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## PRODUCING

## EGGS IN

### **NEW JERSEY**

### **An Economic Study**

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE Agricultural Research Service Washington, D.C. February 1960 ARS 43-113

#### ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The author acknowledges with thanks the assistance of Rutgers University staff members John Carncross, Frank Beck, and Jack Taylor for their help in planning the study and preparing for the field survey work, and in making available photographs and unpublished materials.

#### CONTENTS

Page

SUMMARY	1
INTRODUCTION	1
NATIONAL TRENDS IN PRODUCTION AND PRICES	2
REGIONAL TRENDS	7
COMMERCIAL POULTRY FARMS IN NEW JERSEY	10

Prepared in

Farm Economics Research Division

Agricultural Research Service

United States Department of Agriculture

#### **PRODUCING EGGS IN NEW JERSEY**

#### An Economic Study

#### By Edward J. Smith, Agricultural Economist

#### SUMMARY

Since 1930, production of chickens and eggs has increased more than has that of dairy products and red meats, despite the relatively lower prices received for chickens and eggs. More efficient poultry production explains at least part of this shift.

Broilers have replaced farm flocks of chickens as the main component of chicken meat marketings, because of (a) rapid increases in broiler production, (b) fewer hens required for a given volume of egg production with the higher rate of lay per bird, and (c) the increased use of sexed chicks, which has reduced greatly the number of cockerels raised by egg producers in replacement flocks.

Average flock size has increased steadily since 1930, partly because of the elimination of many small farm flocks and partly because of the trend toward larger commercial flocks. This development has been pronounced in the Northeastern States, especially in New Jersey.

There appears to have been a gradual but steady concentration of egg production in the Northeastern States. In 1957, total United States egg production was only about twothirds greater than the 1935-39 average. In the Northeastern States, however, production doubled in the same period, and production in New Jersey was about four times the 1935-39 average. Recent sharp increases in production of eggs in several Southern States suggest a shift in this trend.

In trying to improve efficiency and maintain their competitive position, New Jersey poultrymen have made several changes. Among the more important of these are an increase in size of flock, a higher rate of lay per hen, more widespread use of cleaners, graders, and automatic feeders to replace hand labor, and the raising of several lots of replacement birds so as to use production facilities and labor more efficiently throughout the year. Despite these changes, unfavorable cost-price relationships have depressed earnings in recent years.

The net farm income of the poultryman is particularly sensitive to changes in the prices of eggs and feed. For this reason, change in egg and feed prices is the main reason for the year-to-year variations in the earnings of typical egg producers.

#### INTRODUCTION

The postwar period has been one of especially rapid change for commercial egg producers. Even more than in many other lines of agricultural production, size of operation has increased, rates of production have gone up, and new methods have been used to save labor and use production resources more effectively. These changes seem to have been most striking in the Northeastern States, where the relatively large number of commercial poultrymen are attempting to meet both competition from egg producers in other areas and competition from other food products (fig. 1).

The main purpose of this report is to describe and analyze the more important changes that have occurred since the end of World War II in one of the most concentrated



Figure 1

commercial egg-producing areas in the Northeastern States--central and southern New Jersey. This is one of several studies of adjustments, costs, and returns on commercial family-operated farms.<sup>1</sup>

Adjustments made by commercial poultrymen in New Jersey during the postwar years were mainly attempts to maintain or improve their competitive position. Thus, the basic causes that brought about these changes--national production and price trends in eggs and competing products, new technological developments, and the like--are not confined to the particular area under consideration. They have a much wider geographic setting. Therefore, before turning to the main task of the study reported, some of the national and regional trends that have influenced the changes that have occurred in the New Jersey area are sketched.

#### NATIONAL TRENDS IN PRODUCTION AND PRICES

One of the more significant developments in agricultural production since the early thirties has been the divergent production and price trends of poultry products on the one hand, and of red meats<sup>2</sup> and milk on the other. Christensen and Mighell<sup>3</sup> called attention to this in their comprehensive study of the poultry industry nearly a decade ago, and the contrast has become even more marked since that time, particularly with respect to broiler production.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> For the latest annual estimates on all these farms, see U.S. Agricultural Research Service, Farm Economics Research Divition, Farm Costs and Returns: Commercial Family-Operated Farms by Type and Location, U.S. Dept. Agr. Agr. Inform. Bul. 176, 70 pp., illus, Revised August 1959.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> The sharp increase since 1950 in the production line for red meats in figure 2 is considered to be more of a cyclical buildup 0.00 a long interend line.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Christensen, R. P., and Mighell, R. L., Competitive Position of Chicken and Egg Production in the United States, U.S. Dept. Agr. Tech. Bul, 1018, 58 pp., illus, 1950.

