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**SOCIO-ECONOMIC ISSUES IN PESTICIDE USE:
AN ANALYSIS IN BITTERGOURD**

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THESIS

Submitted in partial fulfilment of the
requirements for the degree of



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Kerala Agricultural University, Thrissur**

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2006**

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I hereby declare that the thesis entitled **Socio economic issues in pesticide use An analysis in bittergourd** is a bonafide record of research work done by me during the course of research and the thesis has not previously formed the basis for the award to me of any degree diploma associateship fellowship or other similar title of any other University or Society

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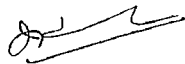
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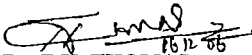
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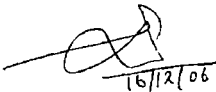
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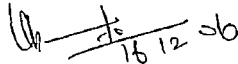
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Dedicated to
my
beloved parents

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Introduction

1 INTRODUCTION

The scenario of Indian agriculture has undergone a vast change in the post independent era. The green revolution technology increased the food grain production many fold to meet the needs of the increasing population. The green revolution technology which included the introduction of high yielding varieties, chemical fertilizers, usage of plant protection measures together with intensive cultivation practices helped to reach the zenith of production in food crops.

The adoption of high yielding varieties and intensive methods of cultivation not only resulted in greater strides in Indian agricultural production but also resulted in increased pest damage. This called for an increased usage of plant protection chemicals to subside the pest attack. Pesticides together with fertilizers and high yielding varieties have helped Indian farmers to achieve significant increase in crop productivity since mid 1960s. The yield of the two most important pesticide using crops, cotton and rice increased by a factor of 1.8 and 1.9 respectively between 1960-61 and 1998-99.

The celebration of the wonders of the agro-chemical technology soon gave way however to a growing chorus of concern by scientists and public interest groups. The most dramatic statement of these concerns was made by Rachel Carson (1964) in her classic work, *Silent Spring*. She first alerted the public to the dangers of such poison in her work. While pesticides were indeed boosting yields and bringing various pests under control, she warned that they were also accumulating in the environment and threatening the very existence of various forms of wild life and humans as well. Carson's critique played a crucial role in inspiring government regulation. The book catalogued many hazards like ground and surface water contamination, damage to soil microorganisms, massive bird and fish kills, negative effect on plant biodiversity, contamination of foods, human health impacts including cancer, damage to nervous system, resistance in pests, environmental persistence and bioaccumulation of residues.

Pesticide is an essential ally in the farmers' struggle to protect their crops. In spite of pesticide use, loss throughout the production system remains high in India. On an average, 33 per cent of crop loss occurs due to pests and diseases (Puri *et al.* 1999) which runs to an estimated loss of Rs 200 billion (Singh 1999). Recent estimates show that the pesticide consumption in India during 2004-05 was 46530 MT. There are 180 pesticides approved for use on various crops in India. Twelve pesticides have been permitted for restricted use and 25 pesticides have been banned in India. (Zachariah and Devasahayam 2005)

Pesticides are used in about 25 per cent of total cultivated area in India where insecticide accounts for 73 per cent, herbicide 14 per cent, fungicide 11 per cent and others two per cent. In normal season, pesticides account for about 42.50 per cent, 25.1 per cent and 38 per cent of cost of cultivation of cotton, paddy and cole crops respectively. The amount spent on pesticides varies depending upon severity of crop pests and weather conditions in a particular season (Shetty 2004). Consumption has not been uniform in the country and it varies with the intensity of pests and diseases, cropping pattern and agro-ecological regions. Pesticide use is high in the regions with good irrigation facilities and where commercial crops are grown. For instance, cotton and paddy are grown in 5 per cent and 24 per cent of cropped area and receive about 45 per cent and 20 per cent of total pesticides respectively.

The pesticide consumption in our country is very low (0.38 kg per hectare) when compared with other countries like Japan (12 kg per hectare) and Taiwan (17 kg per hectare). Karnataka, Andhra Pradesh, Maharashtra and Punjab account for 38.14 per cent of total amount of pesticide used in the country (Agnihotri 2000). Even though the pesticide consumption in Kerala is low compared to these states, the negative effects caused by these hazardous chemicals cannot be neglected. Increasing concern for environmental degradation, worker safety and public health have spawned intense political and social debates over pesticide use.

Hence in this era, studies related to the issues on pesticide and chemical use are gaining importance

Excessive and indiscriminate use of pesticides not only increases the cost of production but also results in many human health problems and environmental pollution. According to WHO estimates, one million cases of pesticide poisoning occur every year and consequently there are 20000 deaths globally (Nasir 1999). The most damaging ecological disturbance of injurious use of pesticides is the existence of high concentration of pesticide residues in food chain including cereals, pulses, vegetables and fruits. In addition, they contaminate the atmosphere and water.

India is the second largest producer of vegetables in the world, next only to China. In 2004, India produced 84.8 million tonnes of vegetables from 5.9 million hectares of land. India shares about 13 per cent of the world output of vegetables from about 2.8 per cent of the cropped area in the country. Fruits and vegetable crops receive considerably high quantity of pesticides and with a cropped area of 3 per cent, they consume 13 per cent of total pesticides in the country (Nigam and Murthy 2000).

In Kerala, vegetable cultivation is taken up on a commercial basis and the common vegetables cultivated are bitter melon, snake melon, ivy melon, amaranthus, tomato, chillies and cucumber. Bitter melon is an important vegetable crop cultivated in the State, mainly because of its excellent nutritional values. It is antidotal, antipyretic, tonic, appetizing, antibilious and laxative. In ayurvedic medicine, bitter melon is popularly known as a plant insulin. Bitter melon is cultivated in the state on a commercial basis in an area of 2162 hectares. Palakkad and Thrissur districts contribute 11.65 per cent and 12.16 per cent respectively to the total area. The usage of pesticides in the crop is found to be more when compared to other vegetables, as the pest attack is severe in the crop.

The pesticide consumption in the state is considerably high with a consumption of 360 M T during the year 2004 05. It has been identified that high levels of pesticide residues well above the maximum residue limit has been found in the vegetable samples tested in Kerala. It is reported that vegetables such as bittergourd, cowpea and okra especially had high levels of pesticide residues. Indiscriminate use of pesticides has been reported from Idukki district where the consumption exceeded the state average of 343 grams per hectare. Palakkad district too has shown a higher than average use of pesticide (Mathew 2005). Hence the issues related to the use of pesticides are also found to be highly relevant.

In this background, the present study on the Socio economic issues in pesticide use. An analysis in bittergourd was taken up with the following objectives:

- 1) To estimate the cost and returns in bitter gourd cultivation
- 2) To analyze the pattern of pesticide use
- 3) To examine the socio economic issues in pesticide use in bitter gourd

Scope of the study

Bittergourd is an important vegetable crop cultivated in the state. The medicinal properties inherent in the vegetable still add essence to its importance. But the indiscriminate use of pesticides on this crop has posed serious issues that mainly include the pesticide residue problem. The health and the environmental concerns of the people with regard to the pesticide related issues are gaining importance day by day. In this context, the present study will help to throw light on the issues associated with the indiscriminate use of pesticides and framing suitable regulatory policies to tackle the menace of overuse of pesticides. The study on consumers' Willingness To Pay Premium (WTPP) for pesticide residue

free bittergourd will prove helpful in understanding the scope of organic production of bittergourd and evolving suitable strategies for its marketing

Limitations of the Study

The results of the study are based on farm level data, which were collected from farmers through personal interview method. Since the farmers do not maintain records for the cultivation practices responses were drawn from their memory which may be subject to recall bias. However every effort was made to minimize the error by cross verification and cross checking.

Plan of the thesis

The thesis consists of five chapters including the present one. A review of the relevant literature is given in chapter two. A brief description of the area of study and methodology are given in chapter three. The results and discussion are presented in chapter four and the summary of the major findings of the study is given in the final chapter.

Review of Literature

2 REVIEW OF LITERATURE

A comprehensive review of the past studies is useful to formulate concepts methodologies and tools of analysis to be used for any research In this chapter an attempt has been made to review important past studies relevant to the present study As the study attempts to examine the costs and returns technical efficiency pesticide use of bittergourd as well as the consumer awareness regarding pesticide use studies relating to these aspects are given in four sections namely

- 2.1 Costs and returns
- 2.2 Technical efficiency
- 2.3 Pesticide use and related problems
- 2.4 Consumer awareness with regard to pesticide use issues

2.1 Costs and returns

The cost and returns in the cultivation of four vegetables viz pointed gourd lady's finger bittergourd and chilli in Olpad taluk of Surat district of Gujarat was worked out by Madalia and Kukadia (1978) based on the data collected from eighty farmers using personal interview method It was found that the average cost of production of pointed gourd was Rs 5974.96 per hectare which was the highest while that for bhindi was Rs 3230.50 per hectare which was the lowest among the four vegetables under study Human labour was found to be the most important item of expenditure followed by plant protection chemicals.

Subrahmaniyam and Doss (1981) estimated the cost of cultivation of vegetables in Mallur and Chickballapur taluks of Kolar district of Karnataka The results revealed that gross returns from tomato was Rs 21722.12 while the gross returns from brinjal was Rs 13990.29 Input output ratios of tomato and

brinjal were 3.92 and 3.16 respectively. It was found that manures and manuring accounted for nearly 70.75 per cent of total cost.

Nahatkar and Pant (1984) conducted a study on farm profitability and resource productivity in cultivation of chillies in Chindwara district of Madhya Pradesh and found that out of the total operational costs, cost of fertilizers and manures was the highest on small farms, whereas the cost of hired labour was higher on medium and large farms as compared to small farms.

Gupta (1987) reported that vegetables accounted for more than 70 percentage of the total income of the farmers in Solan in Himachal Pradesh. It was found that income on large farms was 3.5 and 1.7 times higher than that of small and medium size farms respectively. As much as 48 per cent of the total expenditure went to hired labour alone. Cost of production per unit area was lower on large sized farms, making them economically more efficient.

Sandhya (1992) in her study on the economics of production and marketing of vegetables in Ollukkara block in Thrissur district found that cost incurred in producing one quintal of bittergourd was higher than that of ash gourd. Net income derived from bittergourd cultivation was 44 per cent more than that from ash gourd. Both in the case of bittergourd and ash gourd, the contribution of two inputs, namely manures and fertilizers and land, towards net income were found to be significant and positive, explaining thereby the possibility of further increase in total income by the use of these inputs. Labour was the largest item of input for both the crops (bittergourd and ash gourd) under study.

Sharma *et al* (1992) in a study on economics of vegetable farming in mid hills of Himachal Pradesh found that lady's finger and chillies in kharif and cauliflower, cabbage and potato in rabi were the most paying vegetable crops. However, cauliflower, cabbage and peas in rabi and bottle gourd, brinjal and bittergourd in kharif were the most remunerative vegetable crops. The input

output analysis suggested that farmers could increase total income by enhancing the use of labour. The study also brought out that there was increasing returns to scale in cauliflower, potato and brinjal, thereby suggesting that more returns could be obtained if the use of the inputs like human labour, bullock labour and working capital were enhanced.

Brahmarah and Naidu (1993) reported that labour was one of the major constituents of total cost incurred in the production of chillies in Guntur district of Andhra Pradesh. Cost component for large and small farms indicated that manures and fertilizers took the largest share in total expenditure followed by other inputs like rent on land, plant protection, human labour and bullock labour.

An economic analysis of production of vegetables in Himachal Pradesh conducted by Thakur *et al* (1994) showed that vegetable production was highly cost intensive but at the same time highly remunerative. Among the total variable costs for five vegetables viz. tomato, capsicum, cauliflower, cabbage and peas, human labour occupied the lion's share.

Prasad and Bonney (1996) conducted a study in Pananchery and Puthur Panchayats of Trichur district in Kerala to delineate the constraints in adoption of improved agricultural practices by commercial vegetable growers. The most important constraint was the increased cost of plant protection chemicals (98 per cent) followed by inadequate market facilities (88 per cent) and poor storage and other post harvest facilities (74 per cent). The other constraints in the order of importance were inadequacy of capital, high labour charges and water scarcity.

A study conducted in Durg district of Madhya Pradesh by Gupta and Verma (1997) to analyse the production and marketing of ivy gourd revealed that the material used to prepare the panthall and land rent were the most expensive cost items. Manuring and fertilizer application, plant protection and harvesting were found to be very important variable cost components.

Ramachandran (1997) in the study on the economics of production and marketing of vegetables in Chittur taluk of Palghat district found that the net income from tomato was higher (Rs 22686/ha) than from okra (Rs 15434/ha). The expenses on human labour were the single largest item of expenditure followed by the rental value of own land. The study showed that the major constraint in vegetable cultivation in Chittur taluk was the ever increasing cost of production without a corresponding increase in the returns accruing to the cultivators.

A study on the input wise cost of cultivation of potato, garlic, carrot and cabbage in Devikulam block of Idukki district showed that human labour cost was the single largest item of input, almost occupying one half of the total cost, while operation wise cost of cultivation of the above crops showed that seeds and sowing was the single largest item which occupied the major share of the total cost. Stochastic frontier production function estimates revealed that 71 per cent of the deviation in the yield of potato was due to the differences in the technical efficiency among farms (Karthikeyan, 2001).

Nagesh (2001) in his study on production and marketing of vegetables in Trivandrum district in Kerala found that cost of panthalling and staking occupied a significant share of total input costs in the case of bittergourd and snake gourd. Among the three crops, snake gourd, bittergourd and amaranthes, snake gourd was the most labour intensive crop. In terms of profit, bittergourd was the most remunerative in the study area. He opined that less costly and more durable materials for panthalling and staking could bring down the total cost of production.

The study conducted by Agro Economic Research Centre, University of Delhi (2004) revealed that the economics of vegetable cultivation is favourable or more attractive than of any other crop, whether looked from the point of per acre income or from the point of returns per rupee of investment. Vegetable cultivation absorbs substantial amount of labour. Almost one third of the costs incurred on labour charges.

A study on the production and marketing of vegetables in Palakkad district was conducted by Sreela (2005) to analyze the economics of vegetables viz bittergourd snake gourd and ivy gourd and to assess the technical efficiency marketing efficiency and constraints faced by the vegetable growers She found that the total expenditure at Cost C₃ at aggregate level was Rs 105717 Rs 103277 Rs 137498 and Rs 98711 for bittergourd snake gourd ivy gourd main crop and ivy gourd ratoon crop respectively The study revealed that the most important constraint faced by the vegetable growers in the study area was the incidence of pests and diseases It was followed by the problems of high input cost inadequacy of capital non availability of labor and low price of the produce

Thomas *et al* (2006) in an analysis of the economics of vegetable production and marketing in Kerala in the southern northern and central zones of the state reported that the total cost in cultivation of bittergourd in Palakkad district was found to be Rs 115229 for VFPCK farmers The major item of expenditure was found to be the expenses on hired labour which contributed 21 per cent of the total cost The next highest item of expenditure was the expenditure incurred on manure (10.03 per cent) followed by panthalling material (9.94 per cent) The gross return was found to be Rs 112000

2.2 Technical efficiency

The concept of technical efficiency was elaborated by Farrel (1957) It involved the farmer's ability to obtain the maximum output from a given set of resources Clearly a farm which used the best practice methods with a similar bundle of inputs and technology was likely to be superior to another farm or section that did not do the same Farrel also observed that the input per unit of output values for such farms would lie on or above the unit isoquants He divided technical efficiency and allocative efficiency as the components which contributed to economic efficiency

Broek *et al* (1980) in their study to compare the result with various techniques for estimating deterministic frontiers op ned that the cho ce bet een deterministic and stochastic frontiers must be made on the basis of information about the quality of data, or how the data are generated and above all the purpose of study The frontier was called deterministic if all observations lie on or below the frontier and stochastic if observations lie above the frontier due to random events

The allocative efficiency and supply response of farmers growing a modern variety of rice (IR 20) and local varieties in the irrigated areas of Coimbatore district of Tamil Nadu, were examined by Kalirajan and Flinn (1981) by fitting a profit function and the associated factor demand schedules to the data The anal sis suggested that both groups of producers showed similar levels of technical efficiency The growers of local varieties appeared to be allocatively efficient given the variable factors of production included in the analysis The producers of the modern variety were not efficient with respect to pest management labour fertilizer and animal power

A stochastic profit frontier function of modified translog type was fitted for Basmati rice farmers in Pakistan s Punjab by Ali and Flinn (1989) After estimating the technical inefficiency of individual farmers the losses in profit due to technical inefficiency were obtained and regressed on various farms and farm specific variables Factors that were significant in describing the variability in profit losses were level of education off farm employment unavailability of credit and various constraints associated with irrigation and fertilizer application

Ureta and Rieger (1990) described that the stochastic product on front er possesses a distmct feature and the disturbance term was composed of two parts a symmetric and a one sided component The symmetric component described the random effect outside the control of the decision maker including the statistical noise contained in empirical relationship The one sided component captured

deviations from the frontier due to inefficiency. The main advantage of the stochastic frontier production model was the introduction of the disturbance term representing the statistical noise comprising of measurement error and exogenous shocks beyond the control of the production unit in addition to the efficiency component. In this way technical efficiency measures obtained from stochastic frontier were expected to be efficient than those from deterministic models.

Dawson *et al* (1991) calculated single measures of farm specific technical efficiency for rice farms in Central Luzon, Philippines from the residuals of a stochastic frontier production function. Panel data from International Rice Research Institute's periodic loop survey were used. They opined that the responsibility of technical inefficiency rests mainly with management.

