5). It is one of the major methodological developments in consumer demand analysis in late years,¹⁾ and has dynamic and theoretically consistent aspects with wide application.

This paper chiefly concerns the analysis of preferences of urban residents during the period of rapidly growing economy, and the derivation of the food demand matrix from the estimated additive quadratic model. A further research is needed concerning to what extent the stability conditions are satisfied of short-run and long-run equilibria, and how effectively such a model can be applied to the food demand analysis in Japan. The latter part of this paper

is concentrated on a short-run equilibrium analysis of food consumption. Comparisons are made between present and previous studies for demand elasticity and money flexibility. Substitutional relationships are analyzed in the Hicks-Allen sense among eleven food commodity groups and a non-food category. Moreover, empirical implications of the results obtained are discussed in detail.

Model

On the assumption of a dynamic, additive and quadratic utility function, following estimating equations are developed to obtain the structural coefficients closely associated with utility function and stock adjustment function (see [2] ch.5 and [7]):

$$q_{it} = K_{i0} + K_{i1}q_{i,t-1} + K_{i2}\lambda_t p_{it} + K_{i3}\lambda_{t-1} p_{i,t-1} + u_t$$

($i = 1, 2, \dots, n$; $t = 1, 2, \dots, T$)

$$\lambda_t = \frac{m_t - \hat{\Sigma}K_{i0}p_{it} - \hat{\Sigma}K_{i1}p_{it}q_{i,t-1} - \hat{\lambda}_{t-1}\hat{\Sigma}K_{i3}p_{it}p_{i,t-1}}{\hat{\Sigma}K_{i2}p_{it}^2}$$

p_i refers to the price of the i th commodity, q_i the quantity purchased per capita of the i th commodity, m income (or total expenditure) and λ the marginal utility of income. The K 's indicate parameters to be estimated, \hat{K} 's estimated values, and u_t a residual term. Since equation (1) is nonlinear in unknown parameters K 's and undetermined multiplier λ , an iteration of least squares would be required.

The above estimating equations were originally presented by Houthakker and Taylor. Imposing the adding-up condition on equation (1) yields equation (2), which gives an estimate of λ_t once parameters K 's have been estimated. Given values of λ_t 's, equation (1) becomes linear in unknown parameters K 's. Therefore, it is possible to apply ordinary least squares to the estimating equation for the sake of simplicity (see [7, 11]). At the first round of successive estimation, the λ_t 's could be determined arbitrarily. Thus equations (1) and (2) can be alternately estimated and the process continues until

convergence is achieved in either K 's or λ_t 's. It is equivalent to estimating the n equations simultaneously, though the estimates of K 's are obtained by equation for n commodities. Equation (1) is essentially the same as M I in [2]. However, there is no necessity for deflating prices (and hence since the marginal utility of income λ_t is a homogeneous function of degree one in prices p_{it} and income m_t (see [7])).

On the additional assumptions of directly additive preferences and constant depreciation rates of (physical and psychological) stocks, the regression coefficients provide the structural coefficients in matrix form as follows:

$$(3) \quad a = -[K_2 - K_3]^{-1} K_0 ,$$

$$(4) \quad A = [K_2 - K_3]^{-1} [I - K_1] ,$$

$$(5) \quad B = -4[K_2 - K_3]^{-2} [K_1 K_2 - K_3] ,$$

$$(6) \quad D = 2[K_2 - K_3]^{-1} [K_2 - K_3] ,$$

where a denotes a vector of constant terms in the marginal utility function of commodities, A the familiar Hessian of utility function, B a matrix of coefficients which measures the effect of stock changes on marginal utility, D a depreciation rate matrix, and I the identity matrix. All $(n \times n)$ constant matrices are diagonal and nonsingular, so that these matrices and vectors can be treated as if they were constants.