As a result mainly of the spectacular expansion of the broiler industry, production of chicken meat has increased rapidly since 1930, as shown in figure 2. Although since the late thirties, production of eggs has increased less rapidly than production of chicken meat, it has still increased between two and three times as much as production of milk and, until the recent cyclical increase, more than production of red meats. This increase occurred despite the relatively lower prices for eggs and chicken meat shown in figure 3. An additional indication of the less favorable economic climate for egg producers is given by the declining egg-feed price ratio shown in figure 4. Had the price relationships of the 1935-39 period continued into the late fifties, the relative increase in production of poultry products probably would have been much greater.

But the more than twofold increase in production of chicken meat since the 1935-39 period is only part of the story. This increase was a result of the tremendous expansion in broiler production, which more than offset the steady decline in marketings of farm chickens (fig. 5). Broiler production was not important enough to be reported separately before 1934, and prior to the end of World War II, it did not exceed a fourth of the total production of chicken meat. During the postwar period, broilers have steadily increased their share of the market; they accounted for nearly 80 percent of all chicken meat produced in 1958.

The absolute changes in this period are even more striking. While marketings of farm chickens dropped from 2,144 million pounds in 1947 to only 1,050 million pounds by 1958, broiler marketings skyrocketed to 5,431 million pounds, or slightly more than five times their 1947 volume. All this occurred in hardly more than 10 years.

What is responsible for these changes in production patterns? According to Christensen and Mighell, rapid improvements in production efficiency reduced the real costs of producing eggs by nearly 15 percent between 1925-29 and 1945-49.<sup>4</sup> One of the main factors responsible for this increased efficiency was the steady improvement in the rate of lay from about 130 eggs per layer in the 1925-30 period to slightly above 160 in 1945-49. Because labor requirements, feeds, flock replacement, and other costs did not rise proportionately, a reduction was brought about in these costs per dozen eggs produced.

The rate of lay has continued upward since the late forties: in 1958, it averaged 201 eggs per layer for the United States as a whole. This increase suggests that further improvements in efficiency have powered the continued moderate increases in egg production of the last 10 or 15 years. Since the end of World War II, this gradual expansion in egg production has been achieved with a steadily declining number of layers. The average number of layers on hand in 1958 was down almost one-fourth from the peak numbers of 1944 (fig. 6). This decrease has been a contributing factor in the shrinkage of the proportion of farm chickens in the total production of chicken meat; it means fewer farm chickens sold in relation to a given volume of egg production.

The rapid shift toward the use of sexed chicks has had a similar effect. In 1943, only about 17 percent of the egg-type chicks bought from United States hatcheries were sexed pullets. By 1957, the proportion had risen to 60 percent, and in the Middle Atlantic States to 74 percent. The corresponding reduction in the purchase of straight-run chicks has brought about a steady decline since 1943 in the number of young farm chickens marketed.

Three factors, then, are mainly responsible for the rapidly changing composition of marketings of chicken meat: (1) The dramatic expansion of broiler production in the last 25 years; (2) the higher rate of lay per hen, which means that fewer layers are needed for a given volume of egg production; and (3) the use of sexed chicks and the resulting decline in marketings of young farm chickens. Together, these three trends have reduced the share of farm chickens to only 22 percent of the total number of pounds of poultry meat marketed, whereas 25 years ago farm flocks accounted for virtually all of it.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup>See footnote 3, page 2.



Figure 2





- 4 -



Figure 4





- 5 -



#### Figure 6

It is true that egg production has increased somewhat since 1945, and that there has been a declining trend in the egg-feed price ratio. However, it would be a mistake to blame this entirely on the increase in production. Actually, the percentage increase in U.S. population since 1945 was about three times the 8-percent increase in egg production.

Two other factors appear to be at least equally responsible. First, the volume of eggs removed from the domestic market under Federal price-support programs since 1950 has been only a small fraction of the quantities so removed in the 10 years from 1941 through 1950.<sup>5</sup>

Second, people now eat fewer eggs per person than they ate shortly after World War II, despite the inducement of lower prices. Per capita domestic disappearance was estimated at 402 in 1945, and at 379 in 1946.<sup>6</sup> By 1958, this figure was down to about 350.

In the late thirties, when a higher proportion of the egg supply was produced by small farm flocks than is the case today, it was fairly common to start one lot of chicks in middle or late spring. Usually, the pullets did not begin to get into full production until late fall. The layers kept over from the previous year went through their molt in early fall, during which time production was reduced sharply. As a result, egg supplies were lightest in fall and heaviest in late spring and early summer (fig. 7).

Egg producers, eyeing this regular pattern of considerably higher prices in the fall, began to shift their seasonal production patterns to take advantage of it. Chicks were started earlier, and more and more producers began raising two and three lots during

<sup>6</sup> See footnote 5.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> U. S. Agricultural Marketing Service. Egg and Poultry Statistics Through 1957, U. S. Dept. Agr., Statis. Bul. 249, 183 pp. 1959. See page 151.



#### Figure 7

the year rather than one. Use of automatically controlled lights became common. The seasonal variations in egg production had begun to flatten out by the late forties and by 1952-56, they had become even more uniform. This decrease in seasonal variation greatly reduced the amplitude of the seasonal swings in egg prices, as shown in figure 7.

