

1 Investigating Consumer Food Choice Behavior: An Application Combining Sensory  
2 Evaluation and Experimental Auctions  
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5 Abstract

6 We investigate what piece of information collected utilizing sensory evaluation tools  
7 exhibits better predictive capacity on the willingness to pay, is it information from  
8 preferences for a sensory quality attribute using hedonic scales or information on perceived  
9 intensity for the same attribute using intensity scales? We also estimated if extrinsic or  
10 intrinsic quality exerts a similar impact on consumer's willingness to pay. We conducted a  
11 sensory evaluation along with experimental auctions using three different apple varieties with  
12 college students in Metropolitan Lima, Peru. Findings from this study show that information  
13 collected on preference liking for apple quality attributes has a better explanatory capability  
14 for willingness to pay, compared to information on consumers' perceived intensity for the  
15 same attribute. The explanatory capability was measured using measures of goodness-of-fit.  
16 We also prove that willingness to pay was driven both by the apple variety induced intrinsic  
17 quality attributes and the extrinsic cues of the variety. Results add to the existing body of  
18 literature aiming to improve the understanding of consumer food choice behavior.

19 Keywords: willingness to pay, food choice behavior, intensity stimuli, hedonic

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## 20 Introduction

21 Investigating consumers' food choices is a complex task to the extent that there seems not to  
22 be a consensus across disciplines on the best approach to study. A branch of marketing studies  
23 postulates that food choice behavior follows a structured process that could be described by  
24 different stages including problem recognition, information search, evaluation of alternatives,  
25 purchase decision, product consumption, and post purchase behavior (Kotler and Keller,  
26 2012; Grunert, 2005). Whereas a branch of studies on economics and psychology, advocate  
27 for a different perspective based on simple heuristics, that is, consumers select or eliminate  
28 products based on a few salient attributes rather than using a systematic structured procedure  
29 (Rabin, 1998; Simon, 1957). In light of these contrasting perspectives, a popular alternative  
30 to improve the understanding of food choice behavior is to combine disciplines, such as  
31 sensory science and applied economics. In fact, there are numerous studies that follow such  
32 approach: Lange et al, 2002; Lund et al., 2006; Stefani et al., 2006; Combris et al., 2009,  
33 Mueller et al., 2010; Gallardo et al., 2011; Zhang et al., 2011; Dinis et al., 2011; Bi et al.,  
34 2011; Costanigro et al., 2014. In general, these studies seek to analyze the role of intrinsic  
35 and extrinsic food quality attributes on consumer's preferences and valuation for a food  
36 product. In these studies, consumers are asked to evaluate the external and internal sensory  
37 quality attributes and rate or rank the product and/or its sensory quality attributes in function  
38 of their preferences. Next, consumers participate in experiments that would reveal the impact  
39 of their preferences on their well-being (Combris et al., 2009). Usually this impact is  
40 measured by hypothetical-type questions using stated choice scenarios in a questionnaire  
41 format and/or incentive compatible experimental auctions. The importance of evaluating both  
42 external and internal sensory quality attributes stems on the postulate that internal quality  
43 attributes cannot be experienced at the time of purchase so consumers rely on the external

44 cues and past experiences of the internal attributes. It is believed that past experiences are not  
45 stellar in predicting repeated purchases if there is not a rigorous recollection or if these  
46 experiences were not consistent (Bi et al., 2011). The aforementioned factors coupled with  
47 non-sensory factors –such as convenience, societal values, production technology, personal  
48 health, branding, and so on- aim to provide a complete depiction of food choice behavior  
49 (Jaeger, 2006).

50 The information obtained from sensory science is unique as it enables measurements  
51 of food sensory characteristics as perceived by humans, different from other sources of  
52 information such as chemicals or instruments that are also used to characterize food (Navarro  
53 da Silva, 2013). Sensory science uses sensory evaluation as the primary method of analysis  
54 (Tuorila and Monteleone, 2009). Sensory evaluation is “a scientific method that evokes,  
55 measures, analyzes, and interprets responses to products as perceived through the senses of  
56 sight, smell, touch, taste, and hearing” (Lawless and Heymann, 1999). Moreover, sensory  
57 science is considered as the intersection of other disciplines, including behavioral sciences,  
58 biology, nutrition, and health (Tuorila and Monteleone, 2009).

