

1 **Modelling price expectation and volatility effects on producer behaviour: A** 2 **case of Namibian Beef market**

3 4 **Abstract**

5
6 The objective of this paper is to characterize beef producers' price expectation and
7 investigate price volatility response in a rational expectation context for aggregate producers'
8 supply response in the Namibian beef market using EGARCH (1, 1) model framework to
9 monthly data ranging from January 2000 to December 2013. The study found that price
10 uncertainty has strong influence in the beef market. Further investigation into producer price
11 elasticity response shows that producers respond more strongly to price changes in the long-
12 run than in the short-run. The findings also show that the expected price volatility has a
13 negative and statistical significant relationship with beef supply, such that an increase in price
14 volatility by one percent decreases beef supply by 0.05%. Other result for price volatility
15 shows that there is a negative and significant asymmetric price effect. This means that a
16 negative shock in price causes more volatility than a positive shock of the same magnitude.

17
18 **Key words:** Price expectation, volatility, asymmetric, elasticity, conditional variance.

19
20 JEL classification: C5, D2, Q1

21 22 **Introduction**

23
24 Agricultural productivity is highly risky, volatile and unpredictable. There is risk in
25 production because prices are typically volatile, even more volatile than in other sectors (Holt
26 and Moschini, 1992). This is characteristically so because of perishability in produce, lag and
27 seasonality in production, consequently, resulting in inelastic supply constraint (Just, 1974;
28 Holt and Aradhyula, 1990, 1998; Holt and Moschini, 1992; Rezitis and Stavropoulos 2009,
29 2012). This is why price volatility is regarded as an important risk factor in agricultural food
30 supply.

31
32 The question is how do producers mitigate these constraints? What attitude do they develop
33 towards risk - averse, seeking or neutral? No matter the position they adopt, studies have
34 shown that their behaviour is significantly affected by price volatility (Aradhyula and Holt,
35 1989; Holt and Aradhyula, 1990; Holt and Moschini, 1992; Rezitis and Stavropoulos, 2008,
36 2009, 2012). According to these studies, price fluctuation translates into a significant price
37 risk as such; an increase in price volatility implies higher uncertainty about future prices, a
38 fact that affects producers' welfare. Due to the impact of commodity price volatility on
39 general economic activity, an important concern for producers, policymakers and strategic
40 analysts is to predict the impact of current and future changes in prices on production
41 decision. This concern is based on the notion that producers and market agents are rational in
42 the sense that their expectations of price levels and volatility reflect some form of adaptive
43 expectation; that at any time, their expectation of the distribution of future prices is a function
44 of past realisations of prices (Nerlove, 1956; Nerlove and Bachman, 1960). As a result,
45 supply response is based on the hypothesis that quantity produced depends on input prices
46 and producers' expectation of output price. This notion has been widely investigated with
47 mixed results. For example, analyst such as Antonovitz and Green (1990), showed that
48 producers have negative expectations drawn from past sales which led them to conclude that
49 expectations are heterogeneous. This implies that, while some studies find positive
50 expectations in some sectors, it could be negative in others sectors or countries.

51

52 *Research Objective*

53

54 Therefore, the objective of this paper is to characterize price expectation and investigate price
55 volatility response in a rational expectation context for aggregate producers' supply response
56 in the Namibian beef market. Studies on producer expectation abound in the literature but no
57 known study has been carried out in the Namibia beef sector. A study by Hangura,
58 Teweldemedhin and Groenewald (2011) measured supply response at farm level in four
59 communities ignoring the effects of future price expectation on the supply response of the
60 farmers. This study incorporates future price expectation in the aggregate supply response
61 model and as well explore price volatility.

62

63 *Problem statement*

64

65 A major concern in the literature about modelling price expectation and volatility is selecting
66 appropriate modelling framework that will properly characterize the time-varying nature of
67 unobserved expectations and conditional variance. Analysts have used several methods for
68 this purpose. For example, Just (1976), applied adaptive expectation model to specify risk as
69 a weighted moving average of the squared deviations between lagged expectation and
70 realized outcome. Other methods such as time series model, were used by Roe and
71 Antonovitz (1984) and Antonovitz and Green (1990). The problem is that, the conditional
72 and unconditional variances associated with these models are time-invariant. Engle (1982)
73 proposed autoregressive conditional heteroscedasticity (ARCH) model which can be used to
74 model time-varying conditional variance. Bollerslev (1986) generalised the ARCH model
75 now called GARCH by allowing the conditional variance of the error process to be an
76 autoregressive integrated moving average (ARIMA) process. In the GARCH model, the
77 conditional variance depends not only on the past values of the time series, but also on a
78 moving average of the past conditional variance. Several authors have evaluated the effects of
79 price uncertainty in agricultural supply response using the GARCH and multivariate GARCH
80 models (Aradhyula and Holt, 1989; Holt and Aradhyula, 1990; Holt and Moschini, 1992;
81 Rezitis and Stavropoulos, 2008, 2009; 2012). Although the GARCH model has been widely
82 used to model changing conditional variance, it has some limitations that weaken its
83 theoretical appeal and empirical success (Nelson, 1991).