An economic analysis of technical efficiency in rice cultivation in Mandya was measured in terms of physical maximum attainable by each farmer based on Timmer measure of technical efficiency. The results revealed that the farmers achieved relatively higher levels of physical efficiency in growing rice. The average for the large farmers was 97.60 per cent and for small farmers it was almost same at 97.54 per cent. This high level of output efficiency implies that most farmers in the region are familiar with the production techniques and employed it to the best possible advantage. Further a perusal of actual and frontier usage of inputs in the production of rice indicated that all the factors under consideration were used at levels higher than the frontier level by both the large and small farmers. The quantum of excess use of inputs in the production of rice was 15 per cent in the case of large farmers while among small farmers it was 30 per cent. In other words, the existing level of productivity on an average could be achieved by reducing the input use by 30 per cent in the case of small farmers and by 15 per cent by large farmers (Jayaram *et al* 1992).

Kutaula (1993) studied the application of frontier technology to wheat crop grown on reclaimed soils in Haryana. The estimated mean technical

efficiency was found to be 0.7636. This implies that the actual output of wheat on an average is less by 23.64 per cent. He concluded that the farmers were able to increase the present level of mean technical efficiency with the existing levels of inputs without any additional cost. Suitable extension facilities supplemented would be helpful to increase the level of output in wheat farms.

The technical efficiency of irrigated farms in a village of Bangladesh was studied using the stochastic production frontier. The results exhibited a wide variation in the levels of technical efficiencies across farms. Out of 99 farms, 88 had technical efficiency of 71 per cent or more. Thirteen farms showed technical efficiency in the range of 91 per cent to 100 per cent. The average technical efficiency for the entire sample of farms was 78 per cent, indicating that there was considerable scope for increasing the technical efficiency of the sample farms as a group. A very interesting finding was that 10 out of 13 most efficient farms belonged to the category of small farms. The least efficient farm (being also a small and owner farm) relied heavily on hired labour as the head of the farm was employed in some non-farm activities (Banick, 1994).

The panel data on the production of wheat in four districts of Pakistan was analyzed using stochastic production function. The technical efficiency effects of the sample wheat farmers were significant in all four districts, and the technical efficiencies of the sample farmers were less than one. The mean technical efficiencies for wheat farmers of Faisalabad, Attock, Badin, and Dir were estimated to be 0.789, 0.584, 0.570, and 0.775, respectively. Their work indicated that technical efficiency effects associated with the production of wheat in Faisalabad were significantly related to the age and schooling of farmers, and they had decreased over time. This analysis also indicated the potential usefulness of the modeling of technical inefficiency effects on stochastic frontiers, and also highlighted the desirability of obtaining data on an extensive range of variables explaining technical inefficiency effects, in addition to the appropriate input-output data for production function analysis (Battese and Coelli, 1995).

A study on the economic efficiency of rice production in Kerala was conducted by Thomas and Sundaresan (1998). The study analysed the region wise and season wise economic efficiency by using frontier profit function model. The results revealed the significance of labour and land in all the seasons of the two regions indicating the influence of these variables in determining the profit of the farmer. The individual farm efficiency showed wide variation in both the regions. The study concluded that there was ample scope for increasing the profit of the farmers by the proper adoption of technology and optimum allocation of resources.

The technical efficiency in the production of Bangalore blue grapes was estimated by Poornima (1999). It indicated that only 20 per cent of the Bangalore blue grape growers were operating at more than 75 per cent efficiency. 64 per cent of the farmers were operating in the efficiency range of 50 to 75 per cent and about 16 per cent of farmers were operating below 50 per cent of efficiency. The mean efficiency was estimated to be 63 per cent. The inefficiency was interpreted in terms of over utilisation of resources especially agrochemicals.

Technical efficiency of rice growers in Tamil Nadu was estimated using stochastic frontier production function by Mythiah and Srinivasan (2000). The technical efficiencies varied widely ranging from 46.5 per cent to 96.7 per cent across sample farms. The estimated mean technical efficiency was found to be 82 per cent indicating that on an average the sample farms in Tamil Nadu had realised only 82 per cent of their technical abilities. It means that approximately 18 per cent of the technical potentials were not realised and hence the realized output could be increased by 18 per cent without any additional resources.

Karthikeyan (2001) in his study on production and marketing of cool season vegetables viz. potato, garlic, carrot and cabbage in Devikulam block of Idukki district fitted a stochastic frontier production function. The results revealed that 71 per cent of the deviation in the yield of potato was due to the differences in

the technical efficiency among farms. Mean technical efficiency was 0.78, 0.80, 0.71 and 0.63 respectively for potato, garlic, carrot and cabbage. The frequency distribution of farm specific technical efficiencies showed that 22 per cent of farms were operating at a technical efficiency of more than 90 per cent in the case of potato.

An economic analysis of production and marketing of vegetables in Trivandrum district was conducted by Nagesh (2001). He used the frontier production function to analyze the technical efficiency of Vegetable and Fruit Promotion Council Kerala (VFPCCK) and Intensive Vegetable Development Programme (IVDP) vegetable growers. The bittergourd growers under VFPCCK showed an estimated mean technical efficiency of 80 per cent and for IVDP growers it was 71 per cent.

In an analysis of paddy productivity growth in West Bengal and Orissa, Pillai (2001) estimated the stochastic frontier production function using the farm level data by the method of maximum likelihood. The estimates of average technical efficiency across local and HYVs in West Bengal in 1986-87 were not very different. In Orissa, the estimates of average technical efficiencies for local and HYV paddy in kharif season were found to be 76 per cent and 78 per cent respectively. Around 44-53 per cent of the farmers were found to be more than 80 per cent technically efficient.

The technical efficiency in rice production in Kuttanad area of Alappuzha district was estimated using the stochastic frontier production function of the Cobb-Douglas type based on Maximum Likelihood Estimate by Job and George (2002). The empirical analysis showed that even in an advanced agricultural region there was need to improve technical efficiencies of majority of farmers. The technical efficiency varied widely between 58 per cent and 99 per cent. Various socio-economic, biophysical and technological factors are responsible for the differences in efficiencies. The study showed that with proper allocation of the existing technology there was ample scope for improving the productivity of rice.

A stochastic frontier production function was estimated to determine the technical inefficiency of individual farms in wheat production in the Sone canal command area of Bihar by Reddy and Sen (2004). It was found that the farms in the area were producing wheat with average technical inefficiency of 18.71 per cent, the maximum being 53.46 per cent and minimum 4.41 per cent. It was found that factors like farm size, farmer's education, extension contacts, and experience in production and the percentage of good farm land influenced the technical inefficiency negatively, while fragmentations of farm land and age of farmer influenced it positively.

Technical efficiency in the Maize production in Madhya Pradesh was estimated by Anupama *et al* (2005) and found that on an average the sample farms operated 23 percent below the frontier output levels. It was found that even though a majority of the farmers cultivated improved maize cultivars, the overall technology adoption was poor. Hence, the maize output could be increased by 23 per cent by adopting proper technology by farmers. The economic efficiency of the maize growers in the state could be improved by increasing the adoption level of improved package of practices.

Sreela (2005) estimated the technical efficiency of bittergourd farmers in Palakkad district. The study revealed that when land was included as variable, 83.88 per cent of the variation between the actual output and the maximum possible output was due to the technical inefficiency at the farmer's level. The Mean technical efficiency (MTE) was found to be 0.85. Thus, the farmers were 15 per cent less efficient in utilizing the inputs and hence they had the potential to increase the yield. When mounds were added as a variable, 95 per cent of the variation between the actual output and the maximum possible output was due to technical inefficiency. It revealed that the farmers were not using best practice technique and various factors other than technical inefficiency had a significant effect on yield.

The technical efficiency in agricultural production and its determinants were analysed by Shanmugam and Venkataraman (2006) Using stochastic frontier production approach they found that Indian districts have a mean technical efficiency of 79 per cent which indicated that on an average agricultural output can be increased by about 21 per cent with existing resources In nearly half of the sample districts (123 out of 248) technical efficiency value was below 80 per cent The study showed that the relative importance of the determinants of technical efficiency across districts depended greatly on environmental factors such as agro climatic zones technological factors (such as irrigation regime) and crop mix

2.3 Pesticide use and related issues

In a study conducted to identify and estimate externalities in pesticide use Langham and Edwards (1969) found that externalities could not be studied meaningfully independently of the system which generated them They defined three participants consumers producers and others The measures chosen to determine the effect of various policies on participants were consumer surplus producer surplus

Bindra and Karla (1971) estimated insecticidal residues in vegetables of different markets of Delhi Hyderabad and Punjab The analysis indicated that 75 per cent of the samples were contaminated and 50 per cent contained residues higher than the tolerance limits Among the 30 okra samples three samples one in each with Fenvelarate Endosulfan and Cypermethrin exceeded the MRL and four out of ten cauliflower samples exceeded the MRL with Cypermethrin Fenvelarate and Monocrotophos

Ghodake *et al* (1973) suggested that the problem of uncertainty and externalities in costs and benefits make economic analysis of pesticide use highly complex The analysis of the effect of environmental factors emphasized that the

recommendations regarding pesticide usage must take into account this factor also

Home (1973) op.ned that there are positive and negative external effects in using insecticides. When society considers restricting the use of insecticides legislatively, society is really saying that the social costs (health and environmental hazards) of using insecticides have exceeded the social benefits (quantity and quality of food and fiber). He indicated that when certain insecticides are restricted, farmers still receive net returns higher than that for most of other crops.

Mahalle and Jha (1977) compared the returns obtained from using recommended dosages of pesticides with those under optimal strategies and it was found that the latter yielded better returns. They fitted a quadratic production function to establish pesticide output relationship using experimental data. The results reflected that response to pesticide was determined by the level of infestation. These also implied a significant saving in the quantity of pesticides used, which is quite important from the point of view of externalities.

Huh (1979) classified the effects of pesticide use as beneficial and adverse. The benefits identified by him were increased yield, input savings and overall rise in productivity and quality of product. Consumer surplus was employed to measure the adverse effects. The study indicated that from societal point of view, any action in relation to use of pesticides should be taken after a thorough examination of the full effects of pesticides since the existence of external economy entails an equilibrium output that is below optimal.

An analysis of pesticide use decisions in agriculture was taken up by Ghodake and Jha (1981) using data from insecticidal trials on rice crop conducted by the All India Coordinated Rice Improvement Project at Coimbatore (Tamil Nadu), Maruteru (Andhra Pradesh) and Cuttack (Orissa) research stations. The

results indicated that if the expected infestation levels were known farmers would be maximizing their net returns by choosing an appropriate pesticide and also the level of its use. Rarely did the same chemical or pesticide level prove to be optimal under all infestation situations. When pesticide use was examined in the context of uncertainty unique pesticide levels were naturally indicated as optimal strategies.

A study conducted in Guntur and Kurnool districts of Andhra Pradesh to discriminate the factors in pesticide use revealed that education, fertilizer expenditure, caste and area under high yielding varieties emerged as the major factors influencing the pesticide use among the farmers. In case of small farmers those who grow high yielding varieties and use fertilizer inclined to use more pesticides. Fertilizer application has been the main factor in discriminating pesticide user from non user in large farms (Rao and Singh, 1986).

Pandurangadu and Raju (1990) in their study analysed the economics of pesticide use on cotton farms in Guntur districts of Andhra Pradesh and concluded that the alarming rise in the cost of cultivation of cotton was largely attributed to the increased use of quite expensive and broad spectrum chemicals like synthetic pyrethroids. They suggested that not only as an economy measure but also to avoid side effects of excessive use of pesticide farmers should adopt Integrated Pest Management practices. The use of adulterated pesticides was also found to be a reason for the ineffectiveness of some of the chemicals.

Wynen and Edwards (1990) reported that the private net returns were similar for both conventional and chemical free farming. The study indicated that a favorable change in net externality could be expected from a movement towards chemical free farming. Major positive externalities of chemical free farming were improved soil quality, reduced soil erosion, improved water quality, improved human health, reduced susceptibility to harsh seasons and reduced risk of pest

adaptation to farm management techniques increased personal satisfaction and so on

Arunkumara (1995) analysed the externalities in pesticide use in Cole crops based on producer survey and consumer survey and by fitting gross income function and expenditure function. He found that biopesticides and organophosphates were the major groups of insecticides used by the sample farmers in the study area. Pesticides formed 27 per cent of the total cost of cultivation. Gross income function analysis indicated that pesticides contributed significantly to the gross income at 5 per cent level. The study indicated that the resistance externality was the major externality generated due to pesticides.

Chand and Birlhal (1997) studied the pesticide use in Indian agriculture in relation to growth in area and production and technological change and concluded that pesticide use is positively and significantly influenced by irrigation coverage, percentage of rice area irrigated, share of cotton in the gross cropped area and percentage of area under HYVs of cereals. The regional variation in pesticide use is on account of differences in cropping pattern and the level of agricultural development. Most of the high pesticide using states have better irrigation coverage and well developed credit marketing and input delivery systems which promote the use of modern crop production technology including pesticides.

Kumar and Yadav (1998) analysed the insect pest population fluctuation on early season cauliflower crop under Haryana agro climatic conditions. They found out that spraying the cauliflower crop blindly throughout the growing period on calendar based interval would be wasteful of the pesticides. In addition that would unnecessarily increase the cost of production and contaminate the human diet and environment.

A study conducted in the Anthikkad block of the Kule lands of Kerala to estimate the technical efficiency in rice production and to assess the pesticide use

behaviour of farmers found that market orientation of kolan farming tends to increase the probability of applying more pesticides. The study concluded that the excess use of pesticides in the study area could also be reduced considerably by the input of technical knowledge and for that the role of extension was to be enlarged to equip the farmers with superior technical knowledge for enhancing environment friendly rice production in Kolan lands of Kerala (Rajasekharan and Krishnamoorthy 1998)

Poornima (1999) in a study in Bangalore rural district on the economics of agrochemicals found out that for resources such as manure fertilizers and plant protection chemicals the coefficients of regression were negative indicating that use of these inputs will reduce the yield of grapes. Also the Kopp measure of technical efficiency indicated that 20 per cent of the farmers over used agrochemicals to an extent of more than 75 per cent of that used by technically efficient farmer. Experience in the usage of agrochemicals, gross income, application of farm yard manure, potassium fertilizers, consultation with specialists and application of prophylactic dose were the factors which significantly influenced the percentage of over use of agrochemicals.

An economic analysis of externalities in the estuarine ecosystem of Kuttanad in Kerala revealed that profitability and pesticide costs had negative correlation. The expenditure on plant protection chemicals was lesser for IPM farmers (1.7 per cent) compared to non IPM farmers (4.7 per cent). Majority of farmers (60 per cent) experienced health hazards due to pesticide poisoning. IPM helped farmers to reduce the use of plant protection chemicals drastically and earn a better profit. Farmers used huge quantities of synthetic pesticides like organophosphates which caused both health hazards and faster resistance build up among pests, pest resurgence and reduction of natural enemy population (Rakhesh 1999).

A study was conducted in rainfed cotton to study the frequency intensity and determinants of pesticide use in Nanded district of Maharashtra and found that the average pesticide usage was 3.2 kg active ingredient per hectare of cotton area. The farmers' attitude towards insect pest risk was varied and accordingly the use of pesticides. Risk averse farmers used pesticides excessively and indiscriminately. About 50 per cent of farmers applied 7-10 insecticide sprays and about 48 per cent of the pesticide applied belonged to organophosphate category (Birlhal *et al.* 2000)

Ecobichon (2001) reported that developing nations in their efforts to eradicate insect borne endemic diseases to produce adequate food and to protect forests plantations and fiber relied more on chemical pesticides. Many older non-patented more toxic environmentally persistent and inexpensive chemicals were used extensively in developing nations creating serious acute health problems and local and global environmental contamination. He also reported that there was growing public concern that no one was aware of the extent of pesticide residue contamination on local fresh produce purchased daily and the potential long term adverse health effects on consumers.

In analyzing the export problems of Indian spices Menon (2002) came out with the finding that the presence of pesticide residues, mycotoxins and microbial contaminations are the major reasons for the detention of consignments of spice/spice products exported from India. They are detained due to the occurrence of residues of various pesticides such as Chlorpyrifos, Ethion, Quinalphos, Cypermethrin, Fenvelarate, Phosphamidon and Phosalone by the major importing countries such as USA, UK, Germany, Spain, Italy and Australia. Public awareness for some chemical contaminants on raw spices and its value added products has forced importing countries to be more strict on imported spices and spice products.

A study on awareness of environmental hazards caused by indiscriminate use of agro chemicals among cotton growers and agricultural assistants by Srinivas (2002) found that length of experience and attitude towards chemical fertilizers were negatively correlated with the awareness level of environmental hazards of agricultural assistants. The study implied that the farmers had low adoption of bio fertilizers and biological/natural pest control measures. Hence there is an imperative need to raise the level of adoption of these practices in order to reduce the quantum of chemical usage in agriculture.

Jeyanthi (2003) reported that overuse of plant protection chemicals in Chillies, Brinjal and Bhendi resulting in reduction of yield and increase in the cost of plant protection. The study revealed that awareness about toxicity color symbols in the pesticide package and minimum waiting period for harvest after pesticide application was very low with 10 and 19 percent respectively.

A field investigation was carried out by Shetty (2004) to obtain information on the use (and misuse) of pesticides in a few districts in Karnataka, Andhra Pradesh, Maharashtra and Punjab focusing on crops such as paddy, cotton and vegetables. The study revealed that pesticides accounted for a major share of the cost of cultivation. In normal seasons they accounted for about 42.50 percent, 25 percent and 38 percent of cost of cultivation in cotton, paddy and cole crops respectively. The respondents resorted to over application of pesticides and tried irrational combinations to overcome the problem of insect pests.