The coefficients a_i 's are positive and A_{ii} 's are negative for all commodities.

the conditions of positive marginal utilities and of stability in static (or in short run). The B_{ii} 's are negative for durable commodities while they are positive for habit-forming commodities. Changes in preferences are modeled as the influence of stocks on marginal utilities. They are expressed in terms of one state variable, stock, for each commodity and there is no interaction between commodities. Non-measurable state variables disappear from the estimating equations through some manipulation. The D_{ii} 's are usually positive.

From the sufficient condition of stability the following inequalities are set forth:

$$A_{ii} < 0 \text{ and } A_{ii}D_{ii} - B_{ii} < 0 .$$

The former indicates the stability condition of short-run equilibrium and the latter represents that of long-run equilibrium.

The main purpose of demand analysis is to derive the effects of changes in the determinants of demand as income and prices on quantities of various commodities purchased. One of the striking features of this dynamic model is the distinction between short-run and long-run effects. In the short-run, income and price effects are written in matrix form:

$$\frac{\partial \lambda}{\partial m} = (p'A^{-1}p)^{-1} ,$$

$$\frac{\partial q}{\partial m} = (p'A^{-1}p)^{-1}A^{-1}p ,$$

$$\frac{\partial q}{\partial p} = \lambda A^{-1} - \lambda(p'A^{-1}p)^{-1}A^{-1}pp'A^{-1} - \frac{\partial q}{\partial m} q' ,$$

state variables remaining unchanged with respect to changes in income and price. In the long-run, similar equations can be deduced for income and price effects where state variables vary in response to income and price changes but remain constant over time.

Data and Estimation

The data used here are annual ones (5), concerned with inhabitants of cities. The source of data is representative of all family budget data available on a national level in Japan. This study covers the period 1956 - 1971, in which consumption showed very rapid changes and improvements reflecting the high rate of income growth.

Total consumption expenditure was decomposed into twelve subgroups, as indicated in the tables below, with eleven food commodity groups and one non-food commodity. The twelve-commodity breakdown is the same as in the previous study except that the milk and eggs group was split into three commodities; i.e., milk products and eggs. Three major notations and data used in the analysis are the following:

p_i : nominal price of commodity i ($i = 1, 2, \dots, 12$; 1965 prices = 1),
 q_i : quantity yearly consumed per capita of commodity i (expenditure in constant 1965 prices), which was obtained by dividing expenditure in current yen by current price for each commodity,
 Y : nominal yearly income per capita (total expenditure in current yen; unit: 1,000 yen),

Indices are regarded as individual prices. Taking 1965 as the base year, prices are set equal to unity. Other notations employed are defined later.

In estimation, Method I is employed because the period covered is not so

Hence, at the first round of iterative procedure, all λ_t 's are set equal to unity and then parameters K 's are estimated by least squares. Substituting estimates of K 's and actual data into equation (2) gives estimates of λ_t 's.

The initial value of λ_t, λ_0 , is fixed at unity in every round. The estimated λ_t 's are now used to carry on round 2 of iteration, and the same process is repeated in every round. Let ϵ_r be the rate of error for parameter K:

$$\epsilon_r = \frac{K_{(r-1)} - K_r}{K_r} \times 100 \quad (\% ; r = 2, 3, \dots),$$

where r denotes the number of round. It serves as a criterion of judging degree of convergence. In each round, rates of error for all estimated parameters are computed and the maximum one is picked up to compare between rounds. The results obtained up to round 40 are summarized in Table 1.

After round 23, the maximum rate of error shows a downward tendency, falls under 10 percent in round 27 and approaches toward convergence. Between round 29 and 40, this rate is 5 or 6 percent, so that convergence is considered to have been practically achieved up to round 40. If further iterations are continued, new states of convergence emerge after some temporal changes in regression coefficients, but it takes so many rounds until the rates of error fall within 4 percent.²⁾

Here the iteration ends up in round 40, and the maximum rate of error for estimated λ_t 's is no more than 0.1 percent. The regression results are presented in Table 2. They make little difference comparing with the later rounds of convergence. The R^2 's are generally high and, in view of the Durbin-Watson ratios (D.W.), there is no marked serial correlation for all commodity groups but for other cereals. As for the regression coefficients, K_2 and K_3 are apparently insignificant for rice, other cereals and milk products, and so is K_3 for milk. However, the significance of other coefficients is relatively high.