84

85 According to Nelson (1991), the GARCH model posits positive autocorrelation in the
86 conditional variance (i.e. large (small) changes in the conditional variance are followed by
87 large (small) changes in either sign) and ignores the fact that the conditional variance may be
88 negatively correlated with future changes in prices or stock volatility, which implies that
89 volatility is measured only by the magnitude and not the sign of the conditional variance. The
90 GARCH model imposes non-negativity constraints on the parameters of the model to avoid
91 the conditional variance being negative. The implication of this assumption is that the one-
92 period-ahead-forecast conditional error variance will always increase if the squared
93 standardised residual increases. This assumption does not allow for a situation where, due to
94 random oscillatory movements, the conditional error variance could be negative.

95

96 To increase computational simplicity and empirical success in modelling conditional
97 variance, Nelson (1991) proposed a model called the exponential GARCH (EGARCH) model
98 which possesses features that are more attractive than those of the GARCH models. To
99 ensure that the conditional variance remains nonnegative, it uses the log linear form of the
100 conditional variance (at a given set of time) and the lagged standardised residuals, i.e. the log

101 of the variance is conditional on its own past values, as well as a function of the standardised
102 residual. This study uses EGARCH model to characterize the time-varying conditional mean
103 and variance of expected price and volatility in an aggregate supply equation. Unlike
104 GARCH, the possibility of asymmetric price volatility effects is determined using maximum
105 likelihood estimators in an EGARCH model. Asymmetric price volatility is observed when
106 there is different volatility between a decrease and an increase in price of the same
107 magnitude. Positive asymmetry suggests that beef producers react faster to price increases
108 than decreases of the same magnitude – an indication of market power. Negative asymmetric
109 price volatility suggests that beef producer have weak market position and cannot increase
110 price to exploit the market, but can decrease price to stay in it. Like EGARCH, there are other
111 members of the GARCH family that can be used to model asymmetric conditional variance,
112 examples are the asymmetric GARCH model called AGARCH (Engle, 1990), the Non-linear
113 asymmetric GARCH (NAGARCH), Quadratic asymmetric GARCH (QGARCH), Threshold
114 asymmetric GARCH developed by Glosten, Jagannathan and Runkle (1993) etc, nonetheless,
115 EGARCH model is chosen because of its computational simplicity and ease of interpretation.

116
117 The rest of the paper is organized as follows: First, the Namibian beef industry is briefly
118 reviewed. The review highlights the structure and the importance of the sub-sector. Second,
119 the method used in the study is described, followed by the description of the data and the
120 model specification. Empirical results are then presented and lastly closing remarks are given
121 in the concluding section.

122 123 **The Namibian Beef market**

124
125 Namibia is an arid to semi-arid country with limited rainfall. Rainfall is low and highly
126 variable with sporadic drought occurrences. The combination of low average annual rainfall
127 and high rainfall variability limit agriculture in Namibia to extensive livestock farming.
128 Nevertheless, large livestock production occurs on the natural rangelands. Beef cattle
129 production predominates in the Northern part of the country where average annual rainfall is
130 higher compared to small stock livestock predominantly produced in the central and the drier
131 southern Namibia. The veterinary cordon fence (VCF) divides the North and southern
132 Namibia. The Northern cordon fence has history of disease outbreaks, thus animal sale from
133 this region require quarantine and strict certification conditions compared to the less-
134 restricted southern part of the cordon fence.

135
136 Livestock production is dual, with thriving commercial sector and a resource poor communal
137 husbandry. Forty four percent of all cattle in the country are found in the Northern Communal
138 Areas, while more than 60% are found in the communal areas (south included). This is on
139 only 48% of the available agricultural land, while just 40% of all cattle are found in the
140 commercial area (53% of the available agricultural land).

141
142 The Namibian agricultural sector only contributed 4.1 % to GDP in 2012, of which the
143 livestock contributed 2.3 % (Namibian Statistical Agency, 2012). The red meat sub-sector
144 contributes more than 80% to the total contribution in the livestock sector, making it an
145 import sub-sector. Beef cattle production is the dominant agricultural sector, constituting
146 approximately 85% of agricultural incomes and on average 10% of gross national product
147 (Kruger and Imbuwa, 2008:6). The number of beef cattle sold during the third quarter of
148 2014 was 163753 units (including the Northern Communal Area (NCA) and butchers), a
149 decline of about 53% from 348621 livestock marketed in 2013 (Meat board 2014:4).

150

151 Cattle farming occur exclusively on natural grazing, supplemented with mineral licks to
 152 which a limited amount of grain is added. Feedlots are generally not viable in Namibia, due
 153 to the small scale and unreliability of grain production and high transportation costs
 154 associated with grain imports. The small internal market dictates that Namibia has to export
 155 most of its beef. Until recently, Namibia exported about 70-80% of its total livestock
 156 production on-hoof, mainly to South Africa. The country is a net exporter of livestock with
 157 major export destination being South Africa, Angola, European Union and Norway.