A study was conducted by Jeyanthi and Kombaraju (2005) to analyze the frequency, intensity and determinants of pesticide use in vegetable crops in Dindigul district of Tamil Nadu. They suggested that farmers need to be educated about different non-chemical control methods and should be encouraged to adopt integrated pest management (IPM) practices. The study examined the pest management practices in four important vegetable crops, viz. chillies, cauliflower, brinjal and bhendi using farm level cross-sectional data. Average pesticide usage

was 5.13, 2.77, 4.64, 3.71 kg active ingredient per hectare of chillies, cauliflower, brinjal and bhendi crops respectively.

A study on the pesticide use in rice production in Kerala showed that 40 per cent of the sprayings were made to protect the crop against the Brown Plant Hopper pest, 17 per cent against rice bug and 16 per cent to control the leaf folder. Mostly owners (87.77 per cent) bought the chemicals to be sprayed and entrusted these with the person engaged for spraying and the spraying operations were not properly supervised. Only 1.5 per cent of the applicators were reported to have undergone training on any plant protection methods. The toxicity level rating based on colour codes were understood by just 1.5 per cent. Majority of the respondents were aware of the potential health hazards due to exposure and need for personal protective gadgets. Despite this, none of them were using the recommended protective gadgets (Devi, 2006).

The impact of environmental degradation in Punjab was accounted for in a study conducted by Singh and Sidhu (2006). The study examined the use of certain resources and its impact on the cost of production. They found out that the monoculture of rice and wheat resulted in the resistance of some of the weeds, insect pests and diseases over time. The dose of herbicide application has also increased over the years. The costs on other pesticides have gone up and new types of herbicides and pesticides were introduced which put together raised the annual cost of production by Rs 99 per ha in paddy and Rs 69 per ha in wheat. The fall of water table, deficiency of micronutrients and resistance to herbs, pests and diseases together has increased the cost of production by Rs 263 per ha and Rs 698 per ha of wheat and rice respectively.

2.4 Consumer awareness with regard to pesticide use issues

A survey of 1416 California farm workers indicated significant under-reporting of pesticide injuries in official information sources. Institutions for

internalization of externalities were operating inefficiently due to an imprecise data problem. Seventy per cent of farm workers had never heard of workman's insurance and 20 per cent could not understand pesticide warning labels (Howitt and Moore 1975)

Greene and Zepp (1989) reported that a growing number of consumers have become concerned about the health effects of chemical residue on produce. In a nation wide survey in USA in 1988 nearly 18 percent of consumers polled were concerned enough to change their buying habits. They indicated that some super markets and food retailers were responding by adding organic sections to their produce departments and by providing information for the consumer on safe levels of pesticide residues.

Ott (1989) concluded that consumer interest in pesticide residue free fresh produce represents a direct marketing opportunity for small scale growers. Half of the surveyed shoppers expressed concern about pesticide use and are willing to pay more for pesticide residue free fresh produce. They were unwilling however to accept cosmetic or insect damage caused by the non use of pesticides.

Consumer surveys in USA revealed that Americans want improvement in the safety of foods they ate and were willing to pay more for it. Consumer surveys carried out by the food marketing institute in USA since 1983 indicated that a majority of consumers expressed a high degree of confidence in the foods they bought. More than 73 per cent consistently expressed apprehension over pesticide residues. A 1988 survey of consumers in Florida ranked residue as the most serious concern followed by presence of bacteria and additives (Smallwood 1989)

Harper and Zilberman (1992) opines that key problem in pesticide regulation is uncertainty about health risks. They examined the trade offs between

economic benefits and worker health safety using an empirical illustration and suggested that the most appropriate public policy is a safe minimum standard which allows weighing of costs and benefits only after some minimum acceptable level of health safety has been assured

In a study conducted to estimate the externalities in pesticide use in cabbage in Bangalore about 67 per cent of the consumers were aware of pesticide residues. The awareness of consumer regarding the pesticide residues in vegetable was highest in ECONET market (80 per cent) and least in Malleshwaram vegetable market (50 per cent). Majority of the consumers expressed their Willingness to Pay Premium (WTPP) for pesticide free cabbage. WTPP ranged between 0 and Rs 6/ per kg of pesticide free cabbage at the retail level. The average WTPP was Rs 1.60 per kg of pesticide free cabbage at the retail level (Arunkumara, 1995).

The consumers' willingness to pay for elimination of one insecticide (azinphos methyl) and also a whole group of neuroactive insecticides in apple production was analysed by Roosen et al (1998). The data was analysed using non-parametric statistical tests and a double hurdle model. The findings showed that consumer perceptions of the product attributes change if pesticides were removed from production and that reflected the WTP changes. WTP was found to be income elastic too.

Poornima (1999) found out that about 82 per cent of consumers in Bangalore city were aware of pesticide residues in grapes and 68 per cent of them were aware of pesticide residues in apples and 64 per cent in mangoes. The consumer awareness of pesticide residues on grapes was the highest in Indiranagar market (24 per cent) and HOPCOMS near Lalbagh (22 per cent). Majority of the consumers expressed their Willingness to Pay Premium (WTPP) for pesticide residue free grapes. On an average in all markets surveyed consumers were willing to pay Rs 11.72 per kg as price premium for pesticide

free grapes at retail level. The price premium formed 30 per cent above the retail price.

Willingness to pay (WTP) for reduction in health risk associated with consuming pesticide residues on vegetables was estimated using the contingent valuation method. Estimated median WTP for 25 per cent, 50 per cent and 90 per cent reduction in the risk for developing cancer from consuming pesticide residues on a popular Taiwanese vegetable, bok choy, were estimated as 46 per cent, 56 per cent and 75 per cent of the current price of bok choy respectively. WTP was found to be significantly related to the scope or magnitude of the risk reduction although it varied less than proportionately to the risk increment. WTP was also significantly related to measures of consumer preferences for health (TsuTan *et al.* 1999).

A study was conducted to analyse the willingness to pay (WTP) premium for pesticide-free fresh fruits and vegetables in Italy using an ordered logit analysis. The results indicated that WTP is significantly and positively related to income and risk concern and negatively related to education. It was found that 11 per cent of the respondents were willing to pay as much as 20 per cent above regular prices to avoid pesticide risk, indicating relevant market niche for these safe products (Boccaletti and Nardella 2000).

A study was conducted by Loureiro *et al.* (2002) to assess the mean willingness to pay (WTP) for eco-labeled apples using a double-bounded logit model. They found that farmers and other producers responded well to consumer concerns about pesticides by creating new marketing opportunities for products grown with environmentally sound practices. It was seen that female respondents with children and strong environmental and food safety concerns were more likely to pay a premium for eco-labeled apples. However, the estimated premium was small (about 5 cents per pound over an initial price of 99

cents) which reflected the overall difficulty in garnering a premium based on environmentally sound practices

The consumer's willingness to pay for pesticide free food products in Canada was analysed by Cranfield and Magnusson (2003). A contingent valuation survey using ordered probit analysis revealed that over 67 per cent of respondents were willing to pay a 1 to 10 per cent premium relative to a conventional food product. Five per cent were willing to pay more than a 20 per cent premium. The consumers were concerned about pesticides in agriculture and food. Socio demographic factors proved to be relatively unimportant as compared to concern over pesticide use in agriculture.

The factors that influence the consumer's purchasing decision and the evaluation of their willingness to pay (WTP) for environmentally friendly produced vegetables (EFPV) in Thailand were identified by Anunchai and Schmidt (2004). The double bounded contingent valuation method was used in surveying 1320 respondents. The results indicated that WTP was positively related to the frequency of purchasing EFPV. The respondents were willing to pay a price premium of almost 100 per cent compared to an average price increment of only 78 per cent observed in retail shop. It was suggested that there was a relatively high potential demand for EFPV in Thailand.

Magnusson and Cranfield (2005) described the Pesticide Free Production (PFP) as a new crop production strategy that has emerged in the Canadian prairies. A consumer survey was developed and implemented to assess what food products consumers would purchase if available in a PFP form and what factors affected the demand for PFP food products. Results from a probit model suggested strong consumer interest in food products containing grains and oilseeds produced in a PFP cropping system. The results showed that the respondents who were concerned with pesticides in the environment and/or food products expressed willingness to switch to grocery stores for a PFP food

product It was also found that respondents who were less than 36 years of age and had higher average household income were ready to pay a premium for a PFP food product.

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Materials and Methods

3 MATERIALS AND METHODS

Appropriate research design is prerequisite to draw meaningful inferences about any study. The present study on the socio economic issues of pesticide use in bittergourd aims to estimate the costs and returns in bittergourd cultivation on the different socio economic issues related to pesticide use and the consumer awareness regarding pesticide residues. In this chapter a brief description of the study area and the methodology used for the study are discussed in detail.

3.1 AREA OF STUDY

The study was undertaken in Palakkad and Thrissur districts where bittergourd cultivation is undertaken on a commercial basis.

3.1.1 Palakkad District

Palakkad district is called the Granary of Kerala and is situated in the Southwest coast of India.

3.1.1.1 Location

The district is bounded in the north by Malappuram district in the east by Coimbatore district of Tamilnadu in the south by Thrissur district and in the west by Thrissur and Malappuram districts. Palakkad district lies between north latitude $10^{\circ} 46'$ and $10^{\circ} 59'$ and east longitude $76^{\circ} 28'$ and $76^{\circ} 39'$. The total geographical area of the district is 4480 sq kms representing 11.53 per cent of the state's geographical area. For the purpose of administration the district is divided into two Revenue Divisions, Ottappalam and Palakkad and 5 Taluks viz Alathur, Chittur, Palakkad, Ottappalam and Mannarkkard. The district has thirteen blocks and ninety Panchayats. There are 163 villages in the district. Nemmara block panchayat comes under Chittur taluk.

The major rivers are Bharathapuzha (Nila) Kollengode Kannad Kalpathy Chitturpuzha, Bhavani Shrivani Thuthapuzha and Gayatri. The district has some key irrigation projects and dams at Malampuzha Walayar Mangalam, Gayatri Chittur Meenkara, Pothundi and Kanharapuzha. Malampuzha Dam irrigates over 20 000 hectares of farming land while Chittur Irrigation Project covers over 18 000 hectares and Kanharapuzha project waters over 10 000 hectares.

3.1.1.2 Geographical features

Based on the physical features the district is divided into two natural divisions midland and highland. The midland region consists of valleys and plains. It leads up to the highland which consists of high mountain peaks long spurs extensive ravines dense forests and tangled jungles. While Ottappalam taluk lies completely in the midland region, all other taluks in the district lie in the midland and highland regions.

The Western Ghats has an average altitude of 5000 feet except for two peaks of more than 6000 feet. The important peaks above an altitude of 4000ft are Anginda peak (7628 feet) Karimala peak (6506 feet) Nellikotta or Padagiri peak (5200ft) and Karemala Gopuram (4721 feet).

3.1.1.3 Demographic features

The district has a population of 2382243 persons according to the 2001 census which constitute 8.21 per cent of the population of the state. The density of the population is 532 per sq km. The sex ratio of the district is 1061 females for 1000 males. This is in consonance with the unique pattern of the state which is contrary to the all India figure of 929 females per 1000 males. The literacy rate of the district (81.27 per cent) is lower than the state average (89.81 per cent).

3 1 1 4 Climate and rainfall

The district has got two types of climates. Ottappalam, Alathur and Mannarkkad taluks are having a humid climate with a very hot season extending from March to June similar to that of other districts of Kerala whereas Palakkad and Chittur are having rather a dry climate similar to Tamil Nadu. Average annual rainfall of the district is 1831.3 mm. About 75 per cent of the annual rain is received during the southwest monsoon period. During the period December to May practically no rain is received. The temperature of the district ranges from 20°C to 45°C.

3 1 1 5 Soil

There are three types of soil: (1) laterite soil seen in Ottappalam, Alathur, Chittur and Palakkad taluks; (2) virgin forest soil of Mannarkkad taluk; and (3) black soil in Chittur and Attappady valley which is used for the cultivation of cotton.

3 1 1 6 Land utilisation pattern

The land utilization pattern of Palakkad district is given in Table 3.1. The total geographical area of Palakkad district is 438980 ha. The total cropped area accounts for about 72.27 per cent of the total area. The forest area accounts to about 136257 ha which comes to about 31 per cent of the total area. The net area sown in the district is about 46.54 per cent.

3 1 1 7 Cropping pattern

The major crops cultivated in the district are shown in Table 3.2. The major share in the total area is contributed by paddy which accounts to about 33.14 per cent to the total area. Coconut occupies an area of about 55655 hectare. Fruit crops occupy an area of 39527 hectare in which the major share is

contributed by banana, which occupies an area of about 10096 ha. Of the total area, vegetables occupy 5.95 percent. Bittergourd accounts for an area of about 252 ha in the district.

Table 3.1 Land utilization pattern of Palakkad district 2003-04
(Area in hectares)

Sl no	Item	Palakkad
1	Total geographical area	438980 (100)
2	Forest	136257 (31.04)
3	Land put to non agricultural use	53241 (12.13)
4	Barren and unculturable land	3297 (0.75)
5	Permanent pastures and other grazing land	10 (0.002)
6	Land under miscellaneous tree crops	1446 (0.33)
7	Culturable waste	19114 (4.35)
8	Fallow other than current fallow	10002 (2.28)
9	Current fallow	11321 (2.58)
10	Net area sown	204289 (46.54)
11	Area sown more than once	112945 (25.73)
12	Total cropped area	317234 (72.27)

* Figures in parenthesis show percentages to total

Source: Farm guide 2006

Table 3 2 Cropping pattern of Palakkad district 2003 04
(Area in hectares)

Crop	Palakkad
Paddy	105131 (33 14)
Coconut	55655 (17 54)
Fru ts	39527 (12 46)
Rubber	29612 (9 33)
Spices and condiments	23468 (7 40)
Vegetables	18902 (5 95)
Pepper	6079 (1 92)
Green manure crops	2625 (0 83)
Sugar cane	1592 (0 50)
Others	34643 (10 92)
Total	317234 (100)

* Figures in parenthesis show percentages to total

Source Farm guide 2006

Nemmara panchayat in Palakkad was selected for the study as it is the major vegetable growing tract in Palakkad district. A brief description of Nemmara panchayat is presented below.

3 1 1 8 Nemmara panchayat

The panchayat is on the south of the district covers an area of 36 84 sq kms. The block consists of hill ranges and hence the density of population is very low. There is vast area under vegetable cultivation especially vegetables.

like bittergourd snake gourd ivy gourd chillies etc There s scope for development of dairying and Nelliampathy range s said to be ideal for rearing exotic breed of mulch animals

The panchayat is bounded on the north by Pallessena and Melarcode on the south by Nelliampathy on the east by Elavanchery and on the west by Melarcode and Aliyur panchayats The total populat on of the panchayat is 32456 and the literacy rate is 78.99 per cent The land utilisation pattern of the panchayat as given in the Table 3.3 shows that the total area of the panchayat is 3828.91 hectares The forest area comes to around 68.21 hectares Agr culture is the main source of income in the panchayat Paddy coconut banana arecanut tuber crops fruits vegetables ginger and turmeric are cultivated in the panchayat The cropping pattern of the panchayat is g ven n Table 3.4

Table 3.3 Land utilisation pattern of Nemmara panchayat
(Area in hectares)

Sl no	Item	Nemmara
1	Total geographical area	3829
2	Forest	68
3	Land put to non agricultural use	243
4	Barren and uncultivable land	17
6	Cultivable waste	86
7	Net area sown	3212
8	Area sown more than once	1250

Source: Krishi Bhavan, Nemmara

Table 3 4 Cropping pattern of Nemmara panchayat

Crop	Area (hectares)
Paddy	1200
Coconut	720
Pepper	60
Vegetables	120
Rubber	75
Arecanut	125
Banana	180
Cashew	21
Tapioca	25

Source Krishi Bhavan Nemmara

3 1 2 Thrissur District

Thrissur with its rich history cultural heritage and archeological wealth is the cultural capital of Kerala.