Table 1

Range of Maximum Rate of Error by
Round of Iterative Estimation, $|\varepsilon|_{\max}$

Range	Number of Round, r
$ \varepsilon _{\max} \geq 50\%$	2 ~ 7 , 12 ~ 15 , 17 ~ 22
$10\% \leq \varepsilon _{\max} < 50\%$	8 ~ 11 , 16 , 23 ~ 26
$ \varepsilon _{\max} < 10\%$	27 ~ 40

Table 2
Coefficients for Estimating Equation
(Round 40)

Commodity group	K_0	K_1	K_2	K_3	R^2	D
1 Rice	-0.510	1.037 ^b (4.885)	0.226 (0.118)	-0.341 (0.216)	0.974	1
2 Other cereals	-0.103	0.993 (3.377)	-1.502 (1.304)	1.709 (1.551)	0.721	0
3 Fish	2.237	0.582 (2.860)	-3.466 (3.648)	4.009 (3.522)	0.614	1
4 Meat	0.253	1.152 (15.329)	-5.140 (7.184)	4.759 (7.913)	0.998	1
5 Milk	1.121	1.453 (9.407)	-1.774 (3.098)	-0.050 (0.065)	0.990	2
6 Milk products	-0.281	1.010 (23.344)	-0.085 (0.272)	0.413 (1.335)	0.986	1
7 Eggs	1.175	0.854 (9.359)	-1.713 (4.722)	0.982 (2.148)	0.992	1
8 Vegetables	1.045	0.776 (3.819)	-1.835 (3.992)	2.098 (4.288)	0.677	2
9 Fruit	-0.137	0.925 (16.061)	-2.440 (7.359)	3.140 (10.862)	0.994	2
10 F.c.a.h. ^a	-0.124	0.765 (6.295)	-3.956 (3.387)	5.632 (4.394)	0.993	1
11 Other food	-0.060	1.043 (18.343)	-11.887 (4.705)	12.449 (4.302)	0.998	2
12 Non-food	-3.465	1.019 (43.480)	-91.473 (14.319)	103.573 (16.452)	1.000	2

a Food consumed away from home.

b Figures in parentheses are |t|-ratios.

Substitution of the coefficients for estimating equation into equations - (6) results in the coefficients for structural equations (see [2], ch.5), which are given in Table 3. According to theoretical properties, a 's and D 's should be positive, and B 's are mostly expected to be positive whereas the L comprises many non-durables. Nevertheless, such requirements are not sufficiently fulfilled. Particularly striking is that quite a few dynamic parameters B 's and D 's hold contrary signs. As described above, some of the a 's and K_3 's are insignificant for rice, other cereals, milk products and milk, and that the significance of the B 's and D 's must be low for these commodity groups.³⁾

As for static parameters a 's and A 's, on the other hand, the estimates are more reasonable with a few exceptions. The A is positive for rice, an inferior good but is negative for all others. It has shown a negative and stable trend for each of all the commodity groups except rice from early rounds of estimation. The a 's also have been mostly stable.

To sum up, long-run parameters fluctuated more than short-run parameters in the process of convergence.

Table 3
Coefficients for Structural Equations

Commodity group	a	A	B	D
1. Rice	-4.435	3.593	1.327	-0.4
2. Other cereals	0.498	-0.621	-0.084	-0.1
3. Fish	-4.120	-0.121	-0.143	-0.1
4. Meat	0.664	-0.217	0.047	0.0
5. Milk	0.615	-1.423	3.536	2.1
6. Milk products	0.857	-4.036	-5.277	-1.3
7. Eggs	1.607	-0.688	0.265	0.5
8. Vegetables	-3.973	-0.452	-0.174	-0.1
9. Fruit	0.196	-0.345	-0.113	-0.2
10. F.c.a.h.	0.074	-0.184	-0.113	-0.3
11. Other food	0.107	-0.084	0.000	-0.0
12. Non-food	0.286	-0.010	-0.001	-0.1

Results

From a dynamic viewpoint, as seen in Table 3, appropriate estimates of the structural coefficients have not been obtained for many commodity groups. Meat, and eggs, which exhibited positive B and D, correspond to habit-forming commodities. For other commodity groups, the resultant structural coefficients do not render an account of dynamic effects. Therefore, there is no evidence to show that dynamic or long-run equilibrium has been achieved over the whole sample period.

