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# 111 EAAE-IAAE Seminar 'Small Farms: decline or persistence' University of Kent, Canterbury, UK 26th-27th June 2009

Dairy supply chain modernisation in Poland – what about those not keeping the pace?

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# [Preliminary draft]

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# Abstract of the paper

Taking into consideration a significant outflow of Polish farmers from dairy sector, we investigate what factors determine their decision to quit milk sales. We also analyse their current revenues and compare with that of similar households that remained in commercial milk production. Using logit model we find that severing relations with the market is mainly determined by worse endowment of farms with dairy specific assets, smaller cow herds and older age of the farm manager. Based on semi-parametric matching methods we find that in terms of revenues farms that decided for subsistence milk production perform worse than those that maintained commercial dairy business. However, more detailed analysis shows that this difference could be attributed to supply chain modernisation and becomes insignificant once subsistence farmers are compared to commercial farms supplying traditional marketing channel.

**Keywords and JEL codes:** milk production, dairy supply chain, subsistence farming, matching methods, Poland, Q12, Q13.

#### 1 INTRODUCTION

Dairy supply chain in Poland has recently been a subject of several interesting studies. Seremak-Bulge (2005) and Wilkin et al. (2007) documented the main changes that could have been observed in the sector over the last decade, and tried to highlight their causes and consequences. Among others, considerable decrease in number of dairy farms, increase in milk yields, an outstanding improvement in milk quality or concentration of the processing industry were acknowledged as the most remarkable changes. The EU accession and integration process, on the other hand, were recognised as the main driving forces behind the sector's restructuring. Hockman and Pieniadz (2005) looked at the Polish dairy sector from the angle of EU quality and food safety standards that became binding upon both the milk production sector as well as processing industry. Dries and Swinnen (2004; 2005) explored the role of dairy processors in stimulating the necessary adjustment processes at the farm level. The obtained results indicate that, assistance programmes directed to farmers by dairy processors were of crucial importance as they enlarged farmers' capacities to access external funding, technology or information. Finally, Milczarek-Andrzejewska et al. (2007) attempted to investigate the impact of supply chain modernisation on dairy farmers' revenues finding positive relationship.

There are also two other key points that arose from these studies which should deserve special attention. First, new marketing channel through which milk is delivered to the market has emerged. Traditionally milk was delivered by farmers to collection stations operated by dairy processors. Nowadays more and more often milk is collected directly at the farm by a dairy truck (Milczarek et al., 2007). It is estimated that this latter channel, hereafter referred to as the modern one, accounts for 60-100% of milk supplies (depending on a dairy company) (Seremak-Bulge, 2005; Wilkin et al., 2007). It is remarkable that growing dominance of the modern channel has taken place despite the fact that entering this channel required from farmers undertaking considerable investments at the farm (e.g. buying cooling tank, increasing herd size<sup>1</sup>, etc.). Again the role of processing industry's assistance should be acknowledged. Second, no systematic evidence was found in favour of the hypothesis that small farmers were excluded from the assistance programmes. On the contrary, collected findings suggest that support was provided both to smallholders as well as to larger producers (Dries and Swinnen, 2004; 2005; Milczarek-Andrzejewska et al., 2007). Nevertheless, herd size and milk yields per cow had a positive and significant impact on farmers' propensity to join the modern marketing channel (Milczarek-Andrzejewska et al., 2007). Overall then, based on the experiences of the Polish dairy sector, it is difficult to take a definite stand on the common belief that food supply chain modernisation, and introduction of private quality and food safety standards in particular, may lead to smallholders' marginalisation (see, for instance, Key and Runsten, 1999; Reardon and Barret, 2000; Weatherspoon and Reardon, 2003; Humphrey et al., 2004; among others).

In this context, it seems particularly interesting to have a closer look at factors determining local dairy farms' survival and current situation of those that withdrew from (commercial)

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> One could argue that increasing a herd size *per se* was not a factor conditioning joining the modern marketing channel. However, investments in cooling tank or in quality improvements, if they were to be profitable, often required sufficient scale of production. To illustrate this, one may recall the study by Milczarek-Andrzejewska *et al.* (2007) reporting that almost 85% of the then surveyed farmers who switched from traditional to modern channel increased their herd size.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Evidence from micro-study reported in Milczarek-Andrzejewska *et al.* (2007) suggests, however, that the smallest farms, i.e. those having less than 5 cows, could have been marginalised with respect to their access to bank/dairy loans.

milk production. This investigation is the more desirable as the Polish dairy sector experienced during transition a significant outflow of people. The number of dairy farms declined by more than 1 million, from 1.8 million in 1990 to roughly 0.7 in 2005 (GUS, var. vol.). Obviously significant part of these producers could be regarded as producing milk only for own consumption and therefore their withdrawal was a natural course of events. However, even if one would adjust these figures to reflect only producers delivering to dairy industry, decline in number of farms still amounts to 0.55 million.<sup>3</sup> Interestingly, in spite of the scale of this process, the fate of those who decided to guit milk production is very poorly documented. Some insights could be gained from the study by Dries and Swinnen (2004) where main determinants of dairy farms survival were investigated. Taking into account however, that the focus of that study was on those who survived it certainly does not exhaust the topic. In response to this, this paper aims at having closer look at milk producers that fell outside the commercial dairy supply chain. More specifically, an attempt is made to determine the main factors responsible for decision to stop milk sales (but not necessarily to stop milk/agricultural production). The focus is on the importance of changes taking place in vertical linkages between farms and dairy processors. Further, using propensity score matching methods, a comparison between those who quitted and those who stayed in commercial dairy sector is made to see whether the decision to guit could be regarded as optimal.