3 1 2 1 Location

The Thrissur district is bounded on the north by Palakkad and Malappuram Districts on the east by Palakkad and Coimbatore District of Tamil Nadu on the south by Idukki and Ernakulam Districts and on the west by Arabian sea. The district lies between 10 ° to 10°46 North latitudes and 75 °55 East longitudes The District which has a total geographical area of 3032 Sq km ranks seventh in the state in respect of area The area is divided into Thrissur Chavakkad Kodungallur Mukundapuram and Thalappilly There is one corporation 6 municipalities 17 community development blocks and ninety six Panchayats

Fig 1 *Map of the Study Area*



3 1 2 2 Geographical features

Descending from the heights of the Western Ghats in the east the land slopes towards the west forming three distinct natural divisions the highlands the plains and the sea board Sprawling over the midland plains and mountainous highlands the district has a Coastline of about 53 kms

3 1 2 3 Demographic features

According to the 2001 census Thrissur district has a total population of 29 75 lakhs of which 14 22 lakhs are males and 15 53 lakhs are females Density of population is 981 persons per square kilometer The sex ratio of the district indicates that there are 1092 females per 1000 males Literacy rate is 92 56 per cent

3 1 2 4 Climate and rainfall

Heavy rainfall warm humid atmosphere and almost uniform temperature throughout the year are climatic features of the district The north east monsoon in the months of October November is scanty and insufficient There are four seasons dry weather from March to May southwest monsoon from June to September and northeast monsoon from October to November The District receives an annual rainfall of 3500 mm The average daily maximum temperature in March and April which are generally the hottest months is about 32 ° C in the Coastal regions and about 37 ° C in the interior

3 1 2 5 Soil

The soils of Thrissur and Talappilly taluks are mostly laterite which is used for making excellent bricks for construction purposes Forest soils are confined to the eastern region comprising of Thalappilly Mukundapuram and Thrissur taluks In the backwater areas due to sedimentation of soil and organic materials soil is extremely fertile and of loamy type Here summer paddy (Kol paddy fields) is grown Ordinary clay suitable for the manufacture of bricks and

tiles is found in several parts of the district viz Ollur Pudukkad Karuvannur and Wadakkanchery China clay is noticed at Kizhi pullikara near Thr ssur

3 1 2 6 Land utilization pattern

The land utilization pattern in Thrissur district as presented in Table 3 5 shows that nearly 34 61 percent of the total area of the district is under forest cover The total cropped area is 65 38 percent of the total geographical area, and nearly 18 06 percent of the area is cropped more than once and the net area sown is 141685 ha

**Table 3 5 Land utilization pattern of Thrissur district 2003 04
(Area in hectares)**

Sl no	Item	Thr ssur
1	Total geographical area	299390 (100)
2	Forest	103619 (34 61)
3	Land put to non agricultural use	35541 (11 87)
4	Barren and uncultivable land	415 (0 14)
5	Permanent pastures and other grazing land	42 (0 01)
6	Land under miscellaneous tree crops	651 (0 22)
7	Cult vable waste	3038 (1 01)
8	Fallow other than current fallow	5224 (1 74)
9	Current fallow	9159 (3 06)
10	Net area sown	141685 (47 32)
11	Area sown more than once	54058 (18 06)
12	Total cropped area	195743 (65 38)

* Figures in parenthesis show percentages to total

Source Farm guide 2006

3 1 2 7 Cropping pattern

The cropping pattern of the district as shown in Table 3 6 reveals that the major crops grown in the district are paddy coconut arecanut vegetables rubber and banana. Rice is cultivated in 34158 hectares which is

21.60 per cent of the total cropped area. Coconut is grown in 88307 hectares which is 44.65 per cent of the total cropped area and is the main crop in the sandy coastal belt. Seasonal crops like tapioca, banana and vegetables are grown in the midland regions where the soil is laterite in nature. Vegetables occupy an area of about 5488 ha in which bittergourd occupies an area of 263 ha in the district.

Table 3.6 Cropping pattern of Thrissur district 2003-04 (Area in hectares)

Crop	Thrissur
Paddy	34158 (17.45)
Coconut	87397 (44.65)
Fruits	25771 (13.17)
Rubber	13448 (6.87)
Spices and condiments	14427 (7.37)
Vegetables	5488 (2.80)
Pepper	4959 (2.53)
Green manure crops	1531 (0.78)
Sugar cane	261 (0.13)
Others	8303 (4.2)
Total	195743 (100)

* Figures in parenthesis show percentages to total

Source: Farm guide 2006

Pazhayannur panchayat in Thrissur district was selected as it is the major vegetable growing tract in the district. A brief description of the selected panchayats is presented below

3.1.2.8 Pazhayannur panchaya

Pazhayannur is located to the east of Thrissur district on the way to Alathur via Vadakkanchery and Chelakkara. The total area of the panchayat is 5903 sq km. It is an agrarian oriented village neighboring Thruvilwamala, Chelakkara and Puthukkod panchayats. It is bounded on the north by river Gayathri, on the south by reserve forest, on east by Kannampra Puthukode grama panchayats and on the west by Chelakkara Kondazh panchayat. The population of the panchayat is 43325 according to 2001 census. The literacy percentage is 96 per cent.

The land utilisation pattern of the panchayat is given in Table 3.7. The total geographical area of the panchayat is 9697 sq kms. The land under forest is 1432.99 hectares.

Table 3.7 Land utilisation pattern of Pazhayannur panchayat
(Area in hectares)

Sl no	Item	Pazhayannur
1	Total geographical area	5903
2	Forest	1433
3	Land put to non agricultural use	1150
4	Barren and uncultivable land	450
5	Land under miscellaneous tree crops	3007
6	Cultivable waste	1450
7	Net area sown	1570
8	Area sown more than once	780

Source: Krishi Bhavan, Pazhayannur

The main crops cultivated in the panchayat are paddy arecanut coconut banana, vegetables ginger turmeric pepper and tapioca. The cropping pattern of the panchayat is given in Table 3.8.

Vegetables are cultivated in an area of 275 hectare and the main vegetables grown in the panchayat are bittergourd snakegourd amaranthus chillies bottle gourd ridge gourd etc. However, the main revenue earning crop in the panchayat is rubber.

Table 3.8 Cropping pattern of Pazhayannur panchayat

Crop	Area (hectares)
Paddy	696
Coconut	768
Arecanut	150
Cashew	135
Rubber	800
Vegetables	275
Banana	100
Pepper	45
Tapioca	170
Mango	105

Source: Krishi Bhavan, Pazhayannur

3 2 Methodology

The procedure used in the selection of sample collection of data, analytical techniques employed and the concepts used in the study are presented below

3 2 1 Selection of study area

Two districts in Kerala namely Thrissur and Palakkad were chosen for the study taking into consideration the importance of bittergourd cultivation in these districts. Bittergourd was chosen, as it is one of the important vegetable crops in the area, which consumes considerable amount of pesticides

3 2 2 Sampling Design

Pazhayannur and Nemmara panchayats of Thrissur and Palakkad district respectively were selected for the study. The list of the farmers cultivating bittergourd was collected from the Krishi Bhavans of the respective panchayats. From the list of growers a sample of 80 farmers (40 farmers each from the two areas) was selected randomly. The sample growers were further classified into three classes based on the area of cultivation of bittergourd as Class I, Class II and Class III as shown in the Table 3 9

Table 3 9 Classification of respondents based on size of holding

Class	Area (in cents)
I	0 - 50
II	51 - 100
III	Above 100

A consumer survey was conducted in the Thrissur corporation area as the vegetables in the study area are brought to the Thrissur vegetable wholesale market in Thrissur. A sample of 75 consumers belonging to different income groups (25 in each income group) was selected randomly. The classification of sample consumers based on monthly income is given in Table 3 10

Table 3 10 Classification of consumer based on monthly income

Class	Monthly income (Rs)
Low	<10000
Medium	10000 30000
High	>30000

3 2 3 Collection of data

The data was collected from the farmers through personal interview method using well structured and pre tested interview schedule. A separate schedule for consumer survey was prepared and the data on the consumer awareness regarding pesticide use in bittergourd and willingness to pay was collected. The survey was undertaken during June - August 2006.

3 2 4 Analysis of data

The collected data was analysed in order to estimate cost and returns, the effects of pesticide use and consumer awareness regarding pesticide use.

3 2 5 Cost of Cultivation

The cost of cultivation was worked out using operation wise approach and input wise approach by employing the ABC cost concepts in farm management.

3 2 5 1 Input wise approach

Input wise costs were worked out for the three classes and at the aggregate level. The major inputs for which the costs were worked out include seeds, labour, plant protection chemicals, panthall, fertilizers, manures etc. Here the analysis was carried out by making use of the cost concepts - Cost A, Cost B and Cost C.

Various cost concepts studied are

1 Cost A_1

It approximates the actual expenditure incurred in cash and kind and includes the following items of costs

a) Hired human labour

The actual paid wage labour engaged in crop production was considered as value of hired labour. Hired labour charge included those incurred in land preparation, sowing, application of manures and fertilizers and crop protection chemicals after cultivation, panthall making, irrigation and harvesting. Hired human labour was valued at the prevailing wage rates in the area, which was Rs 125 for male labourers. In the case of female labourers the wage rate varied with respect to the area and it was Rs 60 in Nemmara and Rs 75 in Pazhayannur.

b) Seed

The cost of seed was evaluated on the basis of the purchase price which was Rs 540 per kg of seeds.

c) Manures and fertilizers (farm produced and purchased)

Expenditure on purchased quantities of manures and fertilizers has been evaluated by multiplying the physical quantities of different manures and fertilizers used with their respective prices. Farm produced items were also evaluated at their market prices.

d) Panthalling material

The materials used for panthall making were GI wire coil and bamboo poles. These materials were used for more than one season. So the cost was

worked out by dividing the total cost for panthalling material with the number of times the materials were made use of. Coir was used for two seasons whereas GI wire and bamboo poles were used for four seasons

e) Plant protection chemicals

Expenditure on fungicides and insecticides has been calculated by multiplying the physical quantities of different fungicides and insecticides used by their respective market prices

f) Depreciation of farm implements

Depreciation was worked out by straight line method. Cost of sprayer and spade were included as depreciation. The life spans of which were 5 years and 2 years respectively

g) Interest on farm loan

Interest on farm loan was calculated at 8.5 percent

h) Interest on working capital

Interest on working capital was charged at the rate of 3.5 percent per annum

i) Land revenue

Land tax was uniform through out the district and was computed on the basis of actual amount paid to the government

j) Miscellaneous expenses

These include items such as cost of sacks and bamboo baskets which were used for transporting the harvested produce from farm to market

2 Cost A_2

Cost A_2 is equal to cost A_1 plus rent paid for leased in land. Since the respondents did not take land for lease in the cultivation of bittergourd the value was taken as zero.

3 Cost B_1

It is equal to cost A plus interest on own fixed capital. The item fixed capital included iron and wooden implements and equipments such as sprayer.

4 Cost B_2

It is equal to cost B_1 plus rent paid for leased in land plus rental value of owned land. The sample farmers on the study area did not take land on lease for cultivation and hence it was taken as zero. Rent was imputed in the case of owned land based on the prevailing rent of Rs 25000 per hectare in Nemmara and Pazhayannur.

5 Cost C_1

It is equal to cost B_1 plus imputed value of family labour. The cost of family labour was imputed based on the prevailing wage rates paid to hired labour in the area during the period.

6 Cost C_2

It is equal to cost B_2 plus imputed value of family labour.

7 Cost C_3

Cost C_3 is equal to cost C_2 plus 10 per cent of cost C_2 that is accounted as allowance given for management of farm. Input wise and operation wise cost of cultivation and their percentages to total were worked out.

3 2 5 2 Operation wise approach

Operation wise costs were also worked out for the three classes and at the aggregate level. Here the costs incurred by farmers were grouped under the following heads namely costs for land preparation sowing panthall making manures and manuring plant protection and application irrigation, harvesting and other miscellaneous costs.

3 2 6 Cost of production

Cost of production is the cost of producing one quintal of the vegetable. The total costs incurred in the production of bittergourd was divided by the yield in quintals for calculating the cost of production. The cost of production was worked out for the three classes and at the aggregate level.

3 2 7 Gross Income

Gross income refers to the total returns obtained from the sale of bittergourd. The total yield obtained was multiplied by the market price to arrive at the gross income from bittergourd cultivation. The price of bittergourd varied from Rs 6 to Rs 12 per kilogram. On an average Rs 8 per kilogram was taken.

3 2 8 Farm efficiency measures

Income measures and benefit cost ratios are used as the measures of efficiency in the present study. Different income measures are associated with different cost concepts.

Farm income measures

- 1 Farm business income It is Gross income minus cost A_1
- 2 Own farm business income Gross income minus cost A_2
- 3 Family labour income Gross income minus cost B_2

4 Net income Gross income minus cost C_3

5 Farm investment income Farm business income minus imputed value of family labour

Benefit cost ratio

It is the ratio of benefits to the costs. It indicates the return on a rupee of investment. The ratio will serve as a measure which would indicate whether the costs are proportionate with the returns obtained. This has been worked out at Cost A1, Cost B, Cost B₂, Cost C, Cost C₂ and Cost C bas s

3.3 Socio economic issues in pesticide use

As the study aims to examine the socio economic issues in pesticide use in bittergourd, the different analytical techniques to assess the same are described under the following sections

3.3.1 Gross income function

A gross income function was fitted to assess the economic importance of plant protection chemicals (Arunakumara, 1995). The function in linear form is given as

$$\ln Y = \ln b_0 + b_1 \ln X_1 + b_2 \ln X_2 + b_3 \ln X_3 + b_4 \ln X_4 + \text{error}$$

where

Y gross returns per farm (Rs)

X₁ Area (acres)

X₂ expenditure on plant protection chemicals per farm (Rs)

X₃ human labour per farm (mandays)

X₄ expenditure on fertilizers per farm (Rs)

X₅ expenditure on organic manure per farm (Rs)

Separate income functions were fitted for the two areas, Nemmara and Pazhayannur, to analyse the economic importance of plant protection chemicals.

3.3.2 Plant protection chemical (PPC) expenditure function

Expenditure elasticities of PPCs were estimated using a Cobb Douglas expenditure function (Arunkumara, 1995). The linear functional form is given as

$$\ln Y = \ln b_0 + b_1 \ln X_1 + b_2 \ln X_2 + b_3 \ln X_3 + b_4 \ln X_4 + \text{error}$$

where

Y— expenditure on PPCs per farm (Rs)

X₁ Area (acres)

X₂ Family income (Rs)

X₃ expenditure on fertilizers (Rs)

X₄— expenditure on organic manure (Rs)

3.3.3 Measurement of technical efficiency

The concept of technical efficiency in a broad sense is used to characterize the utilization of resources. This basic concept may be formalized through a frontier production function defined as one that yields maximum output for given levels of inputs. The production frontier is estimated using stochastic frontier approach (Aigner *et al* 1977). The frontier production function is defined as the function that denotes the maximum feasible or potential output that can be produced by a farm from a given combination of inputs and technology.

3.3.3.1 The Stochastic Production Frontier

Using the method proposed by Aigner *et al* (1977) the level of technical efficiency is estimated using stochastic frontier model.

The Cobb Douglas functional form is generally preferred in most published papers on technical efficiency because of its well known advantages. In this study also the Cobb Douglas functional form is used and is given by

$$Y = \beta_0 \prod_k X_k^{\beta_k} e^{\varepsilon_i} \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, n$$

where e^Y is the output per hectare of the i^{th} farm, X_k is a vector of k input per hectare for i^{th} farm and ε_i is a farm specific error term. On natural log transformation it becomes

$$\ln Y_i = \ln \beta_0 + \sum \beta_k (X_{ki}) + \varepsilon_i \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, n$$

The disturbance term ε_i is divided into two components: a stochastic disturbance v and one-sided efficiency disturbance u .

$$\text{Thus } \varepsilon_i = v_i + u_i$$

The term v represents the symmetric component and permits random variation in output due to factors like weather and plant disease. It is assumed to be identically and independently distributed as $N(0, \sigma^2 v)$.

The error component $u > 0$ reflects the technical inefficiency and is generated from a one-sided probability distribution. It is assumed to be distributed independently of v . u is distributed as the absolute value of $N(0, \sigma^2 u)$, i.e. the distribution of u is half normal. The disturbance u reflects the fact that each farm's output must lie on or below the frontier. Thus $u \leq 0$ for any farm lying on the frontier while $u > 0$ for any farm lying below the frontier.

Weinstein (1964) first derived the distribution function of the composite error. The density function of ε can be stated as

$$f(\varepsilon) = (2/\sigma) f^*(\varepsilon/\sigma) [1 - F^*(\varepsilon/\sigma)] \quad -\infty \leq \varepsilon < +\infty$$

$$\text{where } \sigma^2 = \sigma_v^2 + \sigma_u^2$$

$$\lambda = \sigma_u / \sigma_v$$

and $f^*(\cdot)$ and $F^*(\cdot)$ are the standard normal density and distribution functions respectively.

This density is asymmetric around zero with its mean and variance given by

$$E(\varepsilon) = E(u) - (\sqrt{2/\pi}) \sigma_u$$

$$V(\varepsilon) = V(u) + V(v) - [(\pi/2)/\pi] \sigma_u^2 + \sigma_v^2$$

λ is interpreted to be an indicator of the relative variability of the two sources of random error that distinguish farms from one another. In addition, the variance ratio σ_u^2 / σ_v^2 represented by γ can also be a useful indicator of the influence of the inefficiency component in the overall variance. γ ranges from zero to one in value. A value of γ close to one implies that the one-sided error u dominates the symmetric error v and the shortfall of the realized output from the frontier is largely due to technical inefficiency.

Hence u represents the amount by which the frontier exceeds realized output. Direct estimates of the stochastic production frontier are obtained by maximum likelihood estimation procedure.

A model with this error specification is called as stochastic frontier since the non-positive component of the disturbance represents the shortfall of the actual output from the frontier while the frontier contains the normal component of disturbance and is therefore stochastic.

3.3.3.2 Specification of the model

For the present study a Cobb-Douglas production function of the following form was specified:

$$\ln Y_j = \ln b_0 + b_1 \ln X_1 + b_2 \ln X_2 + b_3 \ln X_3 + b_4 \ln X_4 + b_5 \ln X_5 + \varepsilon \quad \text{where}$$

Y = Yield (kg/acre/farm)

X_1 = expenditure on organic manure (Rs/acre/farm)

X_2 = expenditure on fertilizers (Rs/acre/farm)

X_3 = expenditure on plant protection chemicals (Rs/acre/farm)

X_4 expenditure on labour (Rs /acre/farm)

ε v u

1 1 2 n farms

3.2.3.3 Mean Technical Efficiency (MTE)

Farm specific technical efficiencies were worked out as the ratio of production of the i^{th} farm to the frontier production of the same farm (Aigner *et al* 1977) Mean technical efficiency was calculated by taking the average of the farm specific technical efficiencies

3.3.4 Factors influencing the overuse of plant protection chemicals

The analysis of frontier production function and the technical efficiency level of the farmers reveal the fact that there exists the overuse of plant protection chemicals in the study area. The overuse of chemicals result in many externalities. Several economists have addressed externality in several ways. According to Baumol and Oates (1992) externality is present whenever some individuals utility or production relationship including real (i.e. non monetary) variables whose values are chosen by others without particular attention to the effect in the victim's welfare. For this effect on the victim or beneficiary the victim does not receive any compensation or does not pay any fee.