#### **REGIONAL TRENDS**

From 1954 to 1958, egg production in the United States averaged about 63 percent above that for 1930-34 (table 1). In the latter period, the nine North Atlantic States (New England plus New York, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania) more than doubled their egg production and slowly but steadily increased their share of the national total from about 13 to 18 percent. All other geographic areas either stayed about the same in relative importance during this period or registered declines. Although Alabama, the Carolinas, Georgia, and Florida have shown substantial increases in egg production in recent years, production in other Southern States has declined. As a result, the South Atlantic region's share of the national production has increased only slightly since 1950, and the share of the South Central States has declined.

A glance at table 1 reveals an uneven pattern of increase within the North Atlantic area. For example, New York lagged behind even the increase in national production, showing only a 33-percent increase from the 1930-34 level. At the other extreme, New Jersey led the field with a 1954-58 production of nearly 4 1/2 times that of the early thirties. In New York, Pennsylvania, Vermont, and Rhode Island, which failed to equal the rate of increase in the North Atlantic area as a whole, dairy production makes up a large part of the farm income.

A second kind of concentration is occurring in the Northeastern States. Not only is a larger share of the national egg production coming from these States, but, in line with the national trend, it is coming from fewer and larger flocks within the area.

Area	1930-34	1954-58	Percentage increase
Maine. New Hampshire. Vermont. Massachusetts. Rhode Island. Connecticut. New York. New Jersey. Pennsylvania.	Millions 205 129 92 307 39 237 1,504 556 1,750	Millions 671 461 197 742 85 694 1,994 2,491 3,593	Percent   227   257   114   142   118   193   33   348   105
North Atlantic States	4,819	10,928	127
Jnited States	36,768	60,085	63



### TABLE 1.--Egg production on farms, North Atlantic States and United States, annual averages, 1930-34 and 1954-58

#### Figure 8

For many years, the main source of our national egg supply was the small farm flock. These sideline enterprises furnished the chickens and eggs used by the farm family. In addition, they provided a small cash income, but accounted for a very minor part of the total farm production. Even as late as 1930, the widely dispersed nature of egg production was indicated by the fact that in that year on 85 percent of our farms some chickens were kept--varying from 69 percent in the Pacific Coast States to more than 90 percent in the North Central States. Also in 1930, 67 percent of our chickens were in flocks of less than 200 layers, and 87 percent were in flocks of less than 400 layers (fig. 8).

By 1954, this situation had changed. In that year, the census reported that the percentage of United States farms with chickens was down to 71 percent, and that only 32 percent of the chickens were in flocks numbering less than 200. But the percentage of chickens in flocks of 400 or more jumped from 13 percent in 1930 to 44 percent in 1954.

A breakdown of the 400-plus group further illustrates the trend toward larger flocks. The first two size groups shown in table 2 more than doubled their relative importance, but the 1,600 to 3,199 group jumped to five times its 1935 share, and the group with 3,200 layers and over increased in relative importance by more than 10 times.

This trend toward commercial egg production in fewer and larger flocks is considerably more pronounced in the Northeast than for the country as a whole. Although the number of United States farms reporting chickens on hand dropped from 85 percent in 1930 to 71 percent in 1954, the corresponding decline in the New England States was from 73 to 46 percent and in the Middle Atlantic States from 87 to 61 percent.

The faster rate of increase in egg production in the Northeast than for the United States as a whole and the more rapid decline in the number of farms keeping chickens mean more large flocks in the Northeast. Although only about 6 percent of the flocks in the United States numbered more than 400 layers in 1954, almost 26 percent of those in the Northeast and nearly 60 percent of those in New Jersey were in this group (table 3).

The contrast is even more striking in terms of number of chickens than in terms of number of farms in the various size groups. Whereas in 1954, the proportion of chickens in flocks of less than 400 was 56 percent for the United States, the percentage was 15 in the Northeast and only 3 in New Jersey. But 58 percent of New Jersey's chickens and 34 percent of those in the North Atlantic region as a whole were in flocks of 3,200 or more, while only 12 percent of the chickens in the United States as a whole were in flocks of this size.

It is equally revealing to compare the flock-size groups in the Northeastern States with the corresponding United States total. For example, while the 1954 census reported that the North Atlantic States contained only 5.5 percent of all the commercial farms in the United States, they had 45 percent of the flocks with 1,600 to 3,199 chickens and more than half of the flocks with 3,200 chickens and over (table 4). New Jersey, with only 0.4 percent of the country's commercial farms and 0.2 percent of the flocks of less than 400, had more than a fourth of the flocks of 3,200 or more.