158

159 **Methodology**

160

161 The empirical model specify beef equation as a function of expected price and its conditional
 162 variance and a vector of independent variables consisting of inputs prices, time; which stands
 163 for technology, and rain as additional factors of production. The equation is represented as
 164 follows

165

$$166 \quad y_t = a_o + a_1 P_t^e + a_2 h_t + a_3 x_{it} + \varepsilon_{it} \quad (1)$$

167

168 Where, y_t is the beef supply, P_t^e is the expected price, h_t is the expected price variance
 169 which measures volatility, x_{it} is a vector of independent variables and ε_{it} is a mean zero
 170 normally distributed error term with variance σ . The EGARCH (p,q) is used to generate the
 171 variables P_t^e and h_t . The price expectation is generated from

172

$$173 \quad P_t | \Omega_{t-1} = c_o + \sum_{i=1}^n c_i P_{t-i} + \varepsilon_{2t} \quad (2)$$

174

175 The variance equation is given as

176

$$177 \quad \log h_t^2 = \exp \left[\psi + \sum_{i=1}^q a_i g(z_{i-1}) + \sum_{k=1}^p b_k \log(h_t^2) \right] \quad (3)$$

178

179 Where $\{\psi_t\}_{t=-\infty, +\infty}$ and $(a_t)_{t=1, \infty}$ are real positive or negative and non-stochastic (stationary)
 180 scalar sequence and z is the standardized residuals. The EGARCH model considers
 181 asymmetric relationships between price and volatility changes and thus measures both the
 182 magnitude and sign of the standardized residuals. In the model, the coefficients are allowed to
 183 be negative or positive, which implies that the response to price changes could be
 184 asymmetrically positive or negative, thus measuring the asymmetric impact of shocks as
 185 follows:

186

$$187 \quad g(z_t) \equiv \theta_z + \gamma [z_t | - E|Z_t|] \quad (4)$$

188

189 If γ is insignificant, positive and negative shock have same effect on volatility. If γ is < 0 ,
 190 negative shock increases volatility more than positive shock of the same magnitude.

191

192 The persistence of shock is measured by the absolute value of b_k . In equation (3), the
 193 regularity condition in the EGARCH model requires that $0 < b_k < 1$. If the unconditional

194 variance is finite, the absolute value of $b_k < 1$. If the coefficient is significant, there is a
 195 significant evidence of persistence of shock. The smaller the absolute value of b_k the less
 196 persistent volatility will be after a shock. If the value of b_k approximates unity, the shock will
 197 persist into the future. This implies the presence of long memory and indicates that the
 198 fluctuations in the market will remain for a long period of time (permanent).
 199

200 **The relative marginal risk premium**

201
 202 If the point elasticity of supply is known, and the supply elasticity with respect to the price
 203 variance is known, the relative marginal risk premium for a producer can be derived. Relative
 204 marginal risk premium is the ratio of the variance and price elasticity of supply. Holt and
 205 Moschini (1992) developed an indirect cost function model to show how it can be calculated.
 206 The model posits producers as having a constant absolute risk aversion utility function, with
 207 price risk being conditionally normal. Expected utility can be maximized as a linear mean-
 208 variance criterion.

209 Assuming the farmer's expected utility function is given as

$$210 \text{Max}_{(y)} \left[\bar{p}y - C(y, w) - \frac{1}{2} \lambda y^2 \sigma^2 \right] \quad (5)$$

211
 212 Where y is the output; (\bar{p}, σ^2) are the *ex-ante* mean and variance of price; $C(y, w)$ is the
 213 indirect cost function, w is the input prices; and λ is the constant coefficient of absolute risk
 214 aversion. The first order condition for maximization is given as
 215
 216

$$217 \bar{p} - C_y(y, w) - \lambda y \sigma^2 = 0. \quad (6)$$

218
 219 Where marginal cost $C_y < \bar{p}$ and $\lambda y \sigma^2$ is the marginal risk premium. Given the optimal
 220 supply response as
 221

$$222 y^* = y(\bar{p}, w, \sigma^2), \quad (7)$$

223
 224 γ is the risk aversion parameter. If say, $\eta_p \equiv (\partial y / \partial \bar{p})(\bar{p} / y)$, and $\eta_\sigma \equiv (\partial y / \partial \sigma^2) / (\sigma^2 / y)$,
 225 where η_p is the point price elasticity of supply and η_σ is the supply elasticity with respect to
 226 price variance, differentiating the two functions gives the marginal risk premium as a
 227 proportion of expected price – the percentage departure from the marginal cost pricing.
 228

$$229 -\frac{\eta_\sigma}{\eta_p} = \frac{\lambda y \sigma^2}{\bar{p}} \quad (8)$$

230
 231 This function was used to estimate the response of price risk in the beef market.
 232

233 **Data and model specification**

234
 235 The data used in this study are the monthly beef supply, producer price of beef, maize spot
 236 price and rainfall from 2000 to 2013. Beef supply data was obtained from the meat board of

237 Namibia. It consists of the total number of beef marketed in export abattoirs, butcheries, and
 238 the numbers sold abroad. The producer price was also sourced from the meat board. It is the
 239 average carcass producer price measured in Namibian dollar per kilogramme (N\$/kg). There
 240 was a huge constraint in getting input data; as a result, maize spot price was used as a proxy
 241 for input prices. Maize price was used because maize is a major component of animal feed
 242 which constitutes a large part of input cost. The South African futures exchange (SAFEX)
 243 yellow maize spot price was used. The spot price was approximated to the Namibian price by
 244 multiplying the spot price with the distance between Windhoek and Johannesburg. Rainfall is
 245 an import parameter in supply response. Monthly rainfall data was sourced from the
 246 Namibian Meteorological Services. All the variables are log transformed, and all prices are
 247 deflated with consumer price index obtained from the Namibian Statistical Agency.