By doing so, this paper aims at further reconsidering the link between subsistence farming/ farm exits and farm revenues by putting into perspective supply chain modernisation. The analysis is based on survey data conducted in 2007 that collected information on 2001 and 2006. Thanks to this, dynamic aspects of farm decision making process could be elaborated. Moreover, such dataset allows us to use retrospective data and thus helps to avoid potential problem of reverse causation which is of relevance when investigating household decision making processes. Since our focus is on changes in vertical linkages between farms and dairy processors it is important to note that the period covered in this study (i.e. 2001-2006) encompasses the time when important phenomena took place as a result of dairy supply chain modernisation and EU accession (Wilkin et al., 2007). Accordingly, our dataset should allow to capture these effects. Moreover, we believe that focusing on dairy sector rather than analysing situation in agricultural sector as a whole may be of importance since the latter approach could veil several sector-specific factors that may play a role for farm orientation (subsistence/commercial) and/or farm exit.<sup>4</sup> Finally, it should be noted that determinants of farm exits were studied mostly in developed countries (see, for instance, Weiss, 1999; Kimhi, 2000; Goetz and Debertin, 2001; Breustedt and Glauben, 2004, among others); whereas not in transition context. Notable exceptions include Rizov and Mathijs (2001), Dries and Swinnen (2004) and Juvancic (2006) that studied survival and growth of farms in Hungary, Poland and Slovenia respectively.

The paper is organised as follows. Section 2 presents theoretical considerations that might be helpful in explaining the choice of farmers that decided to quit milk sales. Section 3 presents the data and an econometric approach. Section 4 reports descriptive statistics. Section 5 presents results of econometric analysis, while Section 6 summarises and concludes.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Number of producers delivering milk to dairy industry in 1990 amounted to 850 thousands. In 2005 this number amounted to 294 thousands (GUS var. vol.).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> Although there exist studies dealing with farm development in/exits from dairy sector (Foltz, 2004; Hansson *et al.*, 2008; Peerlings and Ooms, 2008), the majority of the literature looks at this problem from more general perspective and investigates changes in number of farms in agricultural sector as a whole (see, for instance, Weiss, 1999; Gale, 2003; Key and Roberts, 2006; Breustedt and Glauben, 2007, among others).

#### 2 LITERATURE REVIEW

Below we give a brief overview of the existing studies, both theoretical as well as empirical, that might be of relevance for our purposes. The focus is on two strands of the literature, namely the literature on subsistence farming and the literature on farm exits. We also review concisely the literature on determinants of farm revenues.

## 2.1 Subsistence farming

In recent literature on subsistence farming two key approaches could be distinguished (Kostov and Lingard, 2004). On the one hand, subsistence farming can be associated with the existence of transaction costs (de Janvry and Sadoulet, 1994). Transaction costs *rise the price effectively paid by the buyer and lower the price effectively received by sellers of a good, creating a "price band" within which some households find it unprofitable to either sell or buy* (Key et al., 2000, p. 245). They include both proportional as well as fixed costs. The former include per-unit costs of accessing markets associated with transportation and imperfect information, whereas the latter include costs of searching the trading partner, of bargaining process, and of monitoring and enforcing the contract. Number of empirical studies found that these costs are likely to affect agents' market participation decisions (e.g. Goetz, 1992; Sadoulet et al., 1998; Key et al., 2000).

On the other hand, farmers' risk aversion is put into perspective. Within this framework farmer's decision on his relationship to market takes into account wider range of risks than price risks alone (Kostov and Lingard, 2003). Obviously, of key importance here is whether farmers' motivation to produce is to secure consumption or to sell (Ozanne, 1999). This is of relevance since it might determine farmer's perception of risks involved and strategies employed to avoid unwanted events.

Having this in mind, from our perspective of importance is the relationship between supply chain restructuring and the level of transaction costs/risk aversion. As noted by many authors (e.g. Key and Runsten, 2001; White and Gorton, 2006) supply chain modernisation has been associated with institutional innovation that took the form of contracts. Further, emergence of private capital enforcement mechanisms in vertical relations between farms and downstream companies should also be recognised (Gow and Swinnen, 2001). In this context, one may assume that supply chain modernisation should act in favour of reduction of transaction costs and price risks. Moreover, provided that it is accompanied by assistance programmes to farmers (Dries and Swinnen, 2004; Wilkin et al., 2007) it should also mitigate other risks resulting from imperfect information or other markets' imperfections. These considerations find support in the study by Milczarek-Andrzejewska et al. (2007). The authors report that farmers rate the modern channel more highly than the traditional one in terms of, among others, level of price paid, security of milk collection, lower risk of delayed payments or technical and credit assistance. Overall then, belonging to the modern marketing channel should lower the odds of quitting milk sales through its impact on the level of transaction costs and risks faced by the farmer.