59 Among the multiple areas covered by sensory science, evaluation of consumer  
60 preferences is an important one. Typically, consumer preferences are measured by the use of  
61 hedonic scales. The 9-point hedonic scale: 1= dislike extremely, 9= like extremely, is the  
62 most internationally accepted and widely used. This scale was developed in 1947 at the  
63 Quartermaster Food and Container Institute for the U.S. Armed Forces. With the scale, word  
64 descriptors are used along with numbers facilitating the interpretation of the mean values of  
65 the responses in terms of the degree of like/dislike (Lim, 2011). This scale is easy to  
66 implement and interpret both by respondents and researchers. However, it has limitations  
67 such as the high vulnerability to ceiling effects due to the small number of available

68 categories and the general tendency of subjects to avoid using extreme categories (Lim,  
69 2011).

70 Besides collecting information on preferences, scales used in sensory science enable  
71 collecting information on the chemical stimuli that sensory quality attributes trigger on  
72 panelists (Lim, 2011). The rationality of these scales is based on the idea that there is a direct  
73 relationship between perceived intensity and stimulus. Such relationship has been long  
74 studied in psychophysics, to the extent that current methods in psychophysics are able to  
75 capture the range of perceived intensities from threshold to maximum and capture with  
76 increased accuracy comparisons of perceived intensities across individuals (Bartoshuk,  
77 2000). There are several ways to measure perceived intensity, for example, 9-point scales (or  
78 similar) with word descriptors and magnitude scales that measure the ratio of intensities  
79 perceived for one same sensory quality attribute. One main disadvantage of intensity scales is  
80 that there is “no provision for anchoring the judgments of individuals subjects to a common  
81 ruler” (Lim, 2011). In other words, there are no means to prove that a rating of “9” means the  
82 same to all panelists (Lim, 2011).

83 Given the different pieces of information on consumers’ perceptions collected via  
84 sensory evaluation techniques: preferences versus perceived intensity of sensory quality  
85 attributes, one questions how such information relates with consumers’ willingness to pay for  
86 a food product. In other words, what piece of information would have a better predictive  
87 capacity of consumers’ willingness to pay, is it how much each sensory quality attribute is  
88 liked? Or is it how intense each sensory quality attribute is perceived? The primary goal of  
89 this study is to respond to these inquiries. To achieve this goal we estimate two sets of  
90 regressions, one having liking ratings and the other having perceived intensity in the set of  
91 explanatory variables. Then, we test which set of regression have a greater explanatory

92 capacity using measures of goodness of fit. We also estimate how coefficients from either set  
93 of regressions compare, using non-parametric tests. A second goal of this study is to infer if  
94 variety induced sensory quality attributes -the intrinsic quality attributes that could be  
95 measured only when using sensory evaluation- or the variety itself -the extrinsic quality  
96 attributes- exerts a greater impact on the willingness to pay for a food product. Note that the  
97 goal of this paper is not to offer recommendations on general consumers' preferences and  
98 willingness to pay for apples, but to test the performance of different sensory evaluation  
99 scales when explaining willingness to pay behavior; and to test is the what set of quality  
100 attributes (extrinsic or intrinsic) exert a greater impact on the willingness to pay for a food  
101 product. We used apples because it is a familiar product to most if not all individuals.

102 To estimate the willingness to pay, we used a Vickrey second price auction. This type  
103 of preference elicitation methodology has the advantage of being incentive compatible. This  
104 means that participants face consequences after their bidding behavior, as they are presented  
105 incentives to assess and reveal their preferences as truthful as possible (Lusk and Shogren,  
106 2007). The Vickrey second price consists in that every participant submits a bid, or her  
107 willingness to pay for the product being auctioned. The participant who submitted the highest  
108 bid would win the auction, that is, this participant will actually buy the product being  
109 auctioned. The price the winner would pay is the second highest price (selling or market  
110 price) (Lusk and Shogren, 2007). The advantage of the Vickery second-price auction, -over  
111 other auction formats- is that it is relatively simple to explain to participants, it creates an  
112 endogenous market-clearing price, making sure participants are involved in an active market  
113 environment exposed to market feedback (Lusk and Shogren 2007).