On the other hand, short-run coefficients tend to be stable with a few exceptions. A's exhibited negative values from early rounds except for rice which did not vary widely in the iterative process. Thus consumer behavior seems to have been almost in equilibrium from a static or short-run viewpoint of food consumption. Accordingly, the following discussion focuses on a short-run equilibrium analysis.

Income and price derivatives of demand are evaluated at the sample mean observations (4) and (5) in the short-run, using estimated A's and λ in addition to actual data on income and prices. They can also be transformed into short-run elasticities. Derivation of price elasticities necessitates the estimate of λ . Estimated marginal utilities of income are tabulated in Table 4, with the average value

$$\bar{\lambda} = 1.021 .$$

The estimate of λ did not change noticeably with the rising income in the sample period of observation.

Likewise, income elasticity of λ is computed by equation (3). Income elasticities of the marginal utility of undeflated income are also presented in Table 4, whose average is

Table 4

Estimated Marginal Utilities of Income and
Their Elasticities with Respect to Income, λ and ω

Year	m	λ	ω
1956	62.364	1.000	-0.935
1957	67.389	1.025	-0.942
1958	71.346	1.065	-0.973
1959	76.057	1.093	-0.985
1960	83.217	1.095	-0.998
1961	94.701	1.057	-1.068
1962	107.936	1.017	-1.114
1963	121.715	0.997	-1.129
1964	134.114	0.994	-1.148
1965	146.693	1.006	-1.104
1966	161.429	1.009	-1.083
1967	177.501	1.018	-1.096
1968	196.868	1.017	-1.098
1969	222.165	0.996	-1.146
1970	251.514	0.974	-1.130
1971	277.128	0.980	-1.091

(m : 1,000 yen in current prices)

$$\omega^v = -1.065$$

amounts to roughly one-half of several estimates of the ω^v in terms of deflated income, resulting from other models (see [8,10]⁴⁾). The income elasticity of the marginal utility of income in this case, or money flexibility for short, has been used in absolute value without wide variations.

Elasticities of demand with respect to undeflated income and prices are reported in Table 5, evaluated at the sample means. Those related to the milk and eggs group, and to all food are derived by means of Engel and Cournot relations as well as the homogeneity condition. By a glance at the Table it can be seen that income and own price elasticities are rather high for all food, cereals and fish, and that they are low for milk and milk products. Eggs, f.c.a.h. have fairly large own price elasticities, exceeding unity in absolute value. In comparison with the previous studies, meat, milk, milk products, eggs, fruit, f.c.a.h. and non-food whose consumption showed a steady increase seem to have lower elasticities with respect to undeflated income than in the case of deflated income. Many of the price elasticities in the present study are lower than the previous ones, reflecting the lower income elasticity of the marginal utility of undeflated income.

Referring to the changes in income elasticities over time, or with an increase in income, milk products and eggs fell sharply but fish and vegetables increased considerably. Milk, fruit and non-food are on a slight decrease while cereals rose slowly. Little change was found for meat, f.c.a.h., other food and for rice with a negative sign.