248
 249 The empirical model is based on two production-price models representing the producer-
 250 price structure of the Namibian beef market. The assumptions are that: (i) beef market is
 251 competitive; (ii) prices are determined by the forces of demand and supply, (iii) producers
 252 form expectations about endogenous variables in a manner consistent with rational
 253 expectation hypothesis, (iv) producers are risk averse, and that, (v) beef price is a major
 254 source of uncertainty in the beef market. Considering the above assumptions, price
 255 expectation, price volatility and the level of risk (averse, neutral, or seeking) is investigated.
 256 Following the supply model (1), the beef supply response equation is specified as:

$$\begin{aligned}
 257 \quad & \\
 258 \quad & QSB = a_0 \sum_{i=1}^{12} a_{ii} D_{ii} + a_{ii} DTm_T + a_{10} EPPB_t + a_{11} PPBV_t + a_{12} Ymaz_{t-8} + a_{19} QSB_{t-1} \\
 259 \quad & + a_{20} QSB_{t-12} + a_{31} Rn_{t-1} + a_{32} Tm_T + \varepsilon_{1t} \quad (9)
 \end{aligned}$$

260
 261 Where QSB_t is the quantity of beef supplied to the market in period t . Seasonal dummies
 262 D_{ii} are used to account for seasonality in beef production. Interaction dummies DTm_T are
 263 included to cater for the interaction between seasons and time. In other words, the effect of
 264 technology is assumed to respond to seasonal production. The EPPB and PPBV are the
 265 expected producer price and the producer price volatility respectively. They are important
 266 risk factors and are included to capture farmer's price expectations and volatility. As
 267 mentioned prior, input cost is proxied by yellow maize price, $Ymaz_t$ which is a major
 268 component of beef input price. Production lags are also included; this is represented by
 269 QSB_{t-1} and QSB_{t-12} , one and twelve lag structures were used to take care of the lags in beef
 270 production because producers may not be able to adjust production to the desired level during
 271 the year. Lastly, one period lag of rain was included to represent the impact of rain as a factor
 272 of production in the beef industry.

273

274 **Price and conditional variance equation**

275

276 The autoregressive order of the producer price shows that it is adequately represented by a
 277 third order autoregressive lag. The real producer price equation is given by

278

$$279 \quad PPB_t = \alpha_0 + \sum_{i=1}^3 \alpha_i PPB_{t-i} + Tm_T + \varepsilon_{2t} \quad (10)$$

280

281 Where PPB_t is the real producer price of beef in time t , Tm_t is as defined in equation (9),
 282 PPB_{t-i} is the real producer price at time $t-1$, where $i=1, \dots, 3$. The lag structure was
 283 determined using general-specific method to be 3, therefore three lags were used in the
 284 estimation.

285
 286 The conditional variance model is given by equation (3). The EGARCH orders were selected
 287 by minimizing Akaike information criteria (AIC) and Schwarz-Bayesian Information Criteria
 288 (SBIC). EGARCH (1, 1) order was the most appropriate. The producer-price models of
 289 equation (9) and (10) were modelled simultaneously in an EGARCH model using Maximum
 290 likelihood estimation procedure. The expected price $EPPB_t$ in equation (9) was obtained
 291 from equation (10). This represents the future expectation of farmers which they formed
 292 using producer price at $t-1$. The conditional variance term in equation (9) is obtained from
 293 the conditional variance component of the EGARCH (1, 1) model. Additional cross-equation
 294 restrictions are imposed by the EGARCH (1, 1) model. The assumptions are that errors are
 295 normally distributed and the Marquardt logarithm is used to obtain the maximum likelihood
 296 estimates of the system represented by the supply equation (9) and price equation (10).

297
 298
 299

300 Empirical results

301

302 Unit root test was performed to determine the time series property of the variables. This was
 303 conducted using three different unit root tests; the augmented Dickey-Fuller, Kwiatkowski-
 304 Phillips-Schmidt-Shin, and Elliott-Rothenberg-Stock DF-GLS test. Intercept and trend
 305 components were included in the tests. The tests show that the producer and maize prices are
 306 non-stationary whereas the quantity supplied of beef is stationary in levels (Table 1). The
 307 results justifies the inclusion of intercept and time trend in the models.

308
 309

310 Table 1. Results of Unit root test*

	ADF		KPSS		DF-GLS	
	Null: Unit root present		Null: Stationary		Null: Unit Root present	
Variable	Test-Stat	Critical value	Test-Stat	Critical value	Test-Stat	Critical value
PPB	-2.7051	-4.0135	5.7103	0.739	-2.8048	-3.4996
QSB	-4.0362	-3.4731	0.23	0.739	-0.6626	-2.5801
Ymaz	-1.7345	-4.0139	0.7805	0.739	-1.8709	-3.4996

311
 312
 313
 314

*Test were conducted with both intercept and time trend variables. ADF stands for Augmented Dickey-Fuller test, KPSS stands for Kwiatkowski-Phillips-Schmidt-Shin test, and DF-GLS stands for Elliott-Rothenberg-Stock DF-GLS test.