#### 2.2 Farm exits

As mentioned above, supply chain modernisation has also entered the discussion on farm exits. More specifically, concerns have been expressed that it can lead to the exclusion of small farms from formal food supply chains. It is important to see though that overall empirical findings on this issue are mixed. Evidence from Eastern and Central Europe as well

as from Commonwealth of Independent States tend to indicate that downstream market power, even if exists, does not need to lead to smallholders' marginalisation (Swinnen *et al.*, 2006; White and Gorton, 2006; Gorton and White, 2007; Swinnen, 2007). Different picture emerges from findings on African and Latin American countries (Delgado, 1999; Key and Runsten, 1999; Dolan and Humphrey, 2000; Weatherspoon *et al.*, 2001; Reardon and Berdegue, 2002; Reardon and Farina, 2002). However, examples of Morocco (Chemnitz, 2007) or Madagascar (Minten *et al.*, 2007) where no systematic evidence for small farms' marginalisation was found should be kept in mind. We conclude therefore, that the impact of supply chain modernisation on farm exits is not certain.

In this context, it is worth considering other factors that could contribute to farmers' decision to exit from farming. To start with, it might be worth mentioning that, as noted by Breustedt and Glauben (2007), most exits from farming are voluntary. On the one hand, exit from farming might be a consequence of old age and/or poor health (Jovanovic, 1982; Bentley and Saupe, 1990; Gale, 2003). On the other hand, exiting from (small-scale) agriculture might be sometimes accounted for by macroeconomic prospects recovery (White and Gorton, 2006).

Moving to empirical studies dealing with dairy sector, Dries and Swinnen (2004) show that farm survival is crucially dependent on herd size. Other factors of relevance include membership in cooperative as well as access to dairy assistance programmes. Off-farm employment opportunities, on the other hand, favour exiting from farming.<sup>6</sup> Similar findings are reported for dairy farms in the Netherlands by Peerlings and Ooms (2008). Finally, it is worth noting that using data for Swedish dairy farms, Hansson et al. (2008) find that farm growth is more likely on farms with larger dependence on milk production and previous investments made.<sup>7</sup>

# 2.3 Farm revenues

As mentioned above, we are interested not only in factors determining households decision to quit milk sales but also in comparing revenues of those who quitted with revenues of farms that maintained dairy business. Following discussion could help to build the context for our analysis. First, several recent studies attempted to investigate what are the impacts of farmers' market choices on their incomes (for an overview see Huang and Reardon, 2008). The case of dairy sector in Poland (Milczarek-Andrzejewska *et al.*, 2007) as well as strawberries growers in Mexico (Berdegue *et al.*, 2007) provide evidence that choosing the modern channel had a positive impact on farms' financial situation. Examples of tomato growers in Indonesia,

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> As noted in studies of non-farm business, the operator's age may be related to knowledge about firms' relative competitiveness with older owners being able to acquire more information (Jovanovic, 1982). Further, in the presence of financial constraints, the older the owner, the higher probability that he would finally accumulate enough funds to operate on sufficient scale (Evans and Jovanovic, 1989; Holtz-Eakin *et al.*, 1994). The fact of having or not the successor to take over the business might also be of great importance here.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> In this context, it is worth noting that the evidence on the association between off-farm employment and farm exits is not clear. To quote an example, Pfeffer (1989) and Weiss (1999) documented that part-time farming is a step in the way out of agriculture. On the contrary, more recent studies (see, for instance, Kimhi, 2000; Goetz and Debertin, 2001; Breustedt and Glauben, 2007, among others) concluded that off-farm opportunities tend to decrease the probability of farm exits.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup> It should be also noted that extensive literature exists on the relationship between farm exits and farm subsidisation programmes (see, for instance, Barkley, 1990; Tweeten, 1984; Key and Roberts, 2006, among others). Foltz (2004) and Peerlings and Ooms (2008) provide examples of studies examining this relationship in dairy sectors. However, due to our data limitations, unfortunately we are not able to investigate this issue and therefore, we do not review this literature here.

China, Turkey and South Africa show no significant impact of choosing the modern channel, whereas example of dairy sector in India reveals negative relationship (Huang and Reardon, 2008). Second, the research conducted in Senegal shows that the supply chain restructuring may offer earning opportunities not only on the product market but also on the labour market (Maertens and Swinnen, 2006). In these circumstances, farmers not being able to meet new requirements may benefit from shifting away from contract farming and hiring themselves as workers on large-scale estates. It should be noted, though, that this scenario does not always hold. McMillan *et al.* (2002) report increase in unemployment in the case of cashew nut growers in Mozambique. Similar findings are provided by Wilcox and Abbott (2004) for cocoa beans sector in Ivory Coast. In this context it is worth recalling mixed evidence on the relationship between growing engagement salaried off-farm positions and household's wealth level (see, for instance, Reardon, 1997; Lanjouw and Lanjouw, 2001; or Joshi *et al.*, 2003; and citations therein).<sup>8</sup>

#### 3 DATA & ECONOMETRIC STRATEGY

#### 3.1 Data

The analysis presented below uses primary survey data collected in 2007 in two regions located in north-east Poland, namely Warmińsko-Mazurskie and Podlaskie. Both of them, after experiencing considerable restructuring, rank among the best developed dairy regions. As such, they may serve as a textbook case of sector's transformation and provide valuable insights for other parts of the country that are behind in the adjustment process.

Altogether 395 dairy farm households were surveyed. The questionnaire gathered information on household, farm and neighbourhood characteristics. It aimed at capturing the main features of changes in dairy supply chain with the focus on adjustments taking place at the farm level. In order to get better insights, information on two years, namely 2006 and 2001 were collected. This was done to capture the dynamics of the restructuring process.