Average estimates of the Allen partial elasticities of substitution emerge from the above results, as reported in Table 6. Twelve of the fifty-five partial (or cross) elasticities of substitution between the eleven

Table 5
Average Elasticities of Demand with Respect to
Undeclared Income and Prices, \bar{E}_i and \bar{e}_{ij} ^a

j		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12		\bar{E}_i	
i		Rice	Other cereals	Fish	Meat	Milk	Milk products	Eggs	Milk and eggs	Vegetables	Fruit	F.c.a.h.	Other food	All food	Non-food	
1.	Rice	.032	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	-.000	.000	.001	.000	-.000	.001	.034	-.002	-.032
2.	Other cereals	-.046	-.657	-.004	-.002	-.005	-.001	.000	-.006	-.012	-.001	.006	-.016	-.738	.046	.692
3.	Fish	-.061	-.005	-.860	-.002	-.007	-.002	.001	-.008	-.016	-.001	.007	-.021	-.967	.061	.906
4.	Meat	-.066	-.006	-.005	-.937	-.007	-.002	.001	-.008	-.018	-.001	.008	-.023	-1.056	.066	.990
5.	Milk	-.028	-.002	-.002	-.001	-.393	-.001	.000	-.394	-.007	-.000	.003	-.010	-.441	.028	.413
6.	Milk products	-.035	-.003	-.003	-.001	-.004	-.500	.000	-.504	-.010	-.000	.004	-.012	-.564	.035	.529
7.	Eggs	-.076	-.007	-.006	-.002	-.008	-.002	-1.067	-1.077	-.020	-.001	.009	-.027	-1.207	.076	1.131
	Milk and Eggs	-.051	-.004	-.004	-.002	-.168	-.065	-.485	-.718	-.013	-.001	.006	-.018	-.805	.050	.755
8.	Vegetables	-.029	-.003	-.002	-.001	-.003	-.001	.000	-.004	-.421	-.000	.003	-.010	-.467	.029	.438
9.	Fruit	-.068	-.006	-.006	-.002	-.008	-.002	.001	-.009	-.018	-.958	.008	-.024	-1.083	.068	1.015
10.	F.c.a.h. ^b	-.090	-.008	-.008	-.003	-.010	-.002	.001	-.011	-.024	-.001	-1.264	-.032	-1.441	.090	1.351
11.	Other food	-.056	-.005	-.005	-.002	-.006	-.001	.001	-.007	-.015	-.001	.007	-.804	-.887	.056	.831
	All food	-.042	-.035	-.091	-.088	-.018	-.006	-.037	-.061	-.046	-.053	-.095	-.246	-.757	.047	.710
12.	Non-food	-.079	-.007	-.006	-.003	-.009	-.002	.001	-.010	-.021	-.001	.010	-.028	-.145	-1.028	1.173
	\bar{w}_j ^c	.0650	.0173	.0381	.0344	.0121	.0037	.0133	.0291	.0304	.0203	.0296	.1090	.3732	.6268	

a \bar{E}_i =average income elasticity of commodity group i; \bar{e}_{ij} =average elasticity of commodity group i with respect to the jth price.

b Food consumed away from home.

c \bar{w}_j =average budget share of commodity group j at average prices and expenditures.

Table 6

Average Estimates of the Partial Elasticities of Substitution,

$$\sigma_{ij} = e_{ij} / w_j - E_1$$

i	j	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	
		Rice	Other cereals	Fish	Meat	Milk	Milk products	Eggs	Milk and eggs	Vegetables	Fruit	F.c.a.h.	Other food	All food
1.	Rice	.46												
2.	Other cereals	-.02	-37.13											
3.	Fish	-.03	.59	-21.69										
4.	Meat	-.03	.65	.85	-26.26									
5.	Milk	-.01	.27	.35	.39	-75.94								
6.	Milk products	-.02	.35	.45	.49	.21	-133.78							
7.	Eggs	-.03	.74	.97	1.06	.44	.56	-79.39						
	Milk and Eggs	-.02	.49	.65	.71	-13.09	-16.77	-35.87	-23.93					
8.	Vegetables	-.01	.29	.37	.41	.17	.22	.47	.31	-13.39				
9.	Fruit	-.03	.66	.87	.95	.40	.51	1.08	.72	.42	-46.26			
10.	F.c.a.h.	-.04	.88	1.16	1.26	.53	.67	1.44	.96	.56	1.29	-41.35		
11.	Other food	-.03	.54	.71	.78	.32	.41	.89	.59	.34	.80	1.06	-6.54	
	All food	.06	-1.29	-1.68	-1.84	-.77	-.98	-2.10	-1.40	-.81	-1.89	-2.51	-1.54	-1.32
12.	Non-food	-.04	.77	1.00	1.10	.46	.59	1.25	.84	.48	1.12	1.49	.92	.79