Flock size	1935	1954
400 to 799 800 to 1,599 1,600 to 3,199 3,200 and over	Percent 6.3 3.6 1.7 1.1	Percent 14.3 9.1 8.6 12.1
Total	12.7	44.1

TABLE 2.--Percentage of all chickens on hand in flocks of 400 and more, by size of flock, United States, 1935 and 1954 TABLE 3.--Percentage distribution of Sommercial farmers reporting phickens on hand and of number of chickens reported by size of flock, New Jersey, North Atlantic States, and United States, 1954

	Farı	mers report	ing	Number of chickens					
Flock size	New Jersey	North Atlantic States	United States	New Jersey	North Atlantic States	United States			
Logg than (00	Percent	Percent	Percent	Percent	Percent	Percent			
400 to 799	10	12	4	3	13	14			
300 to 1,599	13	7	1	, 9	17	9			
1,600 to 3,199 3,200 and over	18 18	4 3	( <sup>1</sup> )	27 58	21 34	9 12			
All flocks	100	100	100	100	100	100			

<sup>1</sup> Less than 0.5 percent.

TABLE 4.--Commercial farmers reporting chickens on hand and number reported: New Jersey and North Atlantic States as percentage of United States, by size of flock, 1954

	Far	mers repor	ting	Number of cnickens					
Flock size	New Jersey	North Atlantic States	United States	New Jersey	North Atlantic States	United States			
Under 400	Percent 0.2	Percent 4.3	<i>Percent</i> 100	Percent 0.2	Percent 5.0	<i>Percent</i> 100			
300 to 1,599	4.7	32.7	100	5.1	33.6	100			
3,200 and over	26.8	53.1	100	23.4	50.6	100			
All flocks	• 4	5.5	100	4.9	18.2	100			

#### COMMERCIAL POULTRY FARMS IN NEW JERSEY

The preceding sections describe some of the more important national and regional trends that have occurred in the poultry industry since 1930. From the standpoint of the egg producer in New Jersey and other highly concentrated producing areas, these trends spell keener competition. One of the most significant indications of this is the continued expansion of egg production in the face of less favorable price-cost conditions, as witnessed by the general downward trend of the egg-feed price ratio. (See figure 4.)

Specialized egg producers in the Northeast, in turn, have made many changes in their operations in an attempt to maintain or improve their competitive position. They have expanded steadily the size of the laying flocks in order to spread fixed costs over more units of product. They have supplemented family and hired labor with mechanical feeders and automatic egg graders. Better strains of birds and better feeding methods have helped increase the rate of lay per hen. These and other changes that have occurred since 1945, together with attendant changes in income, are the subject of this section. New Jersey has a high concentration of commercial family-operated poultry farms with fairly uniform characteristics. Most of them are highly specialized. Their operators seldom produce crops; usually, they buy their entire feed requirements. Very few attempt to retail many of their eggs. The operator and members of his family, who ordinarily furnish most of the labor needed, usually concentrate on the production end and sell their eggs through wholesale outlets. Although some New Jersey poultrymen buy started pullets, typically they buy sexed chicks and raise their own replacements from them.

As so many of these farms are similar in their main characteristics, changes in their production, incomes, and expenses can be described effectively in terms of a single composite farm. For this purpose, census data, information gathered by the Agricultural Estimates Division, Agricultural Marketing Service, and the results of special poultry farm survey studies are used in developing the series. In this way, estimates for a single representative farm are made which apply reasonably well to a large number of commercial poultry farms in the State and elsewhere.

The average number of layers on hand during the year on these farms has increased from about 2,100 in 1945 to about 4,100 in 1958 (table 5).<sup>7</sup> Total investment was only a little above \$22,000 in 1945, but by 1958, it had risen to more than \$50,000 (table 6). A good bit of this increase was due to higher prices, but even when valued at 1947-49 prices, the 1958 investment was more than a third higher than that of 1945.

The average number of layers on hand during the first 2 years (1945 and 1946) of the series was only about two-thirds of the number on hand at the beginning of the year. This proportion gradually increased as the starting of more than one lot of chicks during the year became common. In recent years, it has held at around 90 percent of the January 1 numbers. By keeping the size of the laying flock more nearly uniform throughout the year, poultrymen can make fuller use of their buildings, equipment, and regular labor force. This, together with the spreading of fixed costs over more units of product with larger flocks, has been an important source of the improvement in productive efficiency that has occurred on these farms.

As previously mentioned, these commercial poultry farms are largely family undertakings. Their operators usually devote their full time to the business, and often the wife and children also spend a large part of their available time in the poultry house or the egg room. The importance of the poultryman's family as a source of labor for the farmwork is indicated by the estimates of hours of family and hired labor for the 1945-58 period shown in table 6.

Until about 1951, hired labor made up about a fourth of the total number of hours of labor used. Since then, the proportion of hired labor has shown a tendency to decline, probably because of its higher cost and the lower earnings that have prevailed on these farms. Much of the help that is hired is part-time work by high school boys, and older men. A man and a truck may be hired to help in cleaning out the poultry houses.