315 The empirical results are presented in Table 2. The results show that the short-run supply
 316 price elasticity (EPPB) is positive and significant (Table 2, Row.11:Col.2). This result
 317 indicates that a one percent increase in the producers' expectation about future beef price
 318 changes induces beef producers to sell 0.27% of their animals instead keeping stock. This
 319 could be because producers perceive expected prices as transitory, if they do not sell and

320 perhaps hope to increase future production; it is uncertain what the price will be, that induces
 321 them to sell in the short-run.

322

323 Table 2. Maximum Likelihood Estimation of Beef Supply Response

Supply Equation					
	Variables	Coefficient	Standard. Error	z-Statistic	Probability
S/ N	1	2	3	4	5
1	Constant	6.9129	0.9641	7.1707	0.0000*
2	Dum2	-0.3989	0.1028	-3.8789	0.0001*
3	Dum10	-0.3370	0.0786	-4.2850	0.0000*
4	Dum11	-0.5274	0.0870	-6.0599	0.0000*
5	Dum12	-0.9302	0.1807	-5.1483	0.0000*
6	Dum2T	0.0026	0.0010	2.7648	0.0057*
7	Dum3T	0.0022	0.0005	4.2909	0.0000*
8	Dum10T	0.0023	0.0010	2.3353	0.0195**
9	Dum11T	0.0031	0.0010	3.2023	0.0014*
10	Dum12T	0.0033	0.0018	1.8733	0.0610***
11	EPPB	0.2722	0.1079	2.5226	0.0116**
12	PPBV	-0.0479	0.0270	-1.7733	0.0762***
13	Ymaz	-0.0151	0.1454	-0.1569	0.4971
14	QSB(t-1)	0.5414	0.0547	9.8985	0.0000*
15	QSB(t-12)	-0.0920	0.0562	-1.6356	0.1019
16	RAIN(t-1)	-0.0001	0.0001	-1.9407	0.0523***
17	TIME(t-1)	-0.0019	0.0007	-2.5204	0.0117**
18	R ²	0.73			
19	Log Likelihood	73.1026			
20	Durbin Watson	2.2815			
21	No. Observations	153			

324 Note: * = Significant at 1%, ** = Significant at 5%, *** = Significant at 10%

325

326 Table 4 shows the calculated long-run price elasticity of beef supply is 1.5596. The result
 327 shows that the supply of beef is highly elastic in the long-run. In the long-run, producers react
 328 strongly to price changes than in the short-run. The estimated beef short-run price volatility is
 329 -0.0479. It is significant and has the expected negative sign, indicating that price volatility
 330 has a significant negative effect on producer supply response. The calculated long-run price
 331 volatility is 0.0326. The result shows that price volatility in the long-run is less elastic than
 332 short-run volatility.

333

334 The positive sign indicates that producers in the long-run may either diversifies into other
 335 profitable venture or enters into risk management mechanism such as animal insurance or
 336 commodity exchange future and option market that may help reduce market risk.

337

338 The study also investigated the impact of feed cost on the producer supply response. The
 339 estimated coefficient for yellow maize price, *Ymaz*, is -0.0151. This result shows that there is

340 a negative but insignificant relationship between producers' supply response and input cost.
341 This means that, an increase in input cost may reduce the capacity of the producers to supply
342 the optimal amount of beef given by equation (7).

343

344 Other important factors of production included in quantifying producers' response towards
345 price expectation and volatility are the lag of rain and time. Time was used as a proxy for
346 technology. It is expected that technological advancement will increase both efficiency and
347 the level of beef production. The results show that, though time variable is statistically
348 significant, the magnitude of the parameter estimate is small and it has an unexpected sign.
349 The low magnitude and negative sign of the parameter suggests that available technology is
350 not properly utilized. The low value of estimate could be due to lack of capacity (resources)
351 for effective transfer of technology and low adoption rate which ultimately may result in a
352 decline in the impact of technology. Improperly utilization may result in losses due to
353 damages, for examples bruises occur to animals as they move in between kraals, loading
354 facilities and feedlots, thus condemning the animals or reducing their market value. In
355 addition, it may be that the available technologies are not suited to the producers, that is, not
356 user friendly or even not affordable. In this instance, an increase in the supply of technology
357 may result in a decline in the quantity of beef supplied.

358

359 The impact of rain on the supply response is negative and statistically significant (Table 2,
360 Row 16: Col. 2). This relationship is as expected, because Namibia is an arid to semi-arid
361 region with relatively low rainfall in drier southern regions and moderate to average rainfall
362 in northern part of the country. There are periods of long dry spell resulting in loss of
363 animals; the situation often degenerates into drought events that have occurred in many
364 occasions. Because of this, beef producers tend to sell more animals during low rainfall for
365 fear of losing them to drought. On the other hand, good rains increase the expectation of a
366 good year, with producers withholding their animals to improve their weight, in anticipation
367 to sell them during rainless periods or drought. This result is contrary to the findings of
368 Gosalamang, Belete, Hlongwane and Masuku (2012) in the Botswanan beef market who
369 found a negative and insignificant result with lagged price but calculated short-run elasticity
370 of 1.511 with current price ignoring effects of expected price.

371

372 There is a mixed result for the different lags of the previous year's quantity of beef supplied.
373 The estimate for the one-period lagged beef supply is positive and statistically significantly,
374 indicating that increase in the previous year's supply results in a statistical significant
375 increase in the current year's supply. The estimates for 12-period lags have a negative but
376 insignificant relationship. On the average, the estimated coefficient for the previous periods
377 supply is positive and statistically significant.