The overall sample consisted of a sub-sample of 66 farms that quitted milk sales at some point after 2001. These farms answered additional questions relating to their reasons to withdraw from commercial milk production. This aimed at making it possible to investigate the fate of those farms that did not keep the pace with the dairy sector restructuring or simply did not want to do it.<sup>9</sup>

As regards farmers' market choices, in 2001 146 farms were in the modern marketing channel and 249 were in the traditional one. In 2006 these numbers were 218 and 111 respectively. As such we classify farmers into two groups: the modern channel farmers and traditional channel ones. Within those two categories farmers that quitted milk production and farmers that switched between marketing channels could be distinguished.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> A strong positive relationship was found for African countries as well as China (Reardon, 1997; Rozelle *et al.*, 1999). Latin American countries and India provide evidence for U-shaped relationship indicating that obtaining the highest share of non-agricultural employment is a common facet of both poorest and wealthiest households (Reardon, 2000; Hazell and Haggblade, 1990). Deininger and Olinto (2001), on the other hand, found that a strong positive association between total income and 'specialization', i.e. relying only on one main source, either on- or off-farm, held true in the case of households in Colombia.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>9</sup> Taking into account that the rate of withdrawal from commercial milk production in the period 2002-2005 amounted to roughly 21%, slight under-representation of such farms in the sample should be kept in mind while interpreting the results. Nevertheless, it is believed that exploring information provided in this sample could provide valuable insights on those who stopped milk sales.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>10</sup> 66 farms withdrew from commercial milk production at some point after 2001.

# 3.2 Econometric strategy

The first research question, i.e. what factors determine decision to quit milk sales, is addressed by using logit maximum likelihood procedure. Therefore, we assume that our dummy dependent variable, equal to one for farms that stopped to sell milk and equal to zero for farms that maintained their dairy business, depends on an unobserved continuous propensity of a farmer not to participate in a dairy market. We specify this unobserved variable as a linear function of number of explanatory variables (see below).

In order to address the second research question, i.e. how do the farms that quitted their participation in dairy market perform compared to those that still sell their milk, we employ propensity score matching methods (see, for instance, Rosenbaum and Rubin, 1983; Heckman et al., 1997; 1998; Smith and Todd, 2005, among others). We use two measures of performance here, namely agricultural and total revenues per capita. The focus by this method is to rule out the impact of unobservable factors that might affect the level of farm revenues. Moreover, it relaxes linearity assumption allowing for any heterogeneity in the effect of quitting milk sales, as long as it is related to the observable factors. Thanks to applying this method we reduce the risk that the effect of quitting milk sales is confounded with that of the factors determining this decision. Since one does not observe what would have happened if the farm that quitted had remained in commercial production (or the converse), an estimate of the counterfactual is constructed. Conditional on number of observable characteristics the probability of quitting milk sales is calculated for each farm, the propensity score. Based on this estimate, the next step involves evaluating the difference in farm revenues between the farms that decided to withdraw from dairy market (treated) and those that did not (control). Since matching relies on comparing farms with similar values of propensity score the inferences are not distorted by counterfactuals very different from the treated observations.

# **4 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS**

We start addressing our research questions by referring to some descriptive statistics. The data show that 30% of farmers that decided to quit milk sales related this decision to low profitability of milk production. Another 21% saw the decisive factor in lack of necessary funds for investments. 13% mentioned old age and having no successors, whereas 12% referred to meeting with a refusal from a dairy due to low quality of milk. Great majority of surveyed farmers (95%) would not resume milk production if they could. In a sense, this may suggest that notwithstanding what lied at the heart of the decision to withdraw from milk sales farmers generally do not regret it. Interestingly though, when asked to compare their current financial situation with that from 2001 (i.e. when they sold milk), only 18% of respondents declared improvement, whereas 35% saw no change and 38% found their finances to be lower than previously. It might be worth noting that among farmers continuing milk sales these figures were 68%, 24% and 6% respectively. Moreover, it should be kept in mind that for almost 80% of those who fell outside the commercial dairy supply chain milk sales constituted either the most important or an important source of income. These observations, although being simple proportions, put the decision to quit milk sales in a bit different light suggesting that withdrawing from dairy sector might not have been the best strategy to optimise farm income. This, in turn, induces to pose some more detailed questions with respect to factors that inclined farmers to stop selling milk.

First insights on factors determining decision to quit milk production could be gained from looking at descriptive statistics reported in Table 1 where farmers that quitted milk production

are compared to farmers that kept their relationships to dairy market. Several things seem to be worth noting. To start with, not surprisingly, farmers who decided to quit milk sales were worse endowed with dairy specific assets. This manifested itself, for instance, in smaller cow herds, having cows of poorer quality or lower incidence of having cooling tank, milking machine, manure storage place etc. Worth mentioning is also the fact that over the last decade only 30% of those who quitted undertook investments to satisfy requirements of dairy processors. For comparison, necessary adjustments were undertaken by roughly 80% of those who stayed in milk production. As a result of this relative underdevelopment, the former group of farmers could not benefit from premiums for high-quality milk or for delivering larger quantities. Consequently, they obtained lower milk prices.