114

115 Methods and procedures

116 Data collection

117           The experimental auctions and sensory evaluation were conducted in June 2015 at  
118 the facilities of the Universidad Nacional Agraria La Molina in Lima, Peru. One hundred  
119 students were recruited two weeks in advance by flyers posted around campus. To participate  
120 in the study, individuals had to have eaten apples in the last three months and be in charge of  
121 the grocery shopping at home. Using student pools is often questioned. In principle,  
122 recruiting college students was more convenient and less costly than recruiting standard  
123 household individuals. Besides, the purpose of this study was to compare how liking and  
124 perceived intensity of attributes affected willingness to pay, not to derive conclusions about  
125 general consumer preferences towards a specific product. Nalley et al. (2006) argue that when  
126 deriving consumer preferences is not the central motivation of the study, students perform  
127 similarly to other groups in economic experiments.

128           All apple samples were procured from the same local grocery store. The experiment  
129 was conducted in two different sessions, each hosting 50 participants. In each session,  
130 individuals were requested to evaluate the three apple samples visually and by tasting; each  
131 apple sample was identified with letters D, N, or S. Then participants were asked to respond  
132 to a questionnaire describing the intensity and how much they like the visual quality  
133 attributes of each sample. Appearance attributes included perceived presence of external  
134 defects and size. After evaluating appearance attributes, researchers cut each apple sample  
135 given to each participant in two halves. To objectively assess apple size, participants were  
136 requested to measure the transversal diameter of each apple with a ruler and write that  
137 number as a response to the size question in the questionnaire. Next, panelists were asked to  
138 taste each apple sample. For this, the moderator gave a brief explanation of each quality  
139 attribute included in the study, for example, what is/how to measure crispness, firmness,

140 sweetness, and acidity. Panelists were given instructions to rinse their palates with water in  
141 between tasting each sample to neutralize their taste buds. Next, panelists responded to the  
142 questionnaire in which they were required to rate how much they liked the following apple  
143 attributes using a 9-point scale (1 = dislike extremely, ... , 9 = like extremely): crispness,  
144 firmness, sweetness, and acidity. They were also requested to rate the perceived intensity of  
145 each of the attributes using a 9-point scale (1 = not intense, ..., 9 = extremely intense). Once  
146 most participants signaled they had finished responding to the questionnaire, they were  
147 requested to submit a bid in nuevos soles per kilo, in two repetitive rounds. Nuevo sol is the  
148 Peruvian currency; as of June 18, 2015, \$1 was equivalent to 3.16 nuevos soles (Peru, Central  
149 Reserve Bank 2015). Following the second price auction, bids were organized in ascending  
150 order, and the first and second highest bid were identified along with the panelists submitting  
151 such bids. Researchers kept records of the winning bids and did not reveal to participants. To  
152 identify the winner of the auction, a binding sample and bid was selected randomly. Once  
153 winning sample and panelist were identified, the winning panelist bought 1 kilogram of  
154 apples and paid the second highest bid submitted in the session.

155

156 Econometric model

157 Censored bids are common in experimental auctions (Lusk and Shogren, 2007).  
158 Results from a censoring test on our bid data indicated that 6% of bids observations were  
159 censored. See Figure 1. In addition, likelihood ratio tests were used to test the appropriateness  
160 of the Tobit model compared to an OLS and Cragg's double hurdle model. Test results  
161 rejected OLS and Cragg's double hurdle in favor of the Tobit model. Results of the likelihood  
162 ratio tests to justify the use of the Tobit specification are available upon request to authors.

163 Coefficient estimates for the Tobit model were estimated by maximizing the likelihood  
 164 function (LF) that follows (Greene, 2008),

$$165 \quad LF = \prod_{i=1}^{100} \left( \frac{1}{\sigma} \phi \left( \frac{Bid_i - X_i \beta}{\sigma} \right) \right)^{UC_i} \Phi \left( \frac{-X_i \beta}{\sigma} \right)^{LC_i} \quad (1)$$