According to Bromley (1993) externality refers to instances where the act on of one person result in the unwanted costs being vested on another person for which no accounting is done.

Hence an analysis is made to analyse the factors influencing the overuse of plant protection chemicals. A multiple linear regression model was used for the purpose (Poornima, 1999). The empirical model was

$$Y = a + b_1 X_1 + b_2 X_2 + b_3 X_3 + b_4 X_4 + b_5 X_5 + b_6 X_6 + b_7 X_7 + b_8 X_8$$

where

Y is the difference in percentage terms between expenditure incurred on plant protection chemicals by the farmers and the optimal expenditure on plant protection chemical estimated through frontier production function

X_1 — age of the farmer in years

X_2 — number of years of schooling of farmer

X_3 — years of application of PPCs

X_4 — gross returns from bittergourd in Rs

X_5 — FYM used per acre (Rs)

X_6 — fertilizers used per acre (Rs)

X_7 — dummy for awareness of toxicity (0 for not being aware of toxicity levels and 1 for being aware)

For finding out the optimal expenditure of pesticide use the frontier production function was used. The function was also used in estimating the technical efficiency of farms.

3.3.5 Consumer awareness with regard to pesticide residues

Contingent valuation is a direct method of valuating the environmental good or bad for which a proper market does not exist. In that case valuation is done by eliciting the consumers' preference and the r value for an environmental change. In the present study, consumers' preference for pesticide free products is elicited by asking their Willingness to Pay (WTP) for a hypothetical pesticide residue free bittergourd.

3.3.5.1 Willingness To Pay Premium (WTPP) for pesticide free bittergourd

WTPP is the difference between willingness to pay for pesticide free bittergourd and the prevailing market price in Rs/kg. In order to analyse the factors that affect the WTP of the consumer for residue free bittergourd, a logistic function was fitted (Poomma, 1999).

The function is

$$WTPP = a + b_1X_1 + b_2X_2 + b_3X_3$$

where WTPP is dichotomous in nature where t takes a value of 0 if $WTP < Rs$ 2/kg of bittergourd over the prevailing market prices or else t takes value of 1 if $WTP > Rs$ 2/kg of bittergourd over prevailing market prices

The variables used for fitting the regression are

X1- education level (scores are given as primary-1 Secondary-2 College and above-3)

X2- income (Rs)

X3- dummy for awareness of residues in bittergourd (0 if not aware of residues and 1 if aware)

The WTPP is used to reflect the negative externality caused to the consumers

Results and Discussion

4 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The present study on the Socio economic issues in pesticide use. An analysis in bittergourd was aimed at examining the cost and returns pesticide use pattern and related issues in bittergourd. The results obtained from the study are presented and discussed under the following headings:

- 4.1 General economic and social conditions of the sample farmers
- 4.2 General practices of cultivation
- 4.3 Cost of cultivation of bittergourd
- 4.4 Yield and returns from bittergourd
- 4.5 Cost of production of bittergourd
- 4.6 Farm efficiency measures
- 4.7 Pattern of pesticide use in bittergourd
- 4.8 Socioeconomic issues in pesticide use
- 4.9 Technical efficiency in bittergourd cultivation
- 4.10 Factors influencing the overuse of chemicals
- 4.11 Consumer awareness with respect to pesticide residues

4.1 General economic and social conditions of the sample farmers

4.1.1 Land holding

The distribution of sample farmers according to the area under bittergourd is given in Table 4.1. A sample of 80 farmers cultivating bittergourd, 40 each from Nemmara and Pazhayannur panchayats were selected. The respondents were classified according to the area under bittergourd. Out of the total respondents 10.0 per cent had less than 50 cents (Class I), 48.75 per cent had an area between 50 cents and 100 cents (Class II) and 41.25 per cent had more than 100 cents (Class III).

Table 4 1 Distribution of respondents according to the area under bittergourd

Respondents	Holding size							
	< 50 cents		50 100 cents		>100 cents		Total	
	No	Area (cents)	No	Area (cents)	No	Area (cents)	No	Area (cents)
Nemmara	2 (5)	45 (0 82)	19 (47 5)	1405 (25 77)	19 (47 5)	4000 (73 39)	40 (100)	5450 (100)
Pazhayannur	6 (15)	135 (3 12)	20 (50 0)	1565 (36 22)	14 (35 0)	2620 (60 64)	40 (100)	4320 (100)
Total	8 (10)	180 (1 84)	39 (48 75)	2970 (30 39)	33 (41 25)	6620 (67 75)	80 (100)	9770 (100)

* Figures in parenthesis show percentage to total

Among bittergourd growers in Nemmara, 5 per cent had less than 50 cents 47 5 per cent each had an area between 50 100 cents and more than 100 cents under cultivation It showed that 95 per cent of the total farmers in Nemmara operated in an area of more than 50 cents In Pazhayannur 15 per cent of the growers had less than 50 cents while 35 per cent had more than 100 cents under cultivation and 50 per cent had land area between 50 and 100 cents

4 1 2 Age

The distribution of the sample farmers according to the age is given in Table 4 2 It was found that 42 5 per cent of the total respondents were under the age group of 40 to 50 years and 36 25 per cent in between 50 to 60 years About 17 5 per cent and 3 75 per cent came under the age group of less than 40 years and more than 60 years respectively The age group distribution was showing the same trend in both Pazhayannur and Nemmara with majority of farmers falling in the age group of 40 50 years

Table 4.2 Distribution of respondents according to age

Respondents	Age				Total
	< 40 yrs	40-50 yrs	50-60 yrs	> 60 yrs	
Pazhayannur	8 (20)	18 (45)	13 (32.5)	1 (2.5)	40 (100)
Nemmara	6 (15)	16 (40)	16 (40)	2 (5)	40 (100)
Total	14 (17.5)	34 (42.5)	29 (36.25)	3 (3.75)	80 (100)

* Figures in parenthesis show percentage to total

4.1.3 Educational status

Classification of the respondents according to their educational status is given in Table 4.3. It was observed that none of the respondents in both the areas were illiterate. About 35 per cent of the total respondents were educated up to the middle school level, 20 per cent up to the high school level and 3.75 per cent up to the college level, while 8.75 per cent of the total sample farmers had secondary level education. Similar pattern was observed in both the areas with respect to the educational status of respondents.

Table 4.3 Distribution of respondents according to educational status

Respondents	Educational status					Total
	Primary	Middle School	High School	SSLC	College	
Pazhayannur	14 (35.0)	13 (32.5)	8 (20.0)	3 (7.5)	2 (5.0)	40 (100)
Nemmara	12 (30.0)	15 (37.5)	8 (20.0)	4 (10.0)	1 (2.5)	40 (100)
Total	26 (32.5)	28 (35.0)	16 (20.0)	7 (8.75)	3 (3.75)	80 (100)

* Figures in parenthesis show percentage to total

4.1.4 Occupation

The occupation wise classification of respondents presented in Table 4.4 revealed that agriculture was the only occupation of 83.75 per cent of the total

respondents. In Nemmara the percentage was found to be 85 whereas it was 82.5 in Pazhayannur. About 14 per cent of the respondents took up agriculture as the main occupation along with subsidiary occupation. Agriculture turned out to be subsidiary occupation for 50 per cent of the sample farmers who took up jobs in public sector and private sector. The occupational pattern was found to be similar in both the areas.

Table 4.4 Classification of respondents according to their occupation

Respondents	Agriculture as the only occupation	Agriculture as the main occupation	Agriculture as subsidiary occupation	Total
Pazhayannur	33 (82.5)	6 (15)	1 (2.5)	40 (100)
Nemmara	34 (85)	5 (12.5)	1 (2.5)	40 (100)
Total	67 (83.75)	11 (13.75)	2 (5)	80 (2.5)

* Figures in parenthesis show percentage to total

4.1.5 Family income

The classification of respondents based on their family income shown in Table 4.5 revealed that out of the total respondents 81.25 per cent had family income ranging between Rs 50,000 and Rs 1,00,000. This was followed by the income category of less than Rs 50,000 which included 12.5 per cent of the total respondents. Only 6.25 per cent of the respondents had family income exceeding one lakh rupees. Both the areas showed similar pattern with majority of respondents falling in the income group of Rs 50,000 - Rs 1,00,000.

Table 4.5 Classification of respondents based on family income

Respondents	Family income per annum			Total
	< 50,000	50,000 - 1,00,000	> 1,00,000	
Pazhayannur	4 (10)	33 (82.5)	3 (7.5)	40 (100)
Nemmara	6 (15)	32 (80)	2 (5)	40 (100)
Total	10 (12.5)	65 (81.25)	5 (6.25)	80 (100)

* Figures in parenthesis show percentage to total

4.2 GENERAL PRACTICES OF CULTIVATION

Bittergourd was found to be the most important vegetable crop cultivated in the study area and an attempt is made here to briefly describe the cultural practices adopted by the farmers for the cultivation of bittergourd

4.2.1 Season

Bittergourd is cultivated mainly during May-August in Nemmara, whereas in Pazhayannur the crop was cultivated during March-June. The duration of the crop is 120 days (Table 4.6)

Table 4.6 Cropping season practiced by the farmers

Bittergourd	Season	Duration
Nemmara	May-August	120 days
Pazhayannur	March-June	120 days

4.2.2 Land preparation

Generally tractor is used for the preparation of land. Mounds of 2 feet diameter and 1.15 feet height were taken. Initially lime was incorporated in the soil followed by farmyard manure at the rate of 10 kg per mound after 10 days. The practices were found to be similar in both Nemmara and Pazhayannur.

4.2.3 Seeds and sowing

VFPCK (Vegetable and Fruit Promotion Council Kerala) and Kerala Agricultural University were the main suppliers of seeds for the bittergourd.



Plate 1 Farmer s field in Nemmara



Plate 2 Farmer s field in Pazhayannur

farmers in Nemmara and Pazhayannur High yielding varieties like Priya, Priyanka and Preeti were cultivated in both the areas In the case of Nemmara, eight seeds of bittergourd were sown per mound and after germination five healthy plants were retained whereas in Pazhayannur five seeds were sown per mound and after germination three healthy plants were retained Seed rate adopted by the farmers in the study area was 2.5 kilogram per hectare

As given in Table 4.7 spacing adopted was found to vary from 2.50 x 2.75m in Nemmara to 2.75 x 3.0m in Pazhayannur

Table 4.7 Spacing adopted by the sample farmers

Area	Spacing followed by sample farmers
Nemmara	2.50 x 2.75 m x 2.50 x 2.75 m
Pazhayannur	2.75 x 3.0 m x 2.75 x 3.0 m

4.2.4 Manures and fertilizers

The organic and chemical fertilizers were given in split doses in both the areas First dose of farmyard manure was given while preparing the land and a second dose was given fifteen days after sowing Farmyard manures were applied at the rate of 25 tonnes per hectare and weekly application of cow dung slurry was also practiced Other manures which were found to be used by the sample farmers were poultry manure neem cake castor cake groundnut cake and bone meal Chemical fertilizers like Factomphos 18-18-18, 17-17-17, Muriate of potash, Diammonium Phosphate and Urea were quite commonly used in the study area Fertilizers were given in several split doses at fortnightly intervals

4.2.5 Irrigation

Irrigation was given once in two days and crop was irrigated manually using water from wells If the temperature of the atmosphere was very high the crop was irrigated daily The irrigation frequency adopted by farmers in Nemmara

was more when compared to Pazhayannur as there existed a dry climate compared to Pazhayannur

4 2 6 Plant protection

Insecticides like Ekalux, Confidor, Hostathion, Lanate, Furadan and Metacid and fungicides like Mancozeb, Radar and Saff were used by the farmers in the area under study. Pheromone trap and banana fruit trap was found to be used by most of the farmers in both the areas. However, the use of these non-chemical methods was more common among the farmers in Pazhayannur. In bittergourd, insect pests like fruit flies, epilachna beetle, red pumpkin beetle and jassids were predominant in the study area. Fungal diseases like yellowing and leaf spot and viral diseases were quite common in the area. The usage of pesticides was found to be higher among the sample farmers in Nemmara compared to Pazhayannur. Pesticide use pattern of the sample farmers is given in Table 4 8.

Table 4 8 Pesticide use pattern of the sample farmers

Pests	Chemicals used by the sample farmers	Cost/l or Cost/kg
Fruit fly	Furadan	65
Epilachna beetle	Ekalux	500
Red pumpkin beetle	Ekalux	500
Jassids	Confidor	1800
Diseases		
Downy mildew	Mancozeb	260
Yellowing	Saff	900
	Radar	240
Leaf spots	Mancozeb	260

While applying the plant protection chemicals, farmers did not follow the recommendation. For controlling fruit flies, Furadan was used instead of Carbaryl.

Though furadan was cheaper it would not break down easily in the soil and could create environmental problems. Mostly farmers were found to depend upon the traders who prescribed them the needed chemicals. Few of them sought advice from the agricultural officers and specialists. The pesticide usage was found to be indiscriminate mainly in Nemmara area which was confirmed in the earlier study by Sreela (2005). However most of the sample farmers interviewed in Pazhayannur were resorting to non chemical methods of pest control like banana fruit trap and pheromone trap which was followed by few farmers in Nemmara area also.

4.2.7 Harvesting

Harvesting of bittergourd starts after 45 days of sowing in both areas. Harvesting was usually done once in four days and a total of 18 harvests were made.

4.3 COST OF CULTIVATION OF BITTERGOURD

The cost of cultivation of bittergourd was worked out in both Nemmara and Pazhayannur for three classes: Class I (< 50 cents), Class II (50-100 cents) and Class III (>100 cents) here in after referred to as Class I, II and III and at the aggregate level. Both the input wise and operation wise costs were worked out and the results are presented and discussed in the following sections.

4.3.1 Input wise cost of cultivation

The different inputs involved in the cultivation of bittergourd included the expenditure on seeds, manures, fertilizers, planting material, plant protection chemicals and labour. The results on the input wise cost of cultivation for the three classes in Nemmara and Pazhayannur are presented and discussed below.

4 3 1 1 Input wise cost of cultivation Nemmara

The input wise cost of cultivation was worked out using the cost concepts Cost A Cost A₂ Cost B₁ Cost B₂ Cost C Cost C₂ and Cost C₃ are given in Table 4 9 and Fig 2 At the aggregate level the costs were Rs 66890 Rs 67002 Rs 75335 Rs 90977 Rs 99310 and Rs 109241 respectively for Cost A₁ Cost B Cost B₂ Cost C₁ Cost C₂ and Cost C₃ It was found that the total cost of cultivation at Cost A₁ Cost B Cost B₂ Cost C₁ Cost C₂ and Cost C₃ were Rs 53890 Rs 54037 Rs 62370 Rs 88288 Rs 96621 and Rs 106283 respectively for Class I and they were Rs 62763 Rs 62926 Rs 71262 Rs 89892 Rs 98225 and Rs 108047 respectively for Class II In the case of Class III the costs were found to be Rs 67660 Rs 67754 Rs 76087 Rs 90563 Rs 98896 and Rs 108786 respectively It may be noted that Cost A₁ and Cost A₂ were same as there was no leased in land taken by the sample farmers in the area for cultivation of bitter gourd

An analysis of the input wise expenses revealed that human labour constituted the largest share of expenses (35 94 per cent) consisting of family labour (21 95 per cent) and hired labour (13 99 per cent) followed by expenses on manure (15 27 per cent) and panthalling material (11 13 per cent) The fertilizer expenses contributed about 8 16 percent while expenses on plant protection chemicals machine labour and seeds were 4 01 per cent 2 71 per cent and 1 93 per cent respectively The other items of expense considered were the management expenses which contributed 9 09 per cent to the total cost and the rental value of own land (7 63 per cent)

Class wise analysis showed that in the case of Class I human labour was the largest item of expenditure (40 20 per cent) followed by manures (14 64 per cent) panthal making (10 04 per cent) allowance given for management of farm (9 09 per cent) rent paid for own land (7 84 per cent) fertilizers (6 01 per cent) and plant protection chemicals (3 58 per cent) For Class II also human labour was the largest item of input cost accounting for 35 28 per cent of the total cost

Table 4 9 Input wise cost of cultivation of bittergourd in Nemmara (Rs per hectare)

Particulars	class I	per cent	class II	per cent	class III	per cent	Aggregate	per cent
Hired labour	8475	7 97	11158	10 33	16522	15 19	15287	13 99
Machine labour	2722	2 56	3488	3 23	2778	2 55	2961	2 71
Seed	2100	1 98	2137	1 98	2092	1 92	2104	1 93
Manures	15556	14 64	16571	15 34	16375	15 05	16677	15 27
Fertilisers	6389	6 01	8581	7 94	9057	8 33	8913	8 16
Panthealing material	10667	10 04	12348	11 43	12358	11 36	12163	11 13
Plant protection	3800	3 58	4298	3 98	4419	4 06	4382	4 01
Transport charge	629	0 59	442	0 41	332	0 31	456	0 42
Land revenue	100	0 09	100	0 09	100	0 09	100	0 09
Depreciation	184	0 17	196	0 18	226	0 21	207	0 19
Interest on farm loan	1426	1 34	1672	1 55	1811	1 66	1783	1 63
Interest on working capital	587	0 55	688	0 64	746	0 69	734	0 67
Miscellaneous cost	1256	1 18	1084	1 00	844	0 78	1124	1 03
Cost A1/A2	53890	50 70	62763	58 09	67660	62 20	66890	61 23
Interest on fixed cap tal	147	0 14	166	0 15	94	0 09	112	0 10
Cost B1	54037	50 84	62929	58 24	67754	62 28	67002	61 33
Rental value of own land	8333	7 84	8333	7 71	8333	7 66	8333	7 63
Cost B2	62370	58 68	71262	65 95	76087	69 94	75335	68 96
Inputed value of family labour	34251	32 23	26962	24 95	22810	20 97	23975	21 95
Cost C1	88288	91 38	89892	83 20	90563	83 25	90977	83 28
Cost C2	96621	90 91	98225	90 91	98896	90 91	99310	90 91
Allowance given for management of farm	9662	9 09	9822	9 09	9890	9 09	9931	9 09
Total cost	106283	100	108047	100	108786	100	109241	100

whereas manures contributed a share of 15.34 percent followed by panthalling material (11.43 per cent). Allowance given for management of farm contributed 9.09 per cent which was followed by fertilizers (7.94 per cent). Plant protection chemicals contributed a share of 3.98 per cent towards the total cost. With respect to Class III human labour contributed the highest share in the total cost (36.16 per cent). As observed in Class I and Class II here also manure was the second largest item occupying 15.05 per cent of the total cost followed by panthalling material (11.36 per cent) and allowance given for management of farm (9.09 per cent). Fertilizers contributed 8.33 per cent to the total cost followed by rental value of land (7.66 per cent) while expenditure on plant protection chemicals was found to be 4.06 per cent.