Bulk feed handling, coupled with the use of automatic feeders, have resulted in substantial labor savings and enabled egg producers to expand their flock size without additional help. However, studies of commercial poultry farms in New York indicate that even greater percentage reductions have been effected in the time required to prepare the eggs for market than in the care of the poultry flock itself.<sup>8</sup>

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup>Changes in January 1 numbers of layers on hand are based on the 1945, 1950, and 1954 Censuses of Agriculture. In order to have the series represent a clearly commercial operation, a constant number (2,500) was added to the median number of layers on poultry farms in New Jersey in each census year, adjusted to a January 1 basis. The census includes as commercial poultry farms many farms operated on a part-time basis or by semiretired individuals. A simple straight-line trend was fitted to these estimates as the basis for the numbers on hand at the beginning of intercensal years. This procedure somewhat overstates the rate of increase in size of flock that has occurred on the typical commercial poultry farm, because part of the upward trend is a reflection of the fact that many smaller poultrymen have gone out of the poultry business altogether, rather than attempting to increase the size of their poultry operations.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup>Kearl, C. D., Commercial Poultry-Farm Management in New York State, 1946-47, Cornell Agr. Expt. Sta. Bul. 864, 22 pp., illus., 1950; and Tobey, J. S., Seasonal Returns from Marketing Eggs, Cornell Agr. Expt. Sta. Dept. Agr. Econ. A. E. 1059, 35 pp., 1957.

TABLE 5Orge	anization	, produc	tion, and	l receip	ts on co	mercial	famîly-0	perated	poultry	farms,	Vew Jers	ey, 1945	-58		
u.	Unit	1945	1946	1947	1948	1949	1950	1951	1952	1953	1954	1955	1956	1957	1958
muary 1: ••••••••••••••••••••••••••••••••••••	Number do.	930 2,170 3,100	960 2,240 3,200	990 2,310 3,300	1,020 2,380 3,400	1,050 2,450 3,500	1,080 2,520 3,600	1,116 2,604 3,720	1,152 2,688 3,840	1,188 2,772 3,960	1,224 2,856 4,080	1,260 2,940 4,200	1,296 3,024 4,320	1,332 3,108 4,440	1,368 3,192 4,560
	do.	2,240	2,310	2,380 660	2,450 680	2,520	2,604	2,688	2,772	2,856	2,940	3,024	3,108	3,192 977	3,276
age of Iayer sold 's sold	Percent Number do. Dollar do.	19 50 1,501 •74 1,111	18 50 1,584 1,584 1,204	20 50 1,570 1,209	20 50 1,620 .84	20 50 1,670 •69 1,152	22 50 1,642 .62 1,018	20 50 1,774 *70 1,242	19 50 1,872 •62 1,161	20 50 1,894 .62 1,174	19 50 1,995 •46 918	18 50 2,098 .52 1,091	22 50 1,988 .45 895	22 50,045 818	20 5. 2,194 -42 921
layers on 	Number Percent	2,108 68	2,163 68	2,746 83	2,757 81	3,272 94	3,478	3,508 94	3,421	3,505	3,635	3, 700 88	3,940 91	4,063 92	4,104
Layer on nand on	Number Dozen do.	172 30,215 160 30,055	179 32,263 160 32,103	179 40,960 160 40,800	185 42,502 160 42,342	186 50,714 160 50,554	185 53,617 160 53,457	187 54,664 160 54,504	191 54,449 160 54,289	, 55,786 , 55,626	188 56,946 160 56,786	189 58,273 160 58,113	192 63,037 160 62,877	195 66,024 160 65,864	194 66,348 160 66,182
dozen sold	Dollar do.	•42 12,623	•45 14,446	•56 22,848	•59 24,982	•52 26,288	•45 24,056	•54 29,432	.47 25,516	.53 29,482	.40 22,714	.44	.41 25,780	.39 25,687	.40
age or total	Percent	92	92	66	66	96	96	96	96	96	96	96	26	46	
0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0	Dollar	13,734	15,650	24,057	26,343	27,440	25,074	30,674	26,677	30,656	23,632	26,661	26,675	26, 505	27,396
e	Acre do.	010	10 10	010	01	10	10 1	10	10	10	10 0	010	0 TO	010	10
7-49 = 100): eion	Percent do. do.	54 59 59	61 26 98	0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0	102 96 101	105 121 117 101	97 56 122 101	118 113 126 102	103 37 127 104	118 113 129 104	92 -15 -129 103	103 55 132 103	103 39 144	103 36 153	107 45 153 106
bur or mern	do.	66 88	74 74	06	66 76	113 104	114 104	120	122 105	125 105	124 104	129 105	142 107	153 109	153 109
se per unu u	do.	84	66	103	107	06	06	26	100	96	96	89	8.7	83	84
ery, January 1.	do.	87 100	97 100	103 99	106 100	91 101	90 103	97 106	101 112	97 121	98 131	92 140	90 151	88 155	90 160
LOF products	do.	277	82	101	106	93	81	26	84	76	τı	78	73	69	71
essessessesses	• op	22	89	101	107	92	93	101	105	100	66	64	92	06	06