Table 1. Farm characteristics in 2001 – descriptive statistics

		Quitted milk sales	Stayed in milk sales	t-stat <sup>a</sup>
Milk production	Herd size (cows)	7	12.8	9.25***
	Milk yields (litres/cow)	3926	4302	2.36**
	% of households having Holstein-Friesian or mixed cattle	27.3	46.5	2.90***
	% farms having cooling tank	30.3	57.4	4.10***
	Index of assets specific to milk production (max 7)	2.59	4.07	6.64***
	Milk production sold (%)	88	94.2	0.65
	Average milk price (PLN/hectolitre)	68.9	75.1	3.68***
	Membership in dairy cooperative (%)	65.1	72.9	1.28
	Distance to dairy (km)	23.7	26.4	1.24
	Distance to collection point (km)	2.1	2.92	2.69***
Human capital	Age	41.8	37.3	2.91***
	Education of head of a household	1.81	2.01	1.85*
Land & labour endowments	Labour endowments	2.46	2.77	2.29**
	Land owned (ha)	16.1	22.2	4.87***
	Land leased (ha)	0.27	3.37	7.88***
Financing investments in last 5 years	Investments financed with own savings (%)	65	84	3.04***
	Investments financed with a bank credit(%)	25.7	48.6	3.45***
	Investments financed with a dairy credit(%)	3	17	4.70***
	Investments financed with EU funds (%)	13.6	26.4	2.61**
Revenues & off-farm income	Agricultural revenue per capita (PLN)	13 121	16 708	2.31**
	Share of milk revenue in agricultural revenue (%)	52	66	3.43***
	Share of agricultural revenue in total revenue (%)	77	94	4.51***
	Off-farm employment of household's head (%)	9.1	7.3	0.50
	% of households with unearned income	44	46	0.29

Source: Authors' survey. <sup>a</sup> Hypothesis tested: mean<sub>quit</sub> = mean<sub>stay</sub>; \*\*\*, \*\*, \* denote 1%, 5% and 10% significance level respectively

Notwithstanding all these facts, reported statistics suggest that in case of both investigated groups of farmers great majority of milk produced was delivered to the market. This indicates that ascertaining that these were semi-subsistence farmers who quitted is not necessarily the case here. Further, the presented figures do not support the view that farmers who decided to quit were particularly unfavourably located with regard to dairy processor or dairy collection

point.<sup>11</sup> Lack of significant difference between the two groups as regards ties with dairy cooperative should also be noticed. In order to check the so called 'neighbourhood effect', farmers were asked a question whether households in their neighbourhood also quitted milk production. Provided that number of positive and negative answers among the two groups of farmers was the same no clear relationship could be drawn with this respect.

The abovementioned observations, together with the fact that those who decided to quit earned in 2001 less than those who stayed, could indicate, that withdrawing from milk production was a conscious decision aimed at optimisation of resources' usage. This line of thinking is further supported by the fact that those who quitted were significantly older than those who stayed. There are, however, some points which rise doubts whether the choice made was indeed voluntary. First, it should be noted that those who quitted relatively rarely took advantage of external funding. This, obviously, may be simply a reflection of smaller activity with respect to undertaking investments but could also be indicative of their poorer access to bank/dairy loans. Legislative of their disposal smaller labour and land endowments, which surely adversely affected their alternative income opportunities. Moreover, also their human capital endowments tend to argue against them. In other words, it might have been the case that farmers who decided to quit milk production were forced to do so by either objective (e.g. age) or subjective (e.g. lack of access to credit) factors without being appropriately prepared to look for other income sources.

This hypothesis could be examined by looking at the consequences that this choice brought about. First of all, it is instructive to compare financial situation of farms that quitted and of those that stayed in milk production and delivered to the market through the traditional marketing channel (TMC). The choice of the latter group as a reference point is dictated by the fact that 90% of farms that decided to withdraw from milk production were in this channel prior to their exit from dairy sector. Accordingly, one might say that this is the best approximation of what one could get once decided to stay instead of quitting. Interestingly, while in 2001 those who quitted did not differ significantly from those who stayed in TMC (13 vs. 12 thousands PLN, t-stat = 0.69), the latter enjoyed higher revenues in 2006 (17 vs. 12 thousands PLN, t-stat = 1.76). Bearing in mind that these are only sample averages, this result suggests that the choice to withdraw from milk production might not have been the best choice to maximise farms' profits.

Other remarkable insights could be obtained from investigating behaviour of those who quitted after their choice was made. First, roughly 18% of them quitted also farming. Taking into account that those who quitted agricultural production for good were definitely older than the rest, tends to indicate that the former group simply retired. This supposition is further confirmed by the fact that in this group pensions and allowances were indicated as main source of income. For this reason our comparisons include only farmers that remained in agricultural production (i.e. the sub-sample of 66 farms that quitted milk sales reduces to 54 observations). As far as their income sources are concerned, for majority of them agricultural production remained to be the main source of income (74%). 13% of them earn their leaving mainly outside agriculture (roughly 4% are self-employed) whereas another 13% draw pensions.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>11</sup> Actually, farms that quitted milk sales were closer to collection points than those who remained in commercial.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>12</sup> The former hypothesis is supported by the fact that farmers who quitted less frequently financed their investments with own savings and EU funds.

Interestingly, semi-subsistence farming predominates among those who quitted milk production but are still involved in agriculture. 34% of them produce either only for own consumption or sell only small surpluses on the market, 31% sell half of what they produce and only 35% sell all or majority of their production. Taking into account that during the times they produced milk majority of production was directed to the market, this observation suggests that those who quitted milk production but stayed in agricultural production moved towards semi-subsistence farming. In other words, shadow prices changed in such direction that producing for own consumption rather than for market became the optimal choice. This course of events could be, to some extent, explained by the fact that in 2006 farms that quitted milk sales took advantage of off-farm employment much more often than farms that stayed in commercial milk production. One may conclude therefore, that resigning from milk production required looking for off-farm employment. 38% of farms that quitted milk sales confirmed this supposition, whereas 62% reported that working on the farm was sufficient.