378

379 The result in Table 2 shows that the expected price volatility PPBV has a negative and
380 statistical relationship with beef supply (Table 2: Row 12: Col.2). This result indicates that
381 increase in volatility by one percent decreases beef supply by 0.05%. This is an indication
382 that price volatility is an important risk factor for the beef industry. Therefore, price volatility
383 should be considered when forming expectation about future production and prices. The
384 historical path of the conditional volatility for beef is shown in figure 1. The figure shows
385 that volatility peaks in February and April. The result is expected because cattle sales tends to
386 increase during the festive month, December, in January sales decline, and pick up again
387 from February, March and April when the obligation for school fees and other household
388 debts such as vacation increases. The average and median values of beef volatility are
389 calculated to be 1.1289 and 0.7479 respectively. These values however, are high, an

390 indication of inability of the producers to control and stabilize prices in the beef market -- a
 391 sign of low market power. The response of producer to lagged supply is positive and
 392 significant (Table 2, Row 14: Col.2). Its coefficient is comparatively larger than the
 393 coefficient of price expectation, an indication that though producers respond to expected
 394 price changes, they are as well influenced by past supplies. All seasonal and interaction
 395 dummies included in the supply equation are statistically significant, signifying the
 396 importance of seasons and its interaction with relevant factors that effects beef supply.
 397 Table 3 panel B presents the results of the estimated coefficients of the conditional variance
 398 given by equation 3. The value of the volatility persistence parameter b is (0.6014). It is
 399 statistically significant at one percent. The magnitude of the parameter is high, an indication
 400 that price volatility in the beef market is persistent. If volatility is persistent, any shock to
 401 conditional variance takes long time to be eliminated. The asymmetric parameter γ is
 402 negative and statistically significant (Table 3: Row 9: Col. 2). This implies that there is a
 403 negative and significant asymmetric price effect. This signifies that, a negative shock in price
 404 causes more volatility than a positive shock of the same magnitude. The result shows that,
 405 producers respond more intensely in case of a negative shock than a positive one. Example of
 406 a negative shock is the sudden rise in input cost that reduces market margin. This behaviour
 407 suggests that the beef producers have a weak market position. If they have strong position,
 408 they can manipulate the market by increasing price to adjust to the increased costs.

409
 410

Table 3. Empirical Results from Price and Variance equations

Panel A-Price equation					
	Variables	Coefficients	Standard Error	Z-statistics	Probability-
S/ N	1	2	3	4	5
1	Constant	0.241689	0.016541	14.61128	0.0000*
2	PPB(t-1)	0.773471	0.035621	21.71366	0.0000*
3	PPB(t-3)	0.052022	0.029146	1.784896	0.0743***
4	TIME(t-1)	0.001356	8.18E-05	16.56547	0.0000*
Panel B-Variance Equation					
	Col.[1]	Col.[2]	Col.[3]	Col.[4]	Col.[5]
7	Constant	-3.761682	0.375716	-10.01203	0.000*
8	a	2.597291	0.192132	13.51827	0.000*
9	γ	-0.729213	0.164152	-4.442308	0.000*
10	b	0.601408	0.060289	9.97545	0.000*

411 * = Significant at 1%, ** = Significant at 5%, *** = Significant at 10%

412

413 The relative marginal risk premium (RMRP) was calculated using equation 8. The RMRP is
 414 the negative of the ratio of variance and the price elasticities of supply (Holt and Moschini,
 415 1992:3). It shows the marginal departure from marginal cost pricing. If RMRP is positive,
 416 producers are risk averse, if it is less than zero, producers are risk seeking, and if it is equal to
 417 zero, producers are risk neutral; a small and infinitesimal value of RMRP, that is, value equal
 418 to or close to zero is no different from risk neutrality. The estimated mean value of RMRP is
 419 0.0221. It is positive, meaning producers are risk averse and it is close to zero, implying there
 420 is no strong departure from risk neutrality or marginal cost pricing. The calculated RMRP
 421 series ranges from a low of 0.2% to a high of 9.22% during the sample period, the average
 422 being 2.2%. Figure 2 shows the relative risk premium of beef producers. It can be noticed

423 that RMRP is high during volatile months such as February to April and less during tranquil
424 months.

425

426 The diagnostic tests for the EGARCH (1, 1) model adequacy are presented in appendix A.
427 The results show that there is no serial residual correlation and heteroscedasticity in the
428 residual of the EGARCH model. The null hypothesis of no serial residual correlation was not
429 rejected at all 36 lags for both supply and price equation. The null for the ARCH test is that
430 the residuals are homoscedastic. In the Lagrange Multiplier test shown in Appendix Table
431 A1, the null was not rejected meaning that the residuals are homoscedastic.