4.3.1.2 Input wise cost of cultivation – Pazhayannur

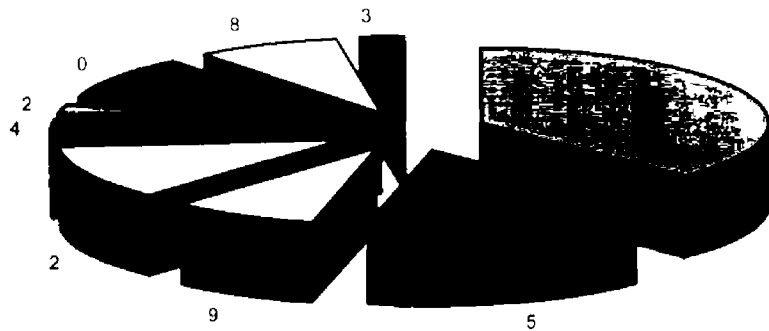
The input wise cost of cultivation as presented in Table 4.10 and Fig. 3 revealed that at the aggregate level the Cost A₁, Cost B, Cost B₂, Cost C, Cost C₂ and Cost C₃ were 63712, Rs 63971, Rs 72304, Rs 88850, Rs 97183 and Rs 106901 in the respective order. For Class I it was found to be Rs 54436, Rs 54622, Rs 62955, Rs 88038, Rs 96371 and Rs 106008 respectively and they were Rs 61999, Rs 62259, Rs 70592, Rs 91312, Rs 99645 and Rs 109610 respectively at Class II level. The costs were found to be Rs 65458, Rs 65721, Rs 74054, Rs 88572, Rs 96905 and Rs 106595 respectively for Class III farmers.

An analysis of the contribution of different inputs to the total cost showed that human labour constituted the highest share of 40.26 per cent in the entire sample in which family labour contributed a higher percentage (23.27 per cent) when compared to hired labour (16.99 per cent). The second important item was the expenditure incurred on manures which contributed a share of about 15.52 per cent of the total cost. The third largest item was cost of panthalling material occupying 9.00 per cent of the total cost. Allowance given for management of farm was also an important item which accounted 9.09 per cent to the total cost.

Table 4 10 Input wise cost of cultivation of bittergourd in Pazhayannur (Rs per hectare)

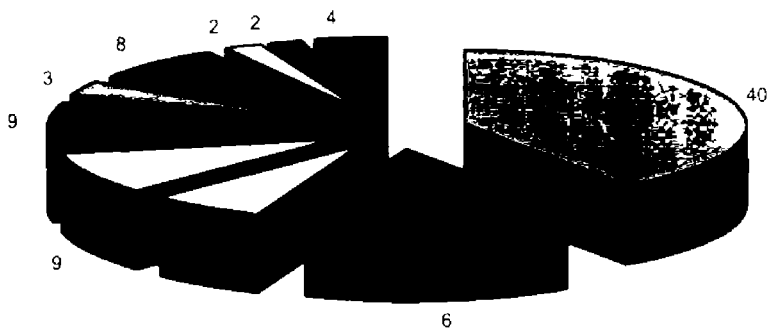
Particulars	class I	per cent	class II	per cent	class III	per cent	Aggregate	per cent
Hired labour	11977	11 30	15998	14 60	20315	19 04	18160	16 99
Machine labour	1750	1 65	2097	2 08	1770	1 66	1888	1 77
Seed	2200	2 08	2898	2 64	2267	2 12	2494	2 33
Manures	14907	14 06	15684	14 31	16031	15 03	16594	15 52
Fertilisers	9056	8 54	7631	6 96	6953	6 52	7264	6 80
Panthealling material	8278	7 81	9719	8 87	9635	9 03	9623	9 00
Plant protection	2081	1 96	3513	3 21	3796	3 56	3433	3 21
Transport charge	520	0 49	461	0 42	429	0 40	415	0 39
Land revenue	100	0 09	100	0 09	100	0 09	100	0 09
Depreciation	173	0 16	216	0 20	210	0 20	211	0 20
Interest on farm loan	1453	1 37	1716	1 57	1729	1 62	1652	1 55
Interest on working capital	599	0 57	707	0 65	712	0 67	697	0 65
Miscellaneous cost	1342	1 27	1259	1 15	1512	1 42	1182	1 11
Cost A1/A2	54436	51 55	61999	56 56	65458	61 36	63712	59 60
Interest on fixed capital	186	0 18	260	0 24	263	0 25	259	0 24
Cost B1	54622	51 53	62259	56 80	65721	61 60	63971	59 84
Rental value of own land	8553	7 86	8333	7 60	8333	7 81	8333	7 80
Cost B2	62955	59 59	70592	64 40	74054	69 42	72304	67 64
Imputed value of family labour	33416	31 52	29053	26 51	22851	21 49	24878	23 27
Cost C1	88058	83 05	91312	83 31	88572	85 09	88850	83 11
Cost C2	96371	90 91	99645	90 91	96905	90 91	97183	90 91
Allowance given for management of farm	9637	9 09	9965	9 09	9690	9 09	9718	9 09
Total cost	106008	100 00	109610	100 00	106595	100 00	106901	100 00

Fig 2 Input wise cost of cultivation of bittergourd in Nemmara



- | | |
|------------------------------------|----------------------------|
| ■ Human labour | ■ Manures |
| □ Fertilizers | □ Panthealing material |
| ■ Plant protection | □ Seed |
| ■ All wages for management of farm | □ Rental value of own land |
| ■ Other costs | |

Fig 3 Input wise cost of cultivation of bittergourd in Pazhavannur



- | | |
|------------------------------------|------------------------|
| ■ labour | ■ manures |
| □ fertilizers | □ panthealing material |
| ■ all wages for management of farm | □ plant protection |
| ■ rental value of own land | □ seed |
| ■ machine labour | ■ thruster |

while rental value of own and took up a share of 7.80 per cent followed by fertilizer (6.80 per cent) plant protection chemicals (3.21 per cent) seeds (2.33 per cent) and machine labour (1.77 per cent)

The class wise analysis revealed that for Class I human labour was the largest item of expenditure contributing 42.82 per cent to the total cost followed by manures (14.06 per cent) allowance given for management of farm (9.09 per cent) fertilizers (8.54 per cent) rental value of own land (7.86 per cent) panthalling material (7.81 per cent) and plant protection chemicals (1.96 per cent). In the case of Class II also human labour was the largest item of input cost accounting for 41.11 per cent of the total cost. Manures occupied the second position with 14.31 per cent followed by cost incurred for the purchase of panthalling material with a share of 8.87 per cent to the total cost. Allowance given for management of farm contributed 9.09 per cent followed by rental value of own land (7.60 per cent) fertilizers (6.96 per cent) and plant protection chemicals (3.21 per cent). Regarding Class III a similar pattern was observed. With human labour contributing the highest share in the total cost (40.53 per cent). As observed in Class I and Class II here also manures was the second largest item occupying 15.03 per cent of the total cost. Allowance given for management of farm took the third place with a share of 9.09 per cent. Panthalling material (9.03 per cent) came next followed by rental value of land (7.81 per cent) fertilizers (6.52 per cent) and plant protection chemicals (3.56 per cent).

Based on the above analysis of input wise cost of cultivation it could be concluded that human labour was the most important input in both the study areas and the contribution of family labour was higher compared to hired labour. The contribution of hired labour was found to show an increasing trend from Class I to Class III. The above results on the highest share of human labour was similar to the findings of Madalía and Kukadia (1978) Brahmaiah and Naidu (1993) Ramachandran (1997) Karthikeyan (2001) and Thomas *et al* (2006). Moreover the importance of family labour as observed in the present study was in line with

the results obtained by Sandhya (1992) Sreela (2005) and Thomas *et al* (2006) The percentage share of fertilizers to the total cost (8.16 per cent) was on par with the findings of Thomas *et al* (2006) The present study was however in contrast to the results reported by Nagesh (2001) who opined that cost of panthalling and staking occupied the highest share of the total input costs in case of bittergourd cultivation in Thiruvananthapuram. This may be attributed to the difference in area of study where panthalling materials used were found to be comparatively costly. The expense on plant protection chemicals at the aggregate level was found to be higher in Nemmara compared to Pazhayannur and an increasing trend was observed from Class I to Class III. This could be due to the fact that the usage of plant protection chemicals was found to increase when the cultivation is taken up on a large scale on commercial basis. However it differed from the findings of Sreela (2005) who reported that the expenditure on plant protection chemicals of Class II farmers was highest compared to Class I and Class III.

4.3.2 Operation wise cost of cultivation

The operation wise cost of cultivation of bittergourd was also worked out for both Nemmara and Pazhayannur and the results are presented in the following sections. The different operations included land preparation, sowing, manuring and fertilizer application, panthalling, irrigation, application of plant protection chemicals and harvesting.

4.3.2.1 Operation wise cost of cultivation - Nemmara

The analysis of the operation wise cost of cultivation in Nemmara as presented in Table 4.11 and Fig 3 revealed that at the aggregate level manuring and fertilizer application contributed the highest share of 27.89 per cent in the total cost incurring an expense of Rs 32995 per hectare. Panthall making was the next important item accounting for 17.35 per cent of the total cost with an expense of Rs 17970 per hectare. The cost incurred for the other operations were irrigation

Table 4 11 Operation wise cost of cultivation of bittergourd in Nemmara (Rs per hectare)

Particulars	class I	per cent	class II	per cent	class III	per cent	Aggregate	per cent
Land preparation	8972	8 44	8778	8 12	7067	6 50	7524	6 89
Sowing	2619	2 46	2715	2 51	2647	2 43	2666	2 44
Manuring and fertiliser appl cation	28378	26 70	32356	29 95	32920	30 26	32995	30 20
Panthal making	17063	16 05	17334	16 04	18030	16 57	17970	16 45
Plant protection	5889	5 54	6447	5 97	6062	5 57	6159	5 64
Irrigation	12111	11 40	10086	9 33	10130	9 31	10135	9 28
Harvesting	9556	8 99	8270	7 65	9886	9 09	9468	8 67
Miscellaneous cost	1256	1 18	1084	1 00	844	0 78	1124	1 03
Depreciation	184	0 17	196	0 18	226	0 21	207	0 19
Land revenue	100	0 09	100	0 09	100	0 09	100	0 09
Interest on farm loan	1426	1 34	1672	1 55	1811	1 66	1783	1 63
Interest on working capital	587	0 55	688	0 64	746	0 69	734	0 67
Interest on fixed capital	147	0 14	166	0 15	94	0 09	112	0 10
Rent on own land	8333	7 84	8333	7 71	8333	7 66	8333	7 63
Rent on leased in land	0	0 00	0	0 00	0	0 00	0	0 00
Allowance g ven for management of farm	9662	9 09	9822	9 09	9890	9 09	9931	9 09
Total cost	106283	100 00	108047	100 00	108786	100 00	109240	100

(Rs 10135) harvesting (Rs 9468) land preparation (Rs 7524) plant protection (Rs 6159) and sowing (Rs 2666)

The class wise analysis revealed that cost incurred per hectare for manuring and fertilizer application were Rs 28378 Rs 32356 and Rs 32920 for Class I Class II and Class III respectively and for panthall making it was found to be Rs 17063 Rs 17334 Rs 18030 For irrigation cost incurred per hectare by Class I II and III farmers were Rs 12111 Rs 10086 and Rs 10130 respectively a major share of which was contributed by family labour Expense incurred on harvesting operation was Rs 9566 Rs 8270 and Rs 9886 per hectare for Class I II farmers and III respectively It was also noted that harvesting operation of Class I farmers was exclusively accomplished by family labour while it was observed to have prominence over hired labour in the other classes The expense on land preparation per hectare was Rs 8972 for Class I Rs 8778 for Class II and Rs 7067 for Class III Expenses meted out towards plant protection by Class I Class II and Class III were Rs 5889 Rs 6447 and Rs 6062 per hectare respectively in which input cost occupied the major share This operation was carried out entirely by family labour The expense for sowing operation was found to be Rs 2619 Rs 2715 and Rs 2647 per hectare for Class I Class II and Class III farmers respectively of which major share was contributed by seeds

4.3.2.2 Operation wise cost of cultivation Pazhayannur

The operation wise cost of cultivation of bittergourd in Pazhayannur is given in Table 4.12 and Fig. 4 The analysis revealed that manuring and fertilizer application contributed the largest share in the total cost at aggregate level incurring a cost of Rs 29812 per hectare Panthall making was the next important item incurring a cost of Rs 16440 per hectare followed by harvesting with Rs 11238 (10.51 per cent) and a major share of the cost was contributed by family labour Irrigation was the next important item contributing a

share of Rs 11107 per hectare followed by land preparation (Rs 7679) plant protection (Rs 5342) and sowing (Rs 3128)

Class wise analysis revealed that costs incurred at Class I II and III for manuring and fertilizer application were Rs 29861 Rs 29293 and Rs 29500 per hectare respectively and for panthall making it was found to be Rs 17779 Rs 15836 and Rs 16727 Cost incurred per hectare for harvesting operation by Class I II and III were Rs 11435 Rs 11589 and Rs 11019 respectively and for irrigation it was Rs 10833 Rs 12881 and Rs 10940 and family labour was observed to have prominence over hired labour in all the classes The class wise expenses on land preparation was Rs 7528 Rs 8482 and Rs 7208 per hectare for Class I Class II and Class III respectively and that for application of plant protection chemicals were Rs 3879 Rs 5403 and Rs 569 The application of plant protection chemicals was carried out entirely by family labour For sowing the expenses incurred by Class I Class II and Class III farmers were found to be Rs 2869 Rs 3570 and Rs 2885 per hectare respectively and cost of seeds was the single largest item of expenditure in this operation

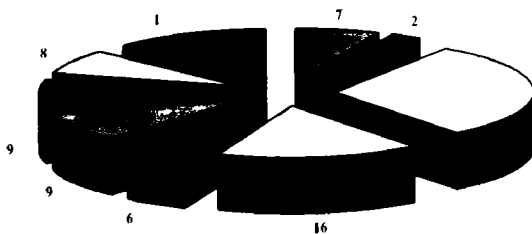
To sum up the operation wise cost manuring and fertilizer application was found to occupy the highest share in the operation wise expense in both the areas This was on par with the findings of Sreela (2005) and Brahmaiah and Naidu (1993) It was also supported by the results of the study conducted by Madan *et al* (1999) who reported that farmyard manure constituted 30.53 per cent of the total cost of cauliflower cultivation Sowing operation received the lowest share in the present study which were in contrast to the findings of Karthikeyan (2001) who opined that seeds and sowing was the single largest item that occupied a major share of the total cost in the case of cool season vegetables

The expenditure on plant protection chemicals was found to be lower in Pazhayannur when compared to Nemmara The majority of the farmers

Table 4 12 Operation wise cost of cultivation of bittergourd in Pazhayannur (Rs per hectare)

Particulars	class I	per cent	class II	per cent	class III	per cent	Aggregate	per cent
Land preparation	7528	7 10	8482	7 74	7208	6 76	7679	7 18
Sowing	2869	2 71	3570	3 26	2885	2 71	3128	2 93
Manuring and fertiliser application	29861	28 17	29293	26 72	29500	27 67	29812	27 89
Panthal making	17779	16 77	15836	14 45	16727	15 69	16440	15 38
Plant protection	3879	3 66	5403	4 93	5769	5 41	5342	5 00
Irrigation	10833	10 22	12881	11 75	10940	10 26	11107	10 39
Harvesting	11435	10 79	11589	10 57	11019	10 34	11238	10 51
Miscellaneous cost	1342	1 27	1259	1 15	1512	1 42	1182	1 11
Depreciation	173	0 16	216	0 20	210	0 20	211	0 20
Land revenue	100	0 09	100	0 09	100	0 09	100	0 09
Interest on farm loan	1453	1 37	1716	1 57	1729	1 62	1652	1 55
Interest on working capital	599	0 57	707	0 65	712	0 67	697	0 65
Interest on fixed cap tal	186	0 18	260	0 24	263	259 00	259	0 24
Rent on own land	8333	7 86	8333	7 60	8333	7 82	8333	7 80
Rent on leased in land	0	0 00	0	0 00	0	0 00	0	0 00
Allowance given for management of farm	9637	9 09	9965	9 09	9690	9 09	9718	9 09
Total cost	106008	100 00	109610	100 00	106595	100 00	106901	100 00

Fig 3 Operation wise cost of cultivation of bittergourd in Nemmara



- | | |
|---------------------------------------|--------------------|
| ■ Land preparation | ■ Sowing |
| □ Manuring and fertilizer application | □ Panthal making |
| ■ Plant protection | □ Irrigation |
| ■ Harvesting | □ Rent on own land |
| ■ Other costs | |

Fig 4 Operation wise cost of cultivation of bittergourd in Pazhayannur



- | | |
|---------------------------------------|--------------------|
| ■ Land preparation | ■ Sowing |
| □ Manuring and fertilizer application | □ Panthal making |
| ■ Plant protection | □ Irrigation |
| ■ Harvesting | □ Rent on own land |
| ■ Other costs | |

in Pazhayannur were found to use less chemicals and were using non chemical methods of pest control like banana fruit trap and pheromone trap

4.4 Yield and returns of bittergourd

The average yield and returns per hectare for different classes and the two areas Nemmara and Pazhayannur were analysed and is presented in the Table 4.13

For Nemmara, the average output at the aggregate level was 22190 kg per hectare and the total returns obtained was Rs 177520 per hectare. The total value of bittergourd was highest for Class II (Rs 181848) followed by Class III (Rs 175752) and Class I (Rs 166224). In the case of Pazhayannur, output at the aggregate level was found to be 21551 kg per hectare and the total returns was Rs 172408 per hectare. The total value of bittergourd was highest for Class II (Rs 180896) followed by Class III (Rs 167904) and Class I (Rs 161488).