166  
 167 where LF is the likelihood function,  $Bid_i$  is the bid for panelist  $i$  ( $i=1, \dots, 100$ ),  $X_i$  is the  
 168 intensity or likeness rating for each quality attribute (e.g., appearance/ presence of defects,  
 169 size, crispness, firmness, sweetness and acidity) as perceived by panelist  $i$ ,  $\beta$  is the  
 170 coefficient estimate the intensity or likeness rating for each quality attribute,  $UC_i$  is the  
 171 indicator variable for the uncensored bid observations and  $LC_i$  is the indicator variable for  
 172 the left censored bid observations,  $\sigma$  is the square root of the variance of the error terms,  $\phi$  is  
 173 the standard normal density function, and  $\Phi$  is the cumulative standard normal distribution  
 174 function. The censored marginal effects were calculated by,

$$175 \quad \frac{\partial E[Bid_i|X_i]}{\partial X_i} = \beta \Phi \left( \frac{X_i \beta}{\sigma} \right) \quad (2)$$

176 where  $Bid_i$  is the bid for panelist  $i$  ( $i=1, \dots, 100$ ),  $X_i$  is the intensity or likeness rating for  
 177 each quality attribute as perceived by panelist  $i$ ,  $\beta$  is the coefficient estimate the intensity or  
 178 likeness rating for each quality attribute,  $\sigma$  is the square root of the variance of the error  
 179 terms, and  $\Phi$  is the cumulative standard normal distribution function. Coefficient estimates  
 180 and marginal effects were calculated in SAS® v.9.2.

181 Two regressions were estimated based on the empirical specification (1), one  
 182 including ratings for liking sensory quality attributes and the other including ratings for  
 183 intensity perceived for sensory quality attributes. To measure which model explained better  
 184 variations in bids, we used the following criteria of goodness of fit: (i) McFadden likelihood  
 185 ratio index, (ii) the Akaike Information Criterion (AIC), and (iii) the Schwarz Criterion (SC).

186 We conducted the non-parametric Mann-Whitney test to compare the ordinal ranking of the  
187 coefficient estimates between models including liking and intensity as explanatory variables.  
188 For example, if the coefficient estimate for crispness liking was the largest among all  
189 coefficients in the model that used liking as explanatory variables and if the coefficient  
190 estimate for crispness intensity was also the largest among all coefficients in the regression  
191 using intensity as explanatory variables. To further compare how liking and intensity  
192 coefficient estimates differ, we conducted a pairwise comparison to compare marginal effects  
193 from liking and intensity ratings on bids.

194

## 195 Results

196 Summary statistics of the liking and perceived intensity for each sensory quality  
197 attribute is presented in Table 1. To assess external appearance liking, we asked panelists to  
198 rate in the 9-point scale how much they liked the external appearance of apple samples. To  
199 assess the “intensity” perceived of external appearance we asked panelists how they  
200 perceived the extent of external defects on the apple fruit, in a 9-point scale (1=no defects,  
201 9=abundant defects that I would not buy). In relation to size, the question asked how much  
202 panelists liked the fruit size, and when asking for intensity, the actual fruit diameter was used.  
203 Pairwise comparisons indicated statistically significant differences across liking and intensity  
204 ratings for each sensory quality attribute. Additionally, we conducted a correlation test to  
205 assert if liking and intensity ratings were positively correlated. We found a positive  
206 correlation between liking and intensity for attributes crispness, sweetness, and acidity. For  
207 firmness, the correlation coefficient between liking and intensity was negative and the  
208 correlation between fruit size and liking score for size was not statistically significant.

209 Comparing bids submitted for each apple variety tasted, panelists offered higher bids

210 for variety ‘Royal Gala’, followed by ‘Delicia’ and ‘Fuji’ (see Table 2). Pairwise  
211 comparisons across bids for each apple variety signal that average bids for ‘Delicia’ were  
212 \$0.186 /kg lower than ‘Royal Gala’ and \$0.103 /kg higher than ‘Fuji’. Bids for the ‘Royal  
213 Gala’ variety were \$0.289 /kg higher than ‘Fuji’.

214 Coefficient estimates for the Tobit model are presented in Table 3. To infer if liking  
215 or intensity ratings explained better variations on bids, we estimated two regressions, one  
216 included liking ratings and the other regression included intensity ratings for each sensory  
217 quality attribute in the set of explanatory variables. Results from the McFadden likelihood  
218 ratio index, Akaike Information Criterion, and Schwarz Criterion favored the models  
219 including liking over the models including intensity ratings (see Table 3). This gives  
220 interesting cues as to the rational process followed by panelists, who are willing to pay higher  
221 bids for the apple sample they like the most.