432

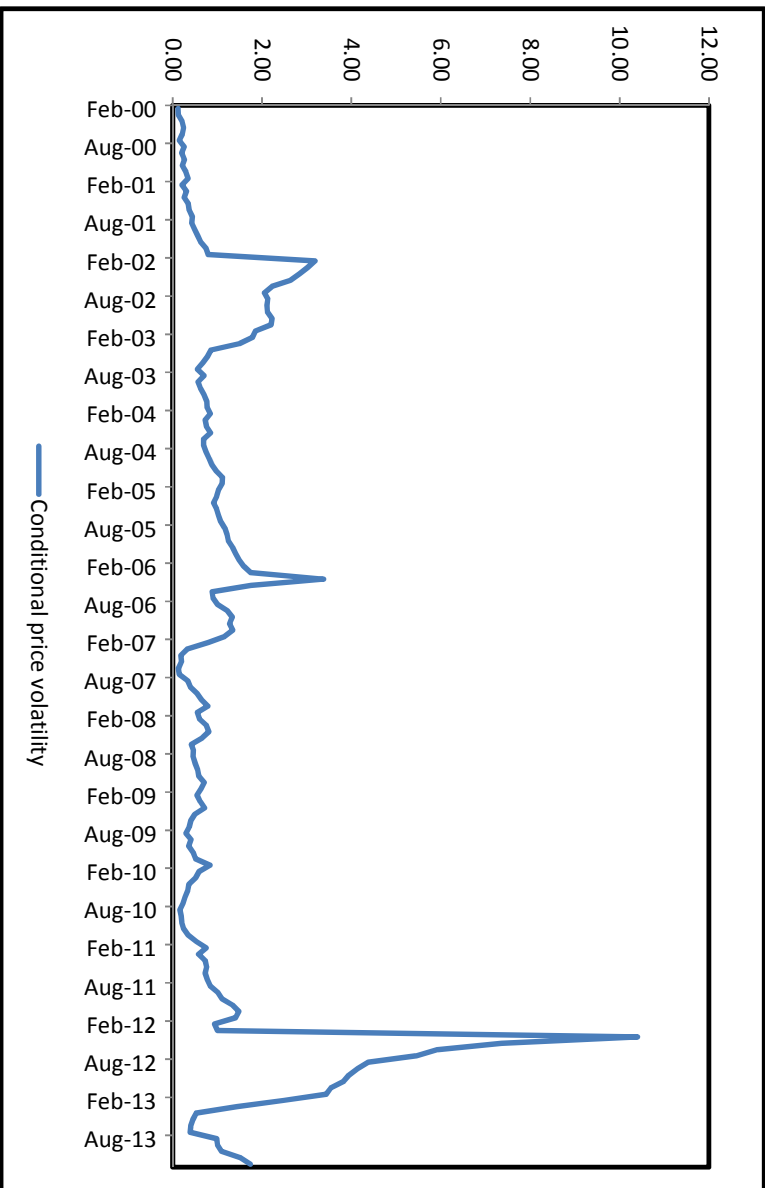
433 Table 4 Elasticities of beef production 2000M1-2013M12

Model	Expected price of beef (EPPB)		Conditional variance (PPBV)	
	Short-run	Long-run	Short-run	Long-run
EGARCH estimates	0.2722	1.5596	-0.0479	0.0326

434

435
436

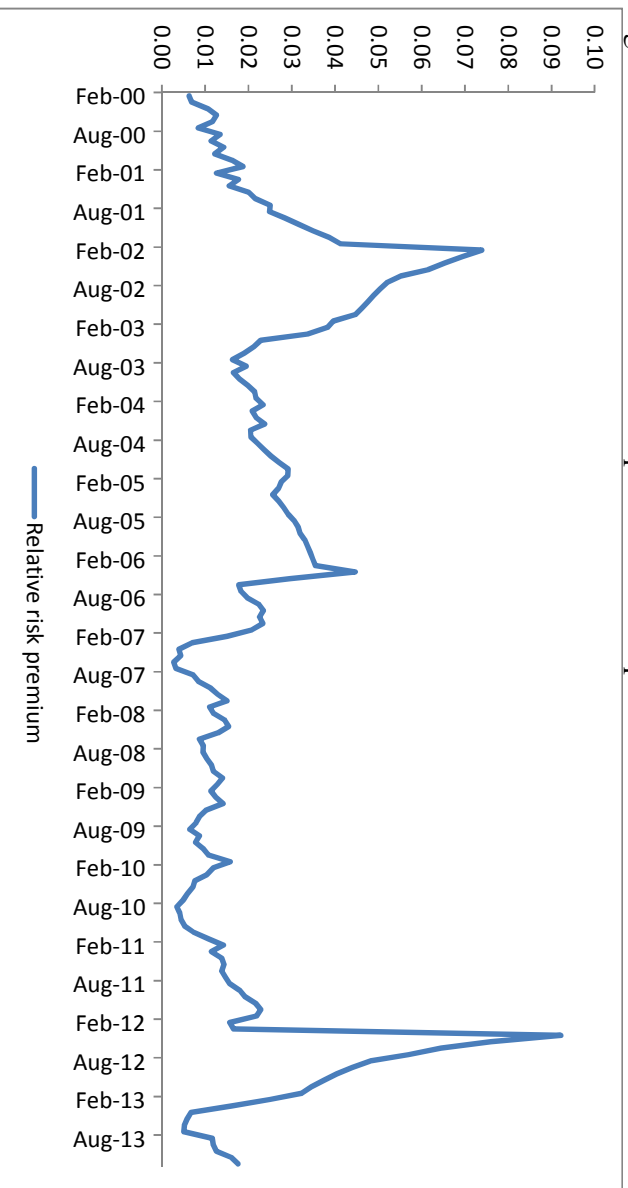
Figure 1. Conditional price volatility of Beef