normal goods are greater than or equal to unity. Notably substitutable food items others are meat, eggs, fruit and f.c.a.h.. The substitution elasticity between all food and non-food is 0.79. The substitutability, on the whole, appears to be fairly large but the complementarity between rice and the rest is quite small.

Finally the interpolation test is applied to the estimated system of equations with the coefficients reported in Table 2, in order to examine the effectiveness of the model as a whole. It consists of total and final tests. In this case since equation (1) contains both predetermined endogenous and exogenous variables on the right-hand side. The λ_t , a predetermined endogenous variable in equation (1), is a function of a lagged endogenous variable and exogenous variables, so that it could be regarded as a lagged endogenous variable. Partial test is not applicable because there is no contemporary endogenous variable on the right-hand side. As the measure of fitness in the two tests, the ratio of estimated to actual quantities is computed, which reveals the validity of demand analysis and prediction. Measures of fitness are given in Table 7.

Equation (1) is in effect expressed in reduced form. In the total test therefore, the value of the contemporary endogenous variable in each equation is calculated easily by substituting observed values into both predetermined endogenous and exogenous variables. Evidently from the measures in the upper rows, the model indicates a fairly high fitness in the total test, greater than or equal to 78 percent. The lower limit of the measures of fitness is 88 percent except commodity group 6, milk products. Structural errors of the model are considered to be relatively small in this respect.

In the final or simulation test, only the observed values of exogenous variables and of predetermined endogenous variables in the first year of the

Table 7

Measures of Fitness in Total and Final Tests^a, \hat{x}_i/x_i ^b

i	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
	.96	1.07	1.01	1.05	1.12	.85	1.08	1.02	1.04	1.03	1.02	.99
	1.01	1.02	.97	1.01	.96	1.12	1.09	.92	.99	.96	.99	1.01
	.97	1.09	.98	1.07	1.10	.98	1.15	.93	1.03	.98	1.00	1.01
	.98	1.04	.97	1.01	1.01	1.16	.96	1.02	1.00	1.02	1.02	1.00
	.95	1.13	.96	1.08	1.14	1.15	1.08	.97	1.03	1.00	1.03	1.01
	.98	1.06	.99	.97	1.05	1.22	.94	1.00	.98	.99	.99	1.01
	.93	1.19	.96	1.07	1.23	1.37	1.00	.97	1.00	.99	1.02	1.01
	1.03	.98	1.00	.98	1.01	.89	1.01	1.01	.97	.98	.99	1.00
	.95	1.16	.98	1.06	1.31	1.16	1.01	.99	.97	.97	1.00	1.01
	1.02	.97	1.02	.97	1.00	1.04	.99	1.04	1.02	1.00	.99	1.00
	.96	1.12	1.01	1.03	*	1.19	1.00	1.02	.99	.98	.99	1.01
	1.02	.94	1.04	1.00	.95	.92	.99	1.04	1.02	1.00	1.00	1.00
	.98	1.05	1.04	1.03	*	1.07	.99	1.06	1.01	.99	.99	1.00
	1.01	.92	.91	.99	.93	.96	1.00	1.01	.96	1.04	1.01	1.00
	.99	.97	.93	1.02	*	1.02	.99	1.06	.96	1.04	1.00	1.01
	1.00	.97	1.11	1.01	1.02	.96	.95	1.01	1.03	1.00	1.00	1.00
	.98	.94	1.07	1.03	*	.98	.94	1.06	1.00	1.03	.99	1.01
	1.08	1.01	1.01	1.00	.96	1.01	1.00	.97	1.00	1.04	1.01	1.00
	1.06	.95	1.05	1.03	*	.99	.94	1.01	1.00	1.06	1.00	1.00
	.98	1.04	.99	1.00	1.00	.98	1.00	1.00	1.00	.99	1.00	1.00
	1.05	.99	1.02	1.04	*	.97	.96	1.01	1.00	1.02	.99	1.00
	1.00	1.07	1.00	1.01	1.03	1.00	.98	1.00	1.04	.97	1.01	1.00
	1.06	1.05	1.01	1.11	*	.98	.95	1.01	1.03	.99	1.00	1.00
	1.02	.99	1.03	1.00	.99	.99	1.02	1.00	.98	.98	1.01	1.00
	1.08	1.04	1.04	1.05	*	.97	.97	1.01	1.01	.97	1.01	1.00
	.98	1.01	.97	1.01	1.02	1.02	1.01	.96	.99	1.00	1.00	1.00
	1.06	1.05	.99	1.07	*	.99	.99	.97	1.00	.98	1.01	1.00
	.99	.98	.99	1.00	1.00	1.01	1.03	1.02	1.00	1.02	.99	1.00
	1.06	1.02	.99	1.07	*	1.00	1.02	.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00