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- 12 -

1958	27,396	26,955 20,215 1,564 826 826 197 1,821 1,821 328 376 230 230 230 230	141	5,900 4,900 1,000	17	52,350 43,180 1,870 7,300	1,191	192 869	2,693	2,932	-239	05 232	-103
1957	26,505	26,513 20,025 1,483 813 813 813 813 192 1,748 30 356 32 30 232 32 80	со 1	<i>5</i> ,900 4,900 1,000	17	48,940 40,500 1,780 6,660	1,109	192 834	2,127	2,692	-565	12	-246
1956	26,675	26,484 20,019 1,445 779 1,777 335 336 230 230 230 230 2975 230 28 2975 2975 2975 2975 2975 2975 2975 2975	191	6,000 4,900 1,100	18	46,030 37,220 1,680 7,130	1,030	180 925	2,326	2,209	117	•02 224	52
1955	26,661	25,410 19,227 1,368 757 757 1,647 1,647 1,647 1,647 232 26 26 232 26 26 274	1,251	6,020 4,830 1,190	20	42,060 34,160 1,600 6,300	965	198 859	3,273	l,893	1,380	.29	627
1954	23,632	26,475 20,455 1,290 551 764 1,549 1,539 1,539 2,48 2,55 25 25 25 273	-2,843	6,140 4,870 1,270	21	41,900 32,560 1,590 7,750	937	180 821	-905	1,886	-2,791	57 227	-1,230
1953	30,656	25,915 19,970 1,272 792 1,477 1,477 1,477 234 234 22 22 22 22 27 234 27 70 27 70 70 70 70	4,741	6,050 4,700 1,350	22	40,930 31,270 1,540 8,120	946	228 824	6,739	1,842	4,897	1.04	2,257
1952	26,677	26,424 20,611 1,235 523 746 1,441 1,441 1,441 1,441 233 231 231 231 231 231 231 231 231 23	253	6,140 4,700 1,440	23	39,880 29,970 1,460 8,450	910	246 793	2,202	1,795	407	.09 218	187
1951	30,674	25,778 20,243 1,112 522 1,112 1,112 1,112 1,112 242 242 242 242 242 242 242 242 242	4,896	6,180 4,660 1,520	25	35,600 27,210 1,320 7,070	832	264 736	6,728	1,602	5,126	1.10 216	2,373
1950	25,074	23,274 18,243 1,058 1,058 630 630 1,111 1,111 1,054 21 224 21 226 220 169	1,800	6,300 4,700 1,600	25	33,320 24,730 1,250 7,340	781	228 545	3,354	1,499	1,855	.39 198	937
1949	27,440	21,803 16,973 16,973 1,042 612 612 612 210 210 211 211 211 211	5,637	6,110 4,590 1,520	25	34,100 24,150 1,230 8,720	802	204 525	7,168	l,534	5,634	1.23 196	2,874
1948	26,343	22,165 117,611 386 563 563 563 198 198 198 198 198 198 198	4,178	5,810 4,370 1,440	25	31,660 23,060 1,120 7,480	788	249 514	5,729	1,266	4,463	1.02 202	2,209
1947	24,057	20,549 16,474 849 849 499 454 182 182 182 12 12	3,508	5,790 4,430 1,360	24	29,310 21,330 980 7,000	767	220	4,954	1,172	3,782	.85 191	1,980
1946	15,650	115,352 111,858 801 284 426 705 705 705 705 168 163 15 15 43	298	5,360 4,080 1,280	24	24,180 17,650 830 5,700	676	212 354	1,540	67	573	,14 163	352
1945	13,734	12,726 9,547 277 387 387 387 387 387 387 387 637 14 141 141 142 142	1,008	5,300 4,100 1,200	23	22,140 15,880 840 5,420	624	178 326	2,136	886	1,250	.30 147	850
Unit	Dollar		do.	Hour do. do.	Percent	Dollar do. do. do.	Dollar	do.	do.	do.	do.	do. Percent	Dollar
Item	Cash receipts	Cash expenses Feed purchased Baby chicks Other poultry expense Power and machinery expense. Brooder fuel. Farm building expense Talephone Telephone Electricity. Insurance Miscellaneous expense	Net cash farm income	Total labor used Operator and family labor Hired labor	total	Total farm capital, January 1 Land and buildings Machinery and equipment	Value of perquisites	Change in inventory: Livestock Machinery and buildings	Net farm income	Charge for capital		dollars luter to the second sec	Purchasing power of return to labor in 1937-41 dollars

TABLE 6.--Farm expenses, labor and capital used, net returns, and related data, commercial family-operated poultry farms, New Jersey, 1945-53

<sup>1</sup> 1937-41 = 100

The care of the replacement flock requires considerable time, particularly during the first few weeks. Few poultrymen have mechanized the feeding of their replacement flocks, but the watering is usually automatic, and gas and electricity have largely replaced the coal stoves in most brooder houses.

Most of the commercial egg producers in New Jersey and many in other parts of the Northeast buy their entire feed requirements. The farms typically contain only a few acres, many of them on light sandy soils, so crops are seldom grown. Sometimes a few garden vegetables are raised.