Table 4.13 Yield and returns of bittergourd

Area	Nemmara		Pazhayannur	
	Yield (Kg per hectare)	Returns (Rs per hectare)	Yield (Kg per hectare)	Returns (Rs per hectare)
Class I	20778	166224	20186	161488
Class II	22731	181848	22612	180896
Class III	21969	175752	20988	167904
Aggregat	22190	177520	21551	172408

Comparative analysis of yield and returns of bittergourd in the two areas revealed that yield and returns were slightly higher in Nemmara as compared to Pazhayannur. This is in line with the trend observed for cost of cultivation. The above results on output and returns was similar to the findings of Thomas et al (2006) who reported the average output to be 22490 kilogram per hectare

However it differed from the findings of Nagesh (2001) who reported that the yield from bittergourd was 17213.8 kg per hectare. The trend observed in the class wise analysis on realized returns was similar to the results obtained in the study conducted by Sreela (2005) who reported that Class II realized the highest returns compared to Class I and Class III.

4.5 Cost of production of bittergourd

Cost of production was worked out in terms of the cost involved in producing one quintal of bittergourd. It was worked out for three classes in both the areas based on cost concepts. The results of the analysis are discussed below.

4.5.1 Cost of production of bittergourd - Nemmara

Cost of production of bittergourd in Nemmara as given in Table 4.14 showed that at aggregate level the costs were Rs 301, Rs 302, Rs 340, Rs 410, Rs 448 and Rs 492 per quintal in the respective order for Cost A₁, Cost B, Cost B₂, Cost C, Cost C₂ and Cost C₃. Class wise analysis showed that an increasing trend was observed in the case of cost of production at A, B and B₂ from Class I to Class III and the cost of production at C₁, C₂ and C₃ was found to be highest for Class I followed by Class III and II.

Table 4.14 Cost of production of bittergourd in Nemmara
(Rupees per quintal)

Particulars	Class I	Class II	Class III	Aggregate
Cost A ₁ /A ₂	259	276	308	301
Cost B ₁	260	277	308	302
Cost B ₂	300	314	346	340
Cost C ₁	425	395	412	410
Cost C ₂	465	432	450	448
Cost C ₃	512	475	495	492

4.5.2 Cost of production of bittergourd Pazhayannur

Cost of production per quintal of bittergourd in Pazhayannur is given in Table 4.15. Cost of production for the sample as a whole were Rs 296, Rs 297, Rs 336, Rs 412, Rs 451 and Rs 496 per quintal in the respective order for Cost A₁, cost B, cost B₂, cost C, Cost C₂ and cost C₃. Class wise analysis showed that an increasing trend was observed in the case of cost of production at A, B, B₂ and C from Class I to Class III. In the case of costs at C₂ and C₃, the cost of production was found to be highest for Class I followed by Class III and II. Cost of production per quintal at cost C₃ basis for Class I, Class II and Class III and at aggregate levels were Rs 525, Rs 485, Rs 508 and Rs 496 respectively.

Table 4.15 Cost of production of bittergourd in Pazhayannur (Rs per quintal)

Particulars	class I	class II	class III	Aggregate
Cost A ₁ /A ₂	270	274	312	296
Cost B ₁	271	275	313	297
Cost B ₂	312	312	353	336
Cost C ₁	436	404	422	412
Cost C ₂	477	441	462	451
Cost C ₃	525	485	508	496

On comparison of the cost of production of the two areas, it was found to be similar in both areas. Class wise analysis also showed a similar trend in both the areas. This was found to be in line with Gupta (1987) who observed that the cost of production per unit area was lower on large size farms, making them economically more efficient. The results indicate the same trend with respect to the costs A₁, B₁, B₂ and B₃. The results of the cost of production at aggregate level gave comparable results with the findings of Sreela (2005).

4.6 Farm efficiency measures

The profitability of the crop production can be judged better from the income measures namely farm business income, own farm business income, family labour income, net income and farm investment income. Income measures in relation to various cost concepts were worked out for bittergourd in both the areas and are presented and discussed below. It may be noted that the farm business income and the own farm business income were the same as the Cost A1 and Cost A2 were same. The benefit cost ratio (B/C ratio) in relation to the different cost concepts was also worked out to examine the profitability in the cultivation of bittergourd.

4.6.1 Income measures

The different income measures were analyzed for both Nemmara and Pazhayannur.

The income measures for Nemmara as given in Table 4.16 and Fig. 5 showed that the farm business income, family labour income, net income and farm investment income at the aggregate level for bittergourd were Rs 110630, Rs 102185, Rs 68279 and Rs 86655 per hectare respectively. Class wise analysis indicated that farm business income and family labour income was the largest for Class II farmers followed by Class I farmers and Class III farmers. In the case of net income and farm investment income also, Class II farmers occupied the first position but Class III came next and Class I had the lowest. Net income at Class I, Class II and Class III levels were Rs 59941, Rs 73801 and Rs 66966 per hectare in the respective order.

Table 4 16 Farm income measures of bittergourd in Nemmara
(Rupees per hectare)

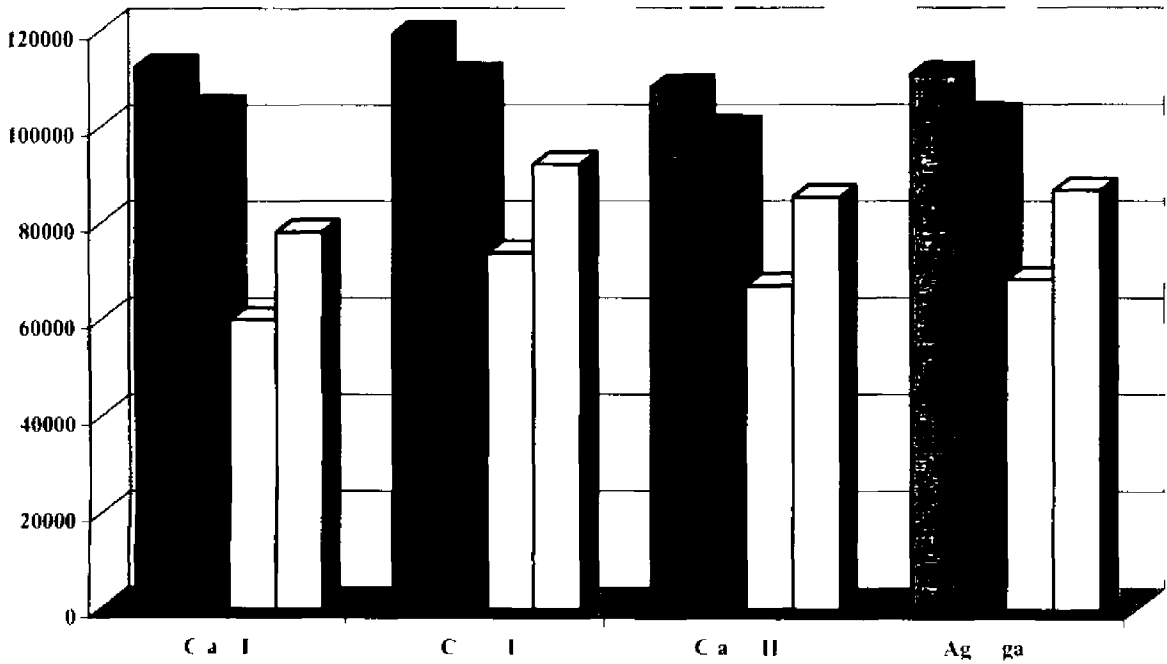
Farm efficiency measures	Income			
	Class I	Class II	Class III	Aggregate
Farm business income	112334	119085	108093	110630
Family labour income	103854	110586	99666	102185
Net income	59941	73801	66966	68279
Farm investment income	78083	92122	85283	86655

In Pazhayannur the farm business income family labour income net income and farm investment income per hectare at the aggregate level as presented in Table 4 17 and Fig 6 were Rs 108696 Rs 100104 Rs 65507 and Rs 83817 respectively Class wise analysis showed that farm business income and family labour income were the highest for Class II farmers followed by Class I farmers and Class III farmers But in the case of net income and farm investment income Class II farmers occupied the first position followed by Class III and Class I Net income per hectare at Class I Class II and Class III levels were Rs 55480 Rs 71286 and Rs 61309 in the respective order

Table 4 17 Farm income measures of bittergourd in Pazhayannur
(Rupees per hectare)

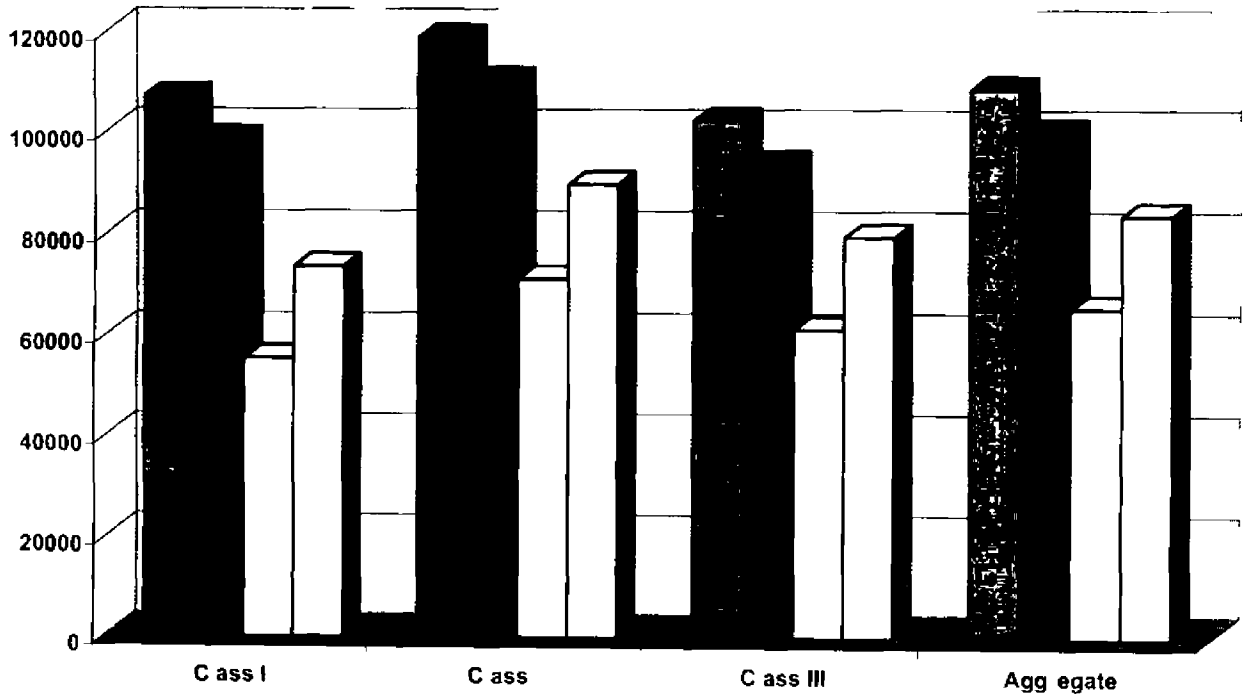
Farm efficiency measures	Income			
	Class I	Class II	Class III	Aggregate
Farm business income	107052	118897	102446	108696
Family labour income	98533	110304	93850	100104
Net income	55480	71286	61309	65507
Farm investment income	73636	89844	79595	83817

Fig 6 Farm income measures of bittergourd in Nemmara



■ Farm business income ■ Family labour income □ Net income □ Farm investment income

Fig 7 Farm income measures of bittergourd in Pazhayannur



■ Farm business income ■ Family labour income
 □ Net income □ Farm investment income

The income measures showed a similar trend in both the areas. However at the aggregate level the net income was found to be higher in Nemmara as compared to Pazhayannur. In both the areas the net income was found to be highest for Class II as compared to Class I and Class III. This was found to be in line with the findings of Sreela (2005) who reported that Class II farmers realized the highest net income and it was found to be around Rs 78044 per hectare.

4.6.2 Benefit cost ratio of bittergourd

The benefit cost ratio indicates value of output per rupee of the cost incurred. This ratio will serve as a measure which would indicate whether the cost incurred is commensurate with the returns obtained. Benefit cost ratio of bittergourd was estimated with respect to various cost concepts for the two areas and the results are presented below.

An analysis of benefit cost ratio of bittergourd in Nemmara revealed that B/C ratio was more than one at the various cost concepts for all the classes. At the aggregate level bittergourd sustained a benefit cost ratio of 1.63 at cost C₃ level and for Class I, Class II and Class III farmers it was 1.56, 1.68 and 1.62 respectively. B/C ratio at Cost A₁, B₁ and B₂ were highest for Class I followed by Class II and Class III.

Table 4.18 Benefit cost ratio of bittergourd in Nemmara

Cost	Benefit cost ratio			
	Class I	Class II	Class III	Aggregate
Cost A ₁ / A ₂	3.08	2.90	2.60	2.65
Cost B ₁	3.08	2.89	2.59	2.65
Cost B ₂	2.67	2.55	2.31	2.36
Cost C ₁	1.88	2.02	1.94	1.95
Cost C ₂	1.72	1.85	1.78	1.79
Cost C ₃	1.56	1.68	1.62	1.63

The analysis of the B C ratio of Pazhayannur as given in Table 4 19 revealed that the benefit cost ratio at aggregate level was 1 61 at cost C₃ while it was 1 65 for Class II followed by Class III (1 58) and Class I (1 52) B C ratio at Cost A₁ B₁ and B₂ were highest for Class I followed by Class II and Class III

Table 4 19 Benefit cost ratio of bittergourd in Pazhayannur

Cost	Benefit cost ratio			
	Class I	Class II	Class III	Aggregate
Cost A ₁ /A ₂	2 97	2 92	2 57	2 71
Cost B ₁	2 96	2 91	2 55	2 70
Cost B ₂	2 57	2 56	2 27	2 38
Cost C	1 83	1 98	1 90	1 94
Cost C ₂	1 68	1 82	1 73	1 77
Cost C ₃	1 52	1 65	1 58	1 61

The analysis of the benefit cost ratios revealed a similar trend in both the areas with a B C ratio of around 1 6 The high profitability of bittergourd cultivation is evident from the above results has been substantiated by the findings of Sandhya (1992) Nagesh (2001) Sreela (2005) and Thomas *et al* (2006)

4 7 Pattern of pesticide use in bittergourd

Pesticide is an important input in the cultivation of bittergourd Different pests and diseases were found to prevail in the study area. The major pests on bittergourd are fruit fly beetles jassids etc and the major diseases are mildews and mosaic

The pest management practices as per recommendation of Kerala Agricultural University are given in Table 4 20 It was observed that jassids were

a major problem in the study areas but no recommendations were made as pointed out by Sreela (2005)

Table 4 20 Recommended pest management practices

Pests/ Diseases	Management practices
Fru t fly	Application of Carbaryl 0 2% Banana fruit trap
Epilachna beetle	0 2 % Carbaryl
Red pumpkin beetle	Carbaryl 10% DP
Downy mildew	Mancozeb 0 2%
Powdery mildew	Nitrophenol 0 05%
Mosaic	Dimethoate 0 05%

The pest management practices followed by the farmers varied in both the areas. A good proportion of respondents in Pazhayannur used more of non chemical methods of pest control while the respondents in Nemmara were relying mostly on chemical pesticides. The farmers in Nemmara were mostly at the mercy of the traders who sold them the most costly chemicals as reported by Sreela (2005). However, the farmers who did not approach the Agricultural officers or the University for consultation were resorting to chemical methods of pest control as directed by the pesticide dealers.

The pest management practices followed by the farmers in the study area as given in Table 4 21 showed that the farmers did not follow the recommendations. Since fruit fly was the major problem in the study areas they used both chemical and non chemical methods to control them. Non chemical methods like pheromone trap, banana fruit trap and Thulasi trap were used by the sample farmers. For the control of Jassids, Confidor was used. Diseases like yellowing and downy mildew was tackled by using Saff and Mancozeb respectively.