Section below tries to further examine these issues by using econometric analysis.

#### **5 ECONOMETRIC ANALYSIS**

#### 5.1 Variables definition

Based on the discussion presented above as well as in Section 2, following variables were chosen for the purpose of econometric modelling. The variables *age* and *education* refer to farm operator and represent age in years and level of education respectively. The variables *herd-size*, *yields* and *dairy-assets* describe farm's capacity to produce milk. The two former variables represent number of cows and annual milk yields per cow respectively. The latter on the other hand, is an index of equipment used specifically for milk production. The variable *channel* is a dummy variable distinguishing farms belonging to modern marketing channel. Finally, the variables *coop-member*, *share-milk*, *labour-endowments* and *off-farm* refer to household characteristics. The former informs whether a farmer belonged to dairy cooperative. *Share-milk* represents a share of milk sales in total agricultural sales. *Labour-endowments* is defined as a weighted sum of household members over 15 years old. Off-farm is a dummy variable distinguishing households having access to off-farm wages and aims at capturing potential effect of overall economic prosperity. All explanatory variables refer to 2001. Provided that decision to quit was made at some point after 2001, this strategy was adopted in order to mitigate potential endogeneity and reverse causation problems.

These variables are used for both logit model as well as first stage matching method. As regards the first stage of matching methods, explanatory variables are chosen to reduce the bias attributable to unobserved factors and thus are crucial for the quality of matching (Becker and Ichino, 2002). Basically, reducing the bias should be accomplished by using diversity of the conditioning variables. However, provided relatively small sample at our disposal we decided to use a limited number of covariates that are likely to influence both the decision to quit/maintain dairy business and agricultural revenues. Accordingly, we decided to base our estimation of propensity score on covariates used in the logit model.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>13</sup> This index captures the incidence of having a particular piece of equipment from the following list: separate barn for cows, manure-storage place, cement milking parlour, milking machine, cement-floor stand for cows, cooling tank, and separate room for cooling tank.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>14</sup> Weights used for this calculation were: 1.0 for men aged 18–65 years and women aged 18–60 years; 0.5 for all household members aged 15 to 17; and 0.4 for men over 65 and women over 60 (Grontkowska and Klepacki, 2006).

# 5.2 Logit model

The results of estimation analysing the binary decision to quit milk sales/maintain commercial production based on the full sample are presented in Table 2. Five key points should be noted. Most importantly, we find no significant effect of market choice variable, although its coefficient has an expected sign. Second, we find that larger producers, in terms of herd size, were less likely to stop milk sales. This result is of importance for the discussion on smallholders' exclusion. However it may simply reflect the fact that larger farms are simply more profitable.

Table 2. Logit results for quitting milk sales

In don on don't	Dan an dant remiable.				
Independent	Dependent variable:				
variables	=1 for those who quitted milk sales				
	=0 for those who maintained milk sales				
Age	0.0493***				
	[0.0039]				
Education	-0.0260				
	[0.90]				
Herd size	-0.162***				
	[0.0010]				
Yields	0.000193				
	[0.23]				
Dairy assets	-0.294***				
•	[0.0054]				
Share milk	-0.633				
	[0.28]				
Off-farm	0.588				
	[0.15]				
Labour endowments	-0.348*				
	[0.065]				
Coop-member	-0.447				
	[0.19]				
Channel	-0.472				
	[0.30]				
Constant	-0.235				
Constant	[0.83]				
	[]				
Observations	389				
Pseudo R-squared	0.237				
C O 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 4 4 4 4 0 0 1 4 4					

Source: Own calculations. p values in brackets; \*\*\* p<0.01, \*\* p<0.05, \* p<0.1

Third, the variables describing farm productivity provide evidence of an important dichotomy. While higher milk yields per cow appeared to be insignificant, *dairy-assets* is negatively associated with quitting milk sales. The latter observation could be a reflection of sunk investments that are likely to bind dairy producers' relationship to market. Fourth, we find that decision to quit milk sales is positively affected by farmer's age. Provided that older age is closely related to retirement considerations and poor health (Gale, 2003), this result is in accordance with expectations. It is also corroborated by findings coming from the literature investigating the problem of dairy farm development/exit (Khimi and Rubin, 2007; Peerlings and Ooms, 2008). Fifth, we also find that farms with higher labour endowments are more likely to maintain milk sales. This could be due to two reasons. On the one hand, larger family workforce means higher chances for having a successor which is of great importance for decision making in farm households (Pfeffer, 1989; Glauben *et al.*, 2004). On the other hand, quitting milk sales while having larger labour endowments would result in facing the

necessity of finding alternative income sources for larger number of people.<sup>15</sup> Further, it might be worth noting that other variables, although being statistically insignificant, have the expected sign. Interestingly, belonging to the modern marketing channel cannot be perceived as a guarantee that dairy business will be maintained.