In New Jersey, poultry buildings are usually one-story structures. Conventional frame construction is most popular, but cinder block houses are seen occasionally. Most floors are of concrete. Metal and composition are the common roofing materials. An average of about  $3\frac{1}{4}$  square feet per bird on hand (as an average during the year) is usually provided, or about 3 square feet per bird when the laying flock is at its seasonal peak around the first of the year. By the late forties, egg cleaners and washers and automatic egg graders were commonly used on these farms, and automatic feeders have been installed on most of them since 1950.

Table 5 shows the layers on hand the first of each year, and the production and disposition of birds during the year. The light breeds, chiefly White Leghorns, are commonly used for egg production, as they are more efficient layers. Very low prices are received for cull layers, so the extra weight of the heavier birds is only a slight advantage when they are sold as culls.

Although the use of started pullets is not unknown in the area, replacements are usually bought as sexed chicks. Enough chicks must be raised during the year to replace death losses in the laying flock, to take the place of those sold and eaten, and for any increase in size of flock. After their first year of production, older hens do not lay as well as the younger ones. For this reason, most hens are replaced early in their second year of production, and usually all of them are culled out before the end of their second year.

About two-thirds of the pullets raised are usually required to replace the older birds sold, and an additional fourth is needed to replace death losses in the laying flock.

Better breeding, feeding, and management has brought about a 13-percent increase in the rate of lay since 1945. Egg production per average layer on hand during the year has gone up from 172 in 1945 to 194 in 1958.

The important trends of the 1945-58 period on commercial poultry farms in New Jersey can perhaps best be summarized in figures 9, 10, 11, and 12. All data are in percentages of 1945.

Together, figures 9 and 10 show the important factors that determine the total value of eggs sold per farm. Figure 9 shows the number of layers and the rate of lay which multiplied together give the total egg production. The important point brought out in figure 9 is that the expansion of egg production is due mainly to the larger number of layers in the flock, with a modest assist from the increased rate of lay. This egg-production line is then repeated in figure 10, where, together with the price per dozen, it determines the value of eggs sold.<sup>9</sup> Here, the significant facts are the similarity in the year-to-year changes in prices and in total sales, and the way in which a generally upward trend in production since 1948 is virtually offset by a generally downward trend in price, to give total sales that fluctuate about the level of 200 to 210 percent of 1945.

Purchased feed makes up about three-fourths of the total cash expenses on these poultry farms. It varies more in price from year to year than do such purchased items

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>9</sup>After allowing for the 160 dozen eggs used on the farm each year.

as baby chicks, brooder fuel, or litter. Feed costs, therefore, are mainly responsible for the year-to-year variations in the total expenses of these poultrymen. Figure 11 shows the changes in quantity of feed bought, in price, and in total feed expenses, all as percentages of 1945. Since 1951, a steadily increasing quantity is offset by a downward price trend to give a level of feed expense only slightly more than double that of 1945.

Figure 12 summarizes the trends shown in figures 9, 10, and 11. The difference in the height of the bars shows the amount of each year's gross income required to pay for all cash inputs used in that year: including nonfeed items (not shown in figure 11). Note the variation in net farm income<sup>10</sup> --the good years of 1947, 1948, 1949, 1951 and 1953, and the particularly poor year of 1954.

Today's commercial poultry farm is a considerably more efficient operation than that of the immediate postwar period. The increase in the size of flock and its more uniform size throughout the year have contributed part of this increased efficiency. Mechanization has made it possible to handle the larger flock without a proportional increase in the labor force. The index of production per hour of man labor jumped from 66 in 1945 (1947-49=100) to 153 in 1958, while the index of power and machinery went from 100 to 160 in the same period (table 5). A more general measure of efficiency is the index of production per unit of all inputs, which increased from 88 in 1945 to 109 in 1958. The higher rate of lay was reflected in a lower feed requirement per dozen eggs, which dropped from 7 to about 6.4 pounds per dozen.

The fact that efficiency of production has increased does not mean that the production has become more profitable, as the recent downward trend in net farm income indicates. Efficient production helps, but no egg producer is so efficient that he can afford to ignore the price of eggs. In 12 of the 14 years of this series, sales of eggs have made up 95 percent or more of the total cash receipts on these commercial poultry farms (table 5). Small changes in the price of eggs can produce much larger percentage changes in net farm incomes. For example, if we take the 66,348 dozen eggs produced in 1958 as a basis, a 1-cent (about  $2\frac{1}{2}$  percent) difference in the price would have made a difference of about \$660 in net income in that year.

But feed prices are important too. They make up three-fourths of the total cash costs on these farms. Again using 1958 as a basis, if the 5,085 100-pound bags of feed bought in that year had cost 10 cents more per bag, the total farm expense would have been \$508 higher, and net farm income would have been reduced by the same amount.

Perhaps the relationship between egg and feed prices, on the one hand, and the net farm income of the poultryman, on the other, can best be shown by a hypothetical example. As a basis for the example, we use the same egg production, the same quantity of feed, and the same quantity of all other inputs and outputs that these New Jersey farms used or produced in 1958. We assume also the same prices received and paid as were actually received or paid in that year, except the prices of eggs and feed. We are thus in a position to assume any egg price and any feed price we wish, and by using a very simple equation, we can easily calculate the net income that would have resulted had these prices actually prevailed in 1958.