222 To investigate if the variety induced sensory quality attributes or the varietal  
223 differences across samples exerted a greater impact on bids, we conducted three sets of  
224 regressions, (i) full model including sensory quality attribute and binary indicators for variety,  
225 (ii) restricted model including sensory quality attribute variables without binary indicators for  
226 variety, and (iii) restricted model including only binary indicators for variety. Likelihood ratio  
227 tests to compare the full versus the restricted model led us to reject the restricted model in  
228 favor of the full model when liking ratings were included as explanatory variables (likelihood  
229 ratio statistic was 6.77, 95% critical chi-square value with 2 degrees of freedom was 5.99).  
230 Similarly when intensity ratings were included as explanatory variables (estimated likelihood  
231 ratio statistic was 8.35) we rejected the restricted model in favor of the full model.

232 In the full model, the liking ratings for crispness, sweetness, and binary variable for  
233 variety ‘Royal Gala’ had a positive effect on the bids submitted. This was similar to the

234 model using intensity ratings in the set of explanatory variables: intensity ratings for  
235 crispness, sweetness, and binary variable for ‘Royal Gala’ were positive and statistically  
236 significant. That the coefficients for quality characteristics and variety were statistically  
237 significant, indicate that it is both the variety induced quality characteristics and the variety  
238 itself that affects bids. The three apple samples presented to panelists were three varieties  
239 with different external attributes: the ‘Delicia’ is elongated in shape and red color, ‘Royal  
240 Gala’ is red with cream and yellow stripes, and ‘Fuji’ is bicolored yellow and red. All three  
241 samples were presented with peels, hence it is possible that panelists recognized these  
242 varieties from their external appearance and recalled previous sensory experiences that  
243 influenced their preferences and bids. When not including the binary variables for varieties  
244 (the restricted model), liking rating for size, crispness and sweetness were positive and  
245 statistically significant. For the restricted model including intensity ratings in the set of  
246 explanatory variables, only the intensity rating for sweetness was positive and statistically  
247 significant.

248         Implications from these findings are twofold. First, models including liking ratings  
249 outperformed the models including intensity ratings in the set of explanatory variables.  
250 Liking scores for most attributes included in the model (i.e., appearance, crispness,  
251 sweetness, firmness, and acidity), except size, exhibited a statistical significant correlation  
252 with perceived intensity scores. However, liking and intensity did not have a similar  
253 predictive capability of willingness to pay, liking scores show a higher predictive capacity.  
254 The second implication is the importance of the apples external appearance (extrinsic quality)  
255 and the possibility that participants recognized and recalled past consumption experiences  
256 showing a stronger preference for the apple they recalled they liked the most. If the interest is  
257 centered in eliciting willingness to pay for intrinsic sensory quality attributes, it is

258 recommended to present panelists peeled samples, so they could not recognize a priori the  
259 variety being evaluated and possibly influencing their preferences and willingness to pay.

260

## 261 Conclusions

262 Food choice behavior is complex. Combining disciplines such as sensory science and  
263 experimental economics is becoming a popular approach to improve the understanding of  
264 food choice behavior. In this study we combine both disciplines to investigate what piece of  
265 information exhibits better predictive capacity on the willingness to pay, is it information  
266 from preferences measured using hedonic liking scales or information on perceived intensity  
267 using intensity scales? We also estimated if extrinsic or intrinsic quality exerts a similar  
268 impact on consumer's willingness to pay. Results from this study, show that preference liking  
269 has a better explanatory capability for willingness to pay, compared to perceived intensity.  
270 The more they liked a sensory quality attribute, they more they are willing to pay for the food  
271 product. Whereas not the case regarding perceived intensity, the stronger they perceived an  
272 attribute not necessarily they are willing to pay higher, despite the correlation existing  
273 between liking scores and intensity scores. Another interesting finding is that willingness to  
274 pay was not only driven by variety induced intrinsic sensory quality attributes alone, but that  
275 extrinsic cues on the actual variety also influenced willingness to pay. Findings from this  
276 study add to the existing body of literature aiming to improve understanding of consumers'  
277 food choice behavior.