Finally, it might be interesting to collate these results with those obtained by Dries and Swinnen (2004) who analysed Polish dairy farms' survival based on data from 1995-2000, i.e. a five years period preceding our study. Number of similarities could be observed. To start with, in both cases farm survival was dependent on herd size. Moreover, Dries and Swinnen (2004) found positive and significant impact of assistance programmes offered by a dairy company. Taking into account that these programmes, by and large, facilitated farms' access to production assets (e.g. cooling tank, milking machine etc.) we believe that in our case this result is captured by the variable *dairy-assets*. Finally, it seems that belonging to cooperative and access to off-farm employment are no longer crucial for maintaining a dairy business and nowadays age as well as labour endowments play more important role.

## **5.3** Propensity score matching

Having established the main determinants of farm decision to quit milk sales, we move to address the second research question, namely: was that decision optimal when looking from farm revenues perspective.<sup>16</sup> In order to do so, we compare revenues generated by farms that quitted milk sales (but remained in agricultural production) with revenues of farms that decided to maintain commercial milk production. The reference point for farm revenues is 2006.

Table 3 provides information on how well does the matching procedure perform in our case. We consider here three cases. *Full sample* specification compares farms that quitted milk sales with all farms that kept dairy business. *Limited sample A* specification on the other hand, compares farms that quitted milk sales with farms that maintained commercial production but remained in the traditional marketing channel. Finally *Limited sample B* specification compares farms that quitted milk sales with farms that participate in dairy market and made a shift from traditional marketing channel to the modern marketing channel. The latter two options were also chosen in order to have more insights on heterogeneity within farms that remained in commercial milk production. We also treat them as a robustness check for the full sample analysis.

As shown in Table 3, farms that quitted milk sales and farms that maintained their dairy business differ systematically in terms of number of characteristics. This is illustrated by the fact that the null of equal means of unmatched treated and control is rejected for almost all variables in case of the *full sample* and *limited sample B* specifications. As regards *limited sample A*, in accordance with expectations, farms do not display such differences but nevertheless some notable exceptions remain, namely *dairy-assets* and, to a lesser extent, *labour-endowments* and *herd-size*. What is evident though, is that matching performs well and removes all these differences and equalises the means of all covariates across all specifications. Overall then, we conclude that matching is needed to have reliable comparisons between the groups of farms of our interest.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>15</sup> This statement obviously bases on the assumption that household's labour endowments are positively correlated with number of household members working on the farm.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>16</sup> Important to note is the fact that our data limitations do not allow to work with profits. Therefore, we base on farm revenues and assume that they may serve as a reasonable proxy for farm profits.

Table 3. Balancing properties of propensity score matching

-		Full sample		Limited	Limited sample A		Limited sample B	
		Mean t-test		Mean			t-test	
Variable	Sample	Treated	t	Treated	t	Mean Treated	t	
v ai iabic	Sample	Control	p>t	Control	p>t	Control	p>t	
		Control	prι	Control	p×ι	Control	p×ι	
Age	Unmatched	39.431	1.44	39.196	1.00	39.196	0.79	
1.20		37.322	0.152	37.371	0.319	37.712	0.434	
	Matched	39.34	-0.01	39.156	0.07	39.097	-0.06	
	Materieu	39.353	0.995	38.996	0.942	39.258	0.952	
		37.333	0.775	30.770	0.712	37.230	0.752	
Education	Unmatched	1.8824	-1.13	1.8913	-0.65	1.8913	-0.15	
		2.0155	0.258	1.9905	0.518	1.9125	0.885	
	Matched	1.86	0.24	1.9111	0.42	1.9032	0.38	
	1110001100	1.8211	0.813	1.8364	0.675	1.8243	0.705	
		1.0211	0.015	1.0501	0.075	1.02 13	0.705	
Herd size	Unmatched	7	-5.20	6.913	-1.44	6.913	-5.96	
		13.043	0.000	7.781	0.152	11.925	0.000	
	Matched	7.06	-0.66	6.9556	-0.19	8.2581	-0.99	
		7.5597	0.508	7.0914	0.848	9.1669	0.324	
Yields	Unmatched	3796.1	-2.93	3708.7	0.25	3708.7	-4.19	
		4317.2	0.004	3664.8	0.804	4542.5	0.000	
	Matched	3812	0.36	3697.8	0.45	4074.2	0.53	
		3735.7	0.722	3604.5	0.657	3952.1	0.595	
Dairy assets	Unmatched	2.6471	-5.97	2.5	-2.96	2.5	-4.48	
		4.1146	0.000	3.2476	0.004	3.825	0.000	
	Matched	2.68	-0.27	2.5333	-0.10	2.9355	0.82	
		2.7674	0.786	2.5643	0.919	2.606	0.414	
C1 '11	TT . 1 1	46074	4.50	47060	0.00	47060	2.50	
Share-milk	Unmatched	.46874	-4.59	.47068	-0.98	.47068	-3.59	
	3.6 . 1 . 1	.66489	0.000	.5224	0.327	.65822	0.000	
	Matched	.47203	0.10	.46865	0.09	.59319	1.95	
		.46583	0.918	.46297	0.928	.46224	0.056	
Off-farm	Unmatched	.23529	1.18	.26087	0.69	.26087	2.42	
OII-Iaiiii	Omnatched	.16718	0.237	.20067	0.490	.1	0.017	
	Matched	.22	0.237	.26667	-0.13		0.017	
	Matched	.21821	0.02			.19355		
		.21821	0.983	.27899	0.897	.14018	0.580	
Labour	Unmatched	2.4353	-2.28	2.4522	-1.60	2.4522	-0.72	
endowments		2.7731	0.023	2.721	0.112	2.5725	0.471	
11140 111101110	Matched	2.444	0.023	2.4844	0.112	2.4258	-0.29	
	Middled	2.3969	0.772	2.4534	0.862	2.4999	0.771	
		,	<i>-</i>		<b>-</b>		~··· *	
Coop-member	Unmatched	.64706	-1.33	.65217	-0.76	.65217	-1.33	
		.73684	0.183	.71429	0.449	.7625	0.186	
	Matched	.64	-0.11	.66667	-0.06	.6129	-0.05	
		.65094	0.911	.67222	0.956	.6187	0.963	
Source: Own calculations								

Source: Own calculations.