The four elements of the equation are as follows: (1) Income from eggs (eggs used are valued at the market price, so this figure consists of total production times the market price we decide to use); (2) other income (sales of cull layers, perquisites other than eggs used, and inventory changes), which for this analysis is assumed to be fixed at the 1958 level and thus is put into the equation at \$3,109; (3) feed expense, which is the quantity

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1)</sup>Net farm income is the difference between cash expenses and the total of cash sales, farm products used, and the value of house rent, plus or minus change in inventory.



Figure 9





- 16 -



Figure 11



Figure 12

of feed used in 1958 multiplied by the feed price we decide to use; (4) other expenses, which we set at the actual 1958 total of \$6,736. Net farm income can be calculated by adding items 1 and 2 and from this total subtracting items 3 and 4, thus:

	Eggs produced, doz.	Х	Price of eggs	+	Other income	_	Feed bought, 100 lbs.	Х	Price of feed	-	Other cash expense	Ξ	Net farm income
or,	66,348	x	Price of eggs	÷	\$3,109	_	5,085	x	Price of feed	_	\$6,736		Net farm income

Determination of the net farm income that would have been received by our ''representative poultryman'' at various assumed levels of egg and feed prices may more conveniently be made graphically from figure 13. For example, to find the net farm income that would result with 40-cent eggs and \$4 feed (to use figures that closely approximate actual 1958 figures), we draw a line straight up from the 40-cent point on the horizontal (egg-price) scale, and find that it intersects the \$4 feed-price line at about the \$2,600 income level.

Net income that would have resulted with other price-cost conditions may be determined similarly. For example, with the somewhat more favorable combination of 44-cent eggs and \$4 feed, the net income figure comes to about \$5,200.

If a large part of the year-to-year variations in the poultryman's net farm income is due to changes in egg prices, and another large share is due to changes in feed prices, the <u>relationship</u> of egg prices to feed prices will explain more of the income changes than will either price series alone. This is suggested by the close relationship of net farm income and the egg-feed price ratio shown in figure 14. However, the <u>absolute levels</u> of both egg and feed prices also affect net farm income. For example, an egg-feed price ratio of 10 produces a higher income with 50-cent eggs and \$5 feed than with eggs at 40 cents and feed at \$4. This is indicated by the upward slope of the lines in the right hand section of figure 13.

Nevertheless, with a group of farms such as this, the egg-feed price ratio is a good single determinant of year-to-year changes in net farm income. Under the conditions that prevailed on these farms in the 1945-58 period, for each point added to the egg-feed price ratio net farm income tended to rise by nearly \$2,000. This is indicated in figure 15 by the heavy diagonal line, which is called the ''line of average relationship'' of net farm income to the egg-feed ratio. The broken lines above and below this line mark off the band within which one would expect two-thirds of the years to fall (10 of the 14 do so fall). In two-thirds of the years we would expect the net farm income on these farms to be within (plus or minus) about \$1,300 on the basis of the egg-feed ratio. The accuracy of this method of estimating net farm income would be improved by making additional adjustments for size of business and rate of lay. Also the <u>level</u> of egg and feed prices, as distinct from their ratio, is important, as pointed out above.

It will be noticed that the years that deviate most from the line of average relationships are 1945 and 1946. These were the last 2 years in which production of only one lot of replacement birds was common in the area. From 1947 on, the number of layers on hand was more nearly uniform throughout the year, thereby permitting more effective use of production facilities and labor. This is perhaps the main reason for the closer relationship between income and the egg-feed price ratio from 1947 on.

On the basis of the more homogeneous period of 1947-58, the relationship is somewhat more exact. In view of the fact that fixed resources were used to more nearly the same degree of intensity (number of birds handled with given building and equipment facilities), this is to be expected. When a line of average relationship is fitted to the data for 1947-58



Figure 13







#### Figure 15

(instead of 1945-58) the "fit" is a closer one. For two-thirds of this period, on the basis of the egg-feed price ratio alone, we can predict the net farm income within about (plus or minus) \$518.

Commercial egg production is a highly competitive business which involves a considerable element of risk. The risk is due partly to the inelastic nature of the demand for eggs." When consumer demand is inelastic, small changes in production generate relatively large changes in prices received by the producer. Also, as pointed out, even small changes in prices received for eggs exert considerable "leverage" on the net incomes of poultrymen, unless they are offset by changes in the price of feed. Add to this basis for instability the generally depressing effect of a gradual upward trend in egg production, and a decline in the domestic per capita consumption of eggs. The result is a series of net incomes that fluctuate about a level that is considerably below that prevailing in the late forties.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>11</sup> See, for example, Gerra, M. J. An Econometric Model of the Egg Industry. Jour. Farm Econ. 41(2): 284-301. May 1959.

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