Source: Author's computation

437
438
439
440

Figure 2. The relative maximum risk premium of beef producer



Source: Authors computation

441
442

443 **Conclusion**

444
445 This paper investigated the supply response for beef in Namibia. An EGARCH (1, 1) model
446 was used to model beef producer's behaviour about expected price and expected price
447 volatility. The study examined producers' reaction to changes in price expectation and
448 volatility and found that producers exhibit rational type of behaviour in forming price
449 expectation. Price volatility was found to have negative and significant effects on the beef
450 production level, indicating that it is a major risk factor in beef production. The risk status of
451 the producer was further investigated to determine whether there is a departure from marginal
452 cost pricing hypothesis. To achieve this, the relative marginal risk premium was calculated as
453 a proportion of expected price. The results show that the marginal risk premium is positive
454 and very low in value, indicating producers are risk averse, and they could as well be
455 regarded as risk neutral because the value was not far from zero. In other words, the beef
456 producers supply response to expected price and volatility changes does not depart from
457 marginal cost pricing.

458
459 The results also show that the short-run price elasticity of beef supply is positive and
460 inelastic. This result is consistent with results elsewhere (Rezitis and Stavropoulos, 2008;
461 2012). It indicates that in the short-run, price increases induces producer to supply more
462 animals to the market. The inelastic short-run price elasticity is not surprising; given that
463 cattle production cycle (from gestation to sale) is about 17 months, there is little time for
464 adjustment and besides, market position and cost of adjustment contributes. The long-run
465 price elasticity was found to be larger than short-run elasticity, an indication that in the long-
466 run, producers improve their capacity to exploit the market; hence, supply becomes more
467 elastic.

468
469 Other factors that influence beef supply includes, input price, rainfall and the effects of
470 technology. Input price effects on beef supply were found to be negative, that is, if input price
471 increases beef supply declines, but the effects was not statistically significant, indicating that
472 though there is a negative result, cattle farming occur exclusively on natural grazing, with
473 little supplementary feeding to which limited amount of grain is added. The study found that
474 rainfall has a negative relationship with beef supply. This is because cattle owners sell their
475 animals during dry periods in anticipation of drought, but keep them to gain weight for better
476 price when it rains. Technological advancement has been found to enhance livestock
477 production through improve health care and animal pre and post slaughter handling facilities.
478 This study found that technology has a negative impact on beef cattle supply. This may have
479 resulted from amongst others things, improper application or slow adoption rate of
480 technology.

481
482 Examination of the effects of price volatility shows that beef producers have weak market
483 position due to the presence of a negative asymmetric price effect. Producers seem to respond
484 more intensely to negative price shock which increases price volatility than positive shock of
485 the same magnitude.

486
487 In summary, the study found that price uncertainty has strong influence in the beef market, as
488 a result, production may be constrained, and producers may be unlikely to expand to gain
489 scale economies. Weak influence of technology in beef technology implies poor application,
490 perhaps poor service delivery by the responsible stakeholders. Farmers training through
491 extension services and other stakeholders should be improved to foster gains from
492 technological innovation. Poor market infrastructure often results in asymmetric information;

493 improvement in the market infrastructure will encourage producers to make proper
494 production and marketing decisions. The outcome of the study shows that it is important to
495 adopt measures to manage price risk such as insurance or price hedge through commodity
496 derivative market. To improve production and market performance, joint investment initiative
497 such as private public partnership is encouraged.

498
499

Appendix A

Table A1. Test of correlation in the residual of EGARCH (1, 1) supply model*

Serial correlation Test-Supply Equation		Serial correlation Test-Price Equation	
Q-Stat	Probability	Q-Stat	Probability
0.169	0.681	1.3747	0.241
0.4144	0.813	1.4393	0.487
1.2269	0.747	1.533	0.675
1.5023	0.826	2.3547	0.671
1.6035	0.901	8.0766	0.152
2.6928	0.846	8.0802	0.232
3.9446	0.786	8.2881	0.308
4.7237	0.787	8.7982	0.36
5.2167	0.815	8.9326	0.444
5.3018	0.87	9.6613	0.471
5.3377	0.914	9.695	0.558
7.338	0.834	9.7354	0.639
9.298	0.75	9.8222	0.708
9.3746	0.806	9.8234	0.775
9.5882	0.845	10.401	0.794
9.7046	0.882	10.402	0.845
10.978	0.858	10.49	0.882
13.799	0.742	10.49	0.915
14.735	0.739	10.832	0.929
15.099	0.771	11.216	0.94
15.304	0.807	11.368	0.955
15.384	0.845	11.391	0.969
17.732	0.772	11.397	0.979
22.282	0.562	11.619	0.984
23.406	0.554	12.035	0.986
25.256	0.505	12.183	0.99
25.757	0.532	12.395	0.993
28.931	0.416	12.448	0.995
28.953	0.468	12.637	0.996
31.898	0.372	13.445	0.996
32.278	0.403	13.476	0.997
32.515	0.441	13.478	0.998
33.852	0.426	13.508	0.999
34.038	0.466	13.636	0.999
35.571	0.441	14.104	0.999
37.355	0.407	16.05	0.998
EGARCH Test**			
LM	0.1652 (0.6844)***	LM	1.4038 (0.2361)

500
501

*Null: There is no serial correlation in the residual of the EGARCH model. ** Null: There is no ARCH effect.

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