Upper and lower figures represent measures of fitness in total and final tests, respectively.

x_i =actual quantity; \hat{x}_i =estimated quantity.

† not applicable; * undia

period analyzed are inserted in the model to calculate the predicted values of contemporary endogenous variables. Values of predetermined endogenous variables in the years other than the first year are also computed in the model. As regards commodity groups 5 and 6, the measures in the lower rows indicate at 81 percent of fitness, which is substantially high in the accuracy of demand prediction. Measures for commodity group 6 include a lower point estimate of 63 percent. As regards commodity group 5, the measure of fitness increases rapidly and proves that the model is not suitable for the demand prediction of this subgroup.

Concluding Remarks

This paper attempted to apply a dynamic preference model to the measurement of the food demand system in 1956-1971, the period of rapid improvement and modernization in the postwar Japanese diet. In conclusion, even through such a dynamic approach, it is difficult to explain at full length the influence of economic factors upon the changing pattern of food consumption.

Parameters of the estimating equation approximately reached the state of convergence in round 40. Many of them are statistically significant. Of all structural parameters obtained by using those estimates, dynamic parameters are rather unstable and do not satisfy the theoretical conditions of sign. Therefore, there is no guarantee that dynamic or long-run equilibrium has been in existence during the period under consideration.

The interval of observation is regarded as a period of transition from traditional to modern type of dietary habits, and so it would be still premature to assume a new style of eating habits. Meat, milk and eggs have been found to be emerging commodities. The other subgroups of food commodities had negative (psychological) stock effects. It may safely be said, however, that some traditional commodities with large (psychological) stocks gradually lose public favor and are partly replaced by modern commodities which record small stocks and increase in popularity. Stock effects of conventional food commodities would be positive in such a situation. In this regard, the negativity of B can be interpreted for those food commodities. Although the model does not provide a static and dynamic explanation in this study, it could be more effectively applied to the analysis of a longer interval of observation.

Since the static parameters as a whole have been duly estimated, it follows that the food demand shifted from year to year along the locus of short-run

equilibrium points. Thus the short-run demand matrix and money flexibility are derived from the estimated additive quadratic model. They appear plausible and comparable with the results in the previous studies. The change of consumption pattern in the 1956-1971 period seems to be substantially explained by income and price changes within a theoretically consistent framework, it was indeed remarkable. Lastly, the Houthakker-Taylor model should be widely applied and empirically tested since there are not so many examples of its application hitherto.

Footnotes

There is an interesting alternative model by Philips (6) in this connection. The maximum rate of error fell to 4 percent in round 91 and thereafter. It is very likely that the B's and D's appear too large in absolute value for milk, milk products and rice because of their low statistical significance.

There is much empirical evidence in a number of countries, supporting the fact that the income elasticity of the marginal utility of real income centers around a figure of -2 (see (1) IV and (3)).

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