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347 Table 1. Summary statistics of liking and perception of intensity ratings. Correlation between  
 348 liking and perception of intensity ratings for apples.  
 349

Sensory attribute	Average rating using a 1-9 scale 1=extremely dislike/not intense, ..., 9=extremely like/intense		Paired t-test Liking vs. intensity	Pearson correlation Liking vs. intensity
	Liking	Intensity		
Appearance/ presence of defects	6.133 (1.828) <sup>1</sup>	3.370 (2.056)	2.763*** <sup>2</sup>	-0.330***
Size	6.649 (1.533)	7.429 (0.486)	-0.785***	-0.095
Crispness	6.773 (1.749)	6.520 (1.837)	0.253***	0.725***
Firmness	6.483 (1.846)	5.241 (2.065)	1.239***	-0.146**
Sweetness	5.673 (2.093)	5.203 (2.074)	0.470***	0.769***
Acidity	5.337 (1.974)	3.967 (2.021)	1.370***	0.403***

350 <sup>1</sup>Standard deviation in parentheses.

351 <sup>2</sup>\* p<0.1 \*\* p<0.05 \*\*\* p<0.01

352

353 Table 2. Average for bids for 'Delicia', 'Royal Gala' and 'Fuji' apples. Pairwise comparison  
354 of bids across varieties.

'Delicia'	'Royal Gala'	'Fuji'
<i>Mean (St. deviation) in \$/kg</i>		
0.851 (0.376)	1.037 (0.460)	0.748 (0.422)
<i>Pairwise comparison</i>		
'Delicia' vs. 'Royal Gala'	-0.186***	
'Delicia' vs. 'Fuji'	0.103***	
'Royal Gala' vs. 'Fuji'	0.289***	

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356 Table 3. Coefficient estimates for the willingness to pay for quality characteristics for  
 357 ‘Delicia’, ‘Royal Gala’ and ‘Fuji’ apples.

Variable	Full model		Model including sensory variables		Model excluding sensory variables
	Like	Intensity	Like	Intensity	
Intercept	0.170 (0.155) <sup>1</sup>	-0.184 (0.598)	0.141 (0.146)	-0.101 (0.443)	0.741*** <sup>2</sup> (0.043)
Appearance/ defects	0.017 (0.016)	-0.013 (0.013)	0.014 (0.016)	-0.017 (0.013)	--
Size	0.026 (0.019)	0.081 (0.084)	0.034* (0.018)	0.072 (0.059)	--
Crispness	0.037** (0.019)	0.026* (0.016)	0.038* (0.019)	0.021 (0.015)	--
Firmness	-0.010 (0.018)	0.008 (0.012)	-0.016 (0.017)	0.009 (0.012)	--
Sweetness	0.030* (0.017)	0.026* (0.015)	0.048*** (0.015)	0.046*** (0.013)	--
Acidity	-0.005 (0.016)	0.018 (0.013)	-0.002 (0.016)	0.017 (0.013)	--
Variety “Delicia”	0.096 (0.072)	0.038 (0.106)	--	--	0.110* (0.061)
Variety “Royal Gala”	0.184*** (0.070)	0.188** (0.075)	--	--	0.285*** (0.061)
Sigma	0.420*** (0.017)	0.424*** (0.018)	0.425*** (0.018)	0.430*** (0.018)	0.434*** (0.018)
Number of obs.	296.000	298.000	296.000	298.000	300.000
-2 log likelihood	331.431	338.645	338.197	346.993	354.838
AIC <sup>3</sup>	351.431	358.645	354.197	362.993	362.838
SC <sup>3</sup>	388.368	395.616	383.746	392.569	377.653
McFadden likelihood ratio	0.021		0.025		

358 <sup>1</sup>Standard errors in parentheses.

359 <sup>2</sup>\* p<0.1 \*\* p<0.05 \*\*\* p<0.01.

360 <sup>3</sup> AIC is the Akaike information criterion. SC is the Schwarz criterion.

361

362 Table 4. Marginal Effects of quality characteristics on the willingness to pay for ‘Delicia’ and  
 363 ‘Royal Gala’.

Variables	Full model		Paired t-test	Model including sensory variables		Paired t-test
	Like	Intensity	Liking vs. intensity	Like	Intensity	Liking vs. intensity
Appearance/ defects	0.016	-0.013	0.029***	0.014	-0.017	0.031***
Size	0.025	0.079	-0.054***	0.033	0.071	-0.038***
Crispness	0.036	0.025	0.011***	0.037	0.021	0.016***
Firmness	-0.010	0.008	-0.018***	-0.016	0.009	-0.025***
Sweetness	0.030	0.025	0.004***	0.047	0.044	0.003***
Acidity	-0.004	0.018	-0.022***	-0.002	0.017	-0.018***
Variety ‘Delicia’	0.094	0.037	0.057***	--	--	--
Variety ‘Royal Gala’	0.179	0.183	-0.089***	--	--	--

364

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366 Table 5. Non-parametric comparison between models using like and intensity ratings when  
367 explaining variations on bids.