Matching estimates are presented in Table 4. Again, the results are presented for both full and limited samples. In case of all specifications we find that farms that quitted milk sales generated lower agricultural revenues per capita than farms that maintained commercial milk production. Provided that in 2001 no systematic difference could have been observed between agricultural revenues per capita between farms that decided to quit and those supplying

traditional marketing channel (see Section 4), the results for *limited sample A* might be indicative of the former group shifting towards semi-subsistence farming.

Table 4. Matching estimates of the differences in revenues between farms that quitted milk sales and farms that maintained commercial milk production (all estimates concerning the year 2006).

Variable	Sample	Treated	Controls	Difference	S.E.	T-stat				
Full sample, no. of obs. = 374										
Annual agricultural revenue per capita	Unmatched	13051.69	29088.96	-16037.26	4187.25	-3.83***				
	ATT	13217.08	22537.47	-9320.384	3767.94	-2.47***				
Total annual farm revenues	Unmatched	16778.35	30536.22	-13757.87	4406.77	-3.12***				
	ATT	16874.81	23864.25	-6989.44	4066.42	-1.72*				
Limited sample A, no. of obs. = 151										
Annual agricultural revenue per capita	Unmatched	12903.58	17385.25	-4481.67	3160.57	-1.42				
	ATT	12529.66	19551.79	-7022.12	3532.93	-1.99**				
Total annual farm revenues	Unmatched	16862.43	19104.74	-2242.31	3342.41	-0.67				
	ATT	16576.49	21168.01	-4591.52	3838.64	-1.20				
Limited sample B, no. of obs. = 126										
Annual agricultural revenue per capita	Unmatched	12903.58	32318.31	-19414.73	4247.62	-4.57***				
	ATT	11351.82	27109.12	-15757.30	5847.21	-2.69***				
Total annual farm revenues	Unmatched	16862.43	34229.71	-17367.27	4969.86	-3.49***				
	ATT	14282.45	28466.55	-14184.10	7005.52	-2.02**				

Source: Own calculations. \*\*\* p<0.01, \*\* p<0.05, \* p<0.1

As far as total farm revenues per capita are concerned on the other hand, the picture is bit more complicated. When comparing farms that quitted milk sales with all farms that remained in dairy business (*full sample*) the former group comes out poorly. However, when compared only to group of farms supplying traditional marketing channel, total revenues of farms that quitted milk sales do not lag behind (*limited sample A*). This tends to point that farms that quitted milk sales succeeded in finding non-agricultural income sources so that their total revenues per capita are comparable with farms delivering their milk to collection points.

Further, total revenues of farms that quitted milk sales do systematically differ from total revenues of farms that joined the modern channel at some point after 2001 (*limited sample B*). This shows that maintaining the dairy business could be profitable provided a shift is made to the direct milk collection from the farm. As such, the obtained results are consistent with an earlier evidence on the Polish dairy market pointing to positive influence of supply chain modernisation on farm revenues (Milczarek-Andrzejewska *et al.*, 2007).

Overall then, based on figures presented in Table 4, we conclude that decision to quit milk sales could be regarded as optimal for farms not willing to modernise in the future. Whether this decision was a voluntary one remains an open question.

Finally, it is also important to note that the obtained results indicate that standard parametric methods might overestimate the difference in revenues between the two groups when heterogenous farms are considered (full sample, limited sample B) and slightly underestimate it when more homogenous farms are considered (limited sample A). Furthermore, the obtained results also indicate that focusing on group of farms that maintained dairy business

as a whole masks important sources of variation that could be attributable to supply chain modernisation.

#### **6 CONCLUSIONS**

In response to rapid and profound changes taking place in the Polish dairy sector manifesting themselves in a significant outflow of people and supply chain modernisation, this paper aimed at having a closer look at factors determining farmer's decision to quit milk sales. Moreover, taking into account supply chain characteristics, it attempted to check whether this decision could be regarded as an optimal one. In order to do so, semi-parametric methods were employed to compare revenues of farms that quitted milk sales with revenues of farms that maintained commercial milk production.

The obtained results showed that decision to quit milk sales is predominantly dependent on herd size, access to production-specific assets, age and labour endowments. The former two results could be indicative of small-farms' marginalisation, however further research is needed to better understand this phenomenon. No significant impact of farmers' market choice has been found.

We also find that farms that quitted milk sales compare unfavourably with farms that participate in dairy market in terms of agricultural revenue per capita. As regards total farm revenues, the picture is more complex. Farms from the modern marketing channel have significantly higher revenues, whereas farms from the traditional marketing channel have similar revenues. These results show that quitting milk sales could be regarded as optimal for farms not willing to modernise. For those who wanted to do so but failed (irrespective of true reasons for that) this decision resulted in worse financial situation.

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