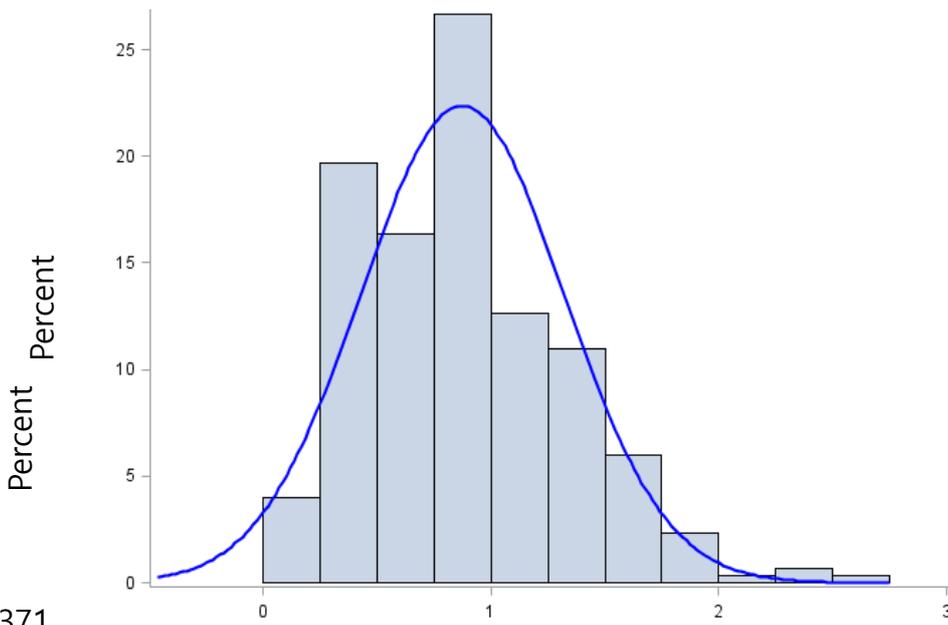
	McFadden likelihood ratio index	Non-parametric Mann Whitney Two sided Pr >  z
Like vs. intensity coefficients full model	0.021	0.791
Like vs. intensity coefficients restricted model (not including variety variables)	0.025	0.731

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Stacked bids

373 Figure 1. Histogram for stacked bids for all three apple varieties 'Delicia', 'Royal Gala', and  
374 'Fuji'.

375

376 Resumen

377 En este estudio investigamos qué información recopilada utilizando herramientas de  
378 evaluación sensorial muestra una mejor capacidad predictiva sobre la disposición a pagar, ¿es  
379 la información de las preferencias medidas usando escalas de afición hedónicas o  
380 información sobre la intensidad percibida usando escalas de intensidad? También estimamos  
381 si la calidad extrínseca o intrínseca ejerce un impacto similar en la disposición a pagar del  
382 consumidor. Realizamos un estudio de evaluación sensorial y subastas experimentales con  
383 tres variedades de manzanas en la que participaron estudiantes de una Universidad en Lima  
384 Metropolitana en Perú. Los resultados de este estudio demuestran que la información  
385 recopilada sobre la preferencia por un atributo de calidad sensorial tiene una mejor capacidad  
386 predictiva para la disposición a pagar, en comparación con la información sobre la percepción  
387 de la intensidad percibida del atributo de calidad sensorial. Además, demostramos que tanto  
388 atributos intrínsecos de calidad sensorial inducidos por la variedad de manzana y las señales  
389 extrínsecas sobre la variedad en sí, tienen un impacto en la disposición a pagar. Los  
390 resultados se suman a la literatura existente que tiene como objetivo mejorar la comprensión  
391 de la conducta de los consumidores al comprar alimentos.

392

393 Palabras clave: disponibilidad a pagar, subastas experimentales, comportamiento del  
394 consumidor, escalas hedónicas, estímulos de intensidad.

395