Table 4 21 Pest management practices followed by sample farmers

Pests/ Diseases	Management practices of sample farmers
Fruit fly	Malathion, Tatafuran Banana fruit trap Pheromone trap Thulasi trap
Epilachna beetle	Ekalux
Red Pumpkin beetle	Ekalux
Jassids	Confidor
Yellowing	Saff
Downy mildew	Mancozeb

Most of the respondents in the study area were aware of the toxicity level of the pesticides. The awareness of the respondents with regard to toxicity level of pesticides as presented in Table 4 22 showed that in Nemmara, about 87.5 per cent of respondents were aware about the toxicity level and it was found to be 92.5 per cent in Pazhayannur. However, the survey revealed that even though they were aware, most of them were not willing to follow safety measures during the application. It may be noted that the application of the plant protection chemicals were done entirely by the family members. All the above aspects intensify the risk associated with the use of these hazardous chemicals.

Table 4 22 Awareness of farmers with respect to toxicity level

Area	Awareness of farmers with respect to toxicity level	
	Number	Percentage to total
Nemmara	35	87.5
Pazhayannur	37	92.5
Total	72	90.0

The respondents however tried to maintain at least three days gap between the application of the pesticides and the next harvest of the vegetable. The harvesting of the produce was done once in 3 to 4 days and they usually give a 3-4 days break between the application of pesticides and the next harvest.

4.9 Socio economic issues in pesticide use

Based on the results obtained in the previous section, the issues related to pesticide use were found to be important and in order to analyse the importance of pesticide in bitter melon production, the following functions were fitted, which are explained in the sections below.

4.9.1 Gross income function

The contribution of pesticides to the gross income was analysed by fitting a log-linear gross income function. The variables chosen were area, plant protection chemicals (PPC), human labour, fertilizers, and organic manure. The results of the log-linear function of Nemmara and Pazhayannur are presented in Table 4.23.

Table 4.23 Regression coefficients of gross income function analysis

Variables	Regression Coefficients	
	Nemmara	Pazhayannur
Constant	0.7824	0.8927
Area (acres) (X_1)	0.4523**	0.5682**
PPCs (Rs) (X_2)	0.2548*	0.2352**
Human labour (mandays) (X_3)	0.3323	0.5571
Fertilizers (Rs) (X_4)	0.1316	0.1873
Organic manure (Rs) (X_5)	0.2982*	0.2467**
R^2	0.6325	0.7837

** Significant at 1 per cent level

* Significant at 5 per cent level

The results revealed that in Nemmara, R^2 was found to be 0.63 indicating that 63 per cent of the variations was attributed to the variables included in the model. Area was significant at 1 per cent level indicating that the gross returns increased with the area. Plant protection chemicals and organic manure was found to be significant at 5 per cent level. The significant relationship between plant protection chemicals and gross returns indicates that the farmers used more chemicals to obtain better returns. The regression coefficients of all the variables were positive indicating that these variables influence the gross income positively though only three variables were found to be significant viz. area, plant protection chemicals and organic manure. An increase in the use of these inputs significantly increased the gross returns.

For Pazhayannur R^2 was found to be 0.78 indicating that 78 per cent of the variations were attributed to the variables included in the model. Area, plant protection chemicals and organic manure were found to be highly significant. As in the case of Nemmara, in Pazhayannur also the plant protection chemicals were found to significantly influence the gross returns.

The above results showing the importance of plant protection chemicals in determining the gross income of bitter melon was in conformity with the findings of Arunkumara (1995) who reported that plant protection chemicals were highly significant in determining the gross income of cole crop.

4.9.2 Plant protection chemical (PPC) expenditure function

A log linear function was fitted to analyse the factors influencing the expenditure on pesticides. The different independent variables selected were area in acres, gross income per farm in rupees, quantity of organic manure and fertilizer used in kilograms. The dependent variable was the expenditure on PPCs. The results of the expenditure function for Nemmara and Pazhayannur are presented in Table 4.24.

Table 4 24 Regression coefficients of PPC expenditure function analysis

Variables	Regression Coefficients	
	Nemmara	Pazhayannur
Constant	8 2213	7 1715
Area (acres) (X_1)	0 1073**	0 0982**
Family Income (Rs) (X_2)	1 0944	0 3479*
Fertilizers (X_3)	0 0944*	1 2534
Organic manure (Rs) (X_4)	0 1175	0 5540
R^2	0 7157	0 7395

** Significant at 1 per cent level

* Significant at 5 per cent level

It was found that in the case of Nemmara R^2 was 0 71 per cent indicating that 71 per cent of the variations was attributed to the selected variables All the coefficients except organic manure and family income were found to be significant Area was found to be significant at 1 per cent level indicating that the expenditure on PPCs increased with an increase in the size of holding Fertilizer use was significant at 5 per cent level of probability It shows that the application of more amounts of fertilizers resulted in an increase in the expenditure of plant protection chemicals This is due to the fact that fertilizers induce luxurious growth of the plants which in turn lead to high pest incidence The other variables were not found to be significant

In Pazhayannur R^2 was found 0 73 per cent indicating that 73 per cent of the variations was attributed to the selected variables The regression coefficient for area was found to be significant at 1 per cent level and income at 5 per cent level The coefficients of fertilizers were however not found to be significant at 1 or 5 per cent levels However it was found to be the next important variable influencing the expenditure on PPCs The regression coefficient of income was significant indicating that the expenditure on PPCs increased with an increase in the family income

It may be noted that the regression coefficient for organic manure was negative indicating an inverse relationship with the expenditure on PPCs. This is due to the fact that organic manures favour biological protection of plants. However, the regression coefficients of organic manure were found to be significant at 10 per cent level and was found to influence the expenditure on pesticides.

The above results were found to be in conformity with the findings of Arunkumara (1995) who reported that family income significantly influenced the pesticide expenditure. The significant relationship between PPC expenditure and the size of holding as evident from the expenditure function confirms the results obtained in the cost of cultivation which has been discussed earlier. It is in line with the findings of Meenaksh (1984) who reported that in large land holdings farmers spend more on pesticides.

4.10 Technical efficiency of bitter melon

Efficiency is a very important concept in production economics where resources are meagre and opportunities for developing and adopting better technologies are competitive. Efficiency of a farm refers to its performance in the utilization of resources at its disposal. It is also important to know how well the resources are being utilized and what possibilities exist for improving the operational efficiency in the phase of overall resource scarcity.

Efficiency studies would show whether it is still possible to raise productivity by improving the level of efficiency without actually increasing the resource base. Estimates on the extent of inefficiency would also help to decide whether to improve efficiency (or) to develop technologies to raise agricultural productivity.

In the present study to understand the technical efficiency among the vegetable farmers the stochastic frontier function of Cobb Douglas form was estimated using Maximum Likelihood Estimator (MLE) method. The technical efficiency of bittergourd farmers in Nemmara and Pazhayannur was estimated through a frontier production function. The variables were expenditure on manures and fertilizers, expenditure on PPC and labour expenses and the dependent variable was yield of bittergourd in kilograms. The Ordinary Least Square (OLS) in Nemmara and Pazhayannur is given in Table 4.25.

Table 4.25 OLS estimates of frontier function for bittergourd

Explanatory variables	Nemmara	Pazhayannur
Constant	0.9777	1.8963
Manures	0.2359*	0.1677
Human Labor	0.6047**	0.4747**
Fertilizer	0.6070	0.228
Plant protection	0.1650**	0.3151**
R ²	0.9189	0.9358

** Significant at 1 per cent level

* Significant at 5 per cent level

The results revealed that R² was found to be above 0.91 in both the areas indicating the importance of variables chosen. The variables PPC and labour was found to be significant at 1 per cent level in both the areas while manures were found to be significant at 5 per cent level in Nemmara and insignificant in Pazhayannur. As already explained in earlier sections on the cost of cultivation labour expenditure was the most important item in the cultivation of bittergourd which is in conformity with the above results. In the case of PPC also significantly influence the yield of bittergourd.

The Maximum Likelihood Estimates of bittergourd in Nemmara and Pazhayannur as presented in Table 4.26 gave similar results as OLS estimates. In Nemmara, plant protection and labour was found to be significant at 1 per cent level indicating their influence on yield. Thus labour and PPC were found to be

the major contributing factors in determining bittergourd yield. Labour was found to be more significant than PPC indicating that bittergourd cultivation is labour intensive. The value of γ indicated that 61.42 per cent of the variation between the actual output and the maximum possible output was due to the technical inefficiency at the farmers level. Mean technical efficiency (MTE) was found to be 0.79. Thus the farmers were 21 per cent less efficient in utilizing the inputs and hence they had the potential to increase the yield.

Table 4.26 Maximum Likelihood Estimates of bittergourd

Explanatory variables	Nemmara	Pazhayannur
Constant	1.9334	1.1939
Manures	0.1402	0.2391
Human Labor	0.5178**	0.6038**
Fertilizer	0.2376	0.6584
Plant protection	0.2825**	0.1655**
σ^2_u	0.09091	0.1342
σ^2_v	0.05710	0.0680
γ	0.6142	0.6636
MTE	0.79	0.84

** Significant at 1 per cent level

* Significant at 5 per cent level

In Pazhayannur also plant protection and labour was found to be significant at 1 per cent level indicating their influence on the yield of bittergourd. The value of γ indicated that 66.36 per cent of the variation between the actual output and the maximum possible output was due to the technical inefficiency at the farmer's level. Mean technical efficiency (MTE) was found to be 0.84. Thus the farmers were 16 per cent less efficient in utilizing the inputs and hence they had the potential to increase the yield.

The above results on the importance of labour and PPC significantly influencing the yield is in conformity with the findings of Sreela (2005). It was observed by her that when land was included as one of the variables the

parameter of the model namely land labour plant protect on fertiizer and manure plant protection was found to be most significantly influencing the yield However the mean technical efficiency (MTE) of bittergourd obtained in the study area was not in line with the findings of Sreela (2005) and was found to be lower But it was in line with the results obtained in the study by Nagesh (2001) who estimated the MTE of the bittergourd growers as 80 per cent

The technical efficiency of the individual farms was also worked out as the ratio between the actual output to the frontier output The frequency d strbution of the farmers according to the farm specific technical efficiency s presented in Table 4 27

Table 4 27 Frequency distri bution of farm specific technical efficiency

Efficiency level	Nemmara	Pazhayannur
Below 0 70	4 (10 0)	1 (2 5)
0 70 0 80	13 (32 5)	16 (40 0)
0 80 0 90	23 (57 5)	21 (52 5)
Above 0 90	0 (0 0)	2 (5 0)
Total	40 (100)	40 (100)

* Figures in parentheses show percentage to total

The results revealed that there is wide variation in the level of efficiency across farms It varied between 0 61 to 0 87 in Nemmara while for Pazhayannur it varied between 0 69 to 0 91 In Nemmara 57 5 percent of farmers had an efficiency level between 0 80 and 0 90 while it was 52 5 per cent in Pazhayannur Only 5 0 per cent of farmers he above an effi cency level of 0 90 in Pazhayannur while none of the farmers had eff ciency level above 90 per cent in Nemmara The mean techn cal effi cency was found to be higher n

Pazhayannur when compared to Nemmara which means farmers in Pazhayannur was more efficient than the farmers in Nemmara

4.10 Factors influencing the overuse of pesticides

In analysing the technical efficiency it was found that there is overuse of chemicals in both the areas. The overuse of chemicals results in many environmental and health problems which is not accounted in the cost. Such an effect is termed as externality.

According to Bromley (1993) externality refers to instances where the action of one person results in the unwanted costs being vested on another person for which no accounting is done. The major externalities conceptualized are technological externality and negative externality. The additional costs each farmer is incurring through excess use of plant protection chemicals compared to the frontier levels is measured and is used as a way to estimate the technological externality by comparing each farmer with an efficient level. Interspatial or negative externality is the externality on others in the productive process. Consumer Willingness To Pay is considered as a proxy for negative welfare effect which includes the health hazards due to pesticide on consumers due to its consumption.

Here an attempt is made to identify the factors influencing the overuse of plant protection chemicals. The percentage overuse of PPC was assumed to be a linear function of age of the farmer, number of years of schooling, experience in the use of PPC (years), gross income (Rs), organic manures (Rs), fertilizers (Rs) and characteristics of farmers like consultation services availed from the specialists and awareness of toxicity levels of pesticides.

Qualitative characteristics of farmers were included because farmers were overusing the plant protection chemicals due to both socio-economic

reasons and extension factors influencing their decision to use the chemicals
The results are presented in Table 4 28

Table 4 28 Factors influencing the overuse of plant protection chemicals in bittergourd

Sl No	Independent variables	Regression coefficients	
		Nemmara	Pazhayannur
1	Constant	76 1554	108 62
2	Age (years)	0 7346E-02	1 9325
3	No of years of schooling	0 5758	8 1841
4	No of years of application of agro chemicals	0 22098	2 602
5	Gross income	0 1043E 05**	0 1050**
6	Expenditure on organic manure (Rs)	0 76512E-03*	0 1468*
7	Expenditure on fertilizers (Rs)	0 6141E 02	0 1959
8	Consultation with specialists	82 17884	52 5412*
9	Awareness of toxicity levels	8 4547	72 7627
10	R ²	0 4867	0 5214

** Significant at 1 per cent level

* Significant at 5 per cent level

The results showed that R² was 0 49 in Nemmara and 0 52 in Pazhayannur indicating that 49 and 52 per cent of the variations in the overuse of pesticides were explained by the variables chosen In Nemmara, gross income of farmers was significant at 1 per cent level and the variables education and expenditure on organic manure was found to be significant at 5 per cent level It was found that in both the areas the coefficients of gross income and expenditure on organic manure were negative indicating that they are inversely related to pesticide use The significant negative regression coefficient for consultation with specialist in Pazhayannur indicates that variable is inversely related with the pesticide overuse This indicates that the farmers having higher gross income those applying more organic manure and those who consulted specialists displayed a tendency to use pesticides efficiently

The study conducted by Poornima (1999) gave similar results wherein the farmers who were aged having higher gross income those applying more

FYM those who consulted specialists and those who applied prophylactic dose of chemicals were found to use pesticides optimally

4.12 Consumer awareness with respect to pesticide residues

A consumer survey was conducted in order to analyse the awareness among the consumers with regard to the pesticide residue in bittergourd. The survey was based on 75 consumers who were interviewed to elucidate their awareness on pesticide residues and their Willingness To Pay Premium (WTPP) for pesticide free bittergourd. A higher premium indicates the scope for markets in selling pesticide free bittergourd. The results of the analysis of the WTPP are presented below.

4.12.1 Willingness to pay premium for pesticide free bittergourd

The Willingness To Pay Premium (WTPP) for pesticide residue free bittergourd was elucidated from the consumers. It was hypothesized that consumer would pay a premium for pesticide free bittergourd. The difference between the WTPP and market price can be considered as externality cost to the consumer.

It was found that about 82.5 per cent of the consumers were aware of the pesticide residues. On an average, the consumers were willing to pay Rs 12.21 per kg as price for pesticide free bittergourd. The price premium formed 52.63 per cent above the market price of Rs 8 per kg. This can be addressed in the framework of negative externality.

The consumers were grouped into high, medium and low according to their monthly income level and the WTPP was separately analysed in each group. 25 consumers each were surveyed in these income groups and the average WTPP in each group is given in Table 4.29.

Table 4 29 Consumers WTPP according to income group

Income group	WTPP (Rs /kg)
High	7
Medium	4
Low	2
Average	4.21

The results reveal the fact that the WTPP increased as the income of the consumers increased and average WTPP was found to be Rs 4.21 per kilogram.

A logistic regression was estimated to analyse the factors influencing the consumer WTPP for pesticide residue free bitter melon and the results are presented in Table 4.30. The independent variables chosen were the income of the consumers, awareness of the consumer with regard to the pesticide residues and the education level of the consumers.

Table 4.30 Results of logistic regression of WTPP of consumers

Sl No	Independent variables	Estimated coefficient
1	Income (X_1)	0.95150E 05**
2	Awareness of pesticide residues (X_2)	0.19649**
3	Education level (scores) (X_3)	0.32069E 03

** Significant at 1 per cent level

* Significant at 5 per cent level

Using the model, the probability of $WTPP > \text{Rs } 2/\text{kg}$ of the prevailing market price was worked out considering the independent variables as explained above. Both awareness with respect to pesticide residues and income were found to be significant at 1 per cent level, indicating that the WTPP was directly related to these variables. This means that the consumers who were aware of the pesticide

residues and who had higher income level were willing to pay more as the price premium for pesticide free bittergourd. However, the education level did not show any significant influence on WTPP.

The results obtained on the WTPP as explained above are in conformity with the findings of past studies on other crops. Poomma (1999) got similar results while analyzing the results of consumer awareness regarding pesticide residue free grapes. On an average, the consumers were willing to pay a premium of Rs 11.42 per kg for pesticide free grapes and the income of the consumer and awareness of pesticide residues were found to be significant and positive. An analysis of the willingness to pay premium for pesticide free cabbage by Arunkumara (1995) indicated that the average WTPP was Rs 1.60 per kg of pesticide free cabbage and it was 50 per cent higher than the market price.

The WTPP is a measure of the negative externality. The WTPP of more than Rs 4 per kilogram of bittergourd obtained in the present study shows the scope of markets for pesticide free bittergourd and organic cultivation. Few farmers in the study area had tried the organic cultivation of bittergourd and were faced with certain constraints.

The main constraint was that the produce fails to find market when sold along with the inorganically cultivated bittergourd, as the size of the bittergourd was small when compared to the bittergourd obtained from the organic cultivation. The farmers opined that unless and until the whole area practiced organic pest management, there would not be good results of the same. The yield obtained was low when compared to inorganic cultivation and the price received was lower than expected. The lack of separate markets for selling organically produced bittergourd was another constraint identified by them.

Summary and conclusion

5 SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

India is the second largest producer of vegetables in the world next only to China. In 2004 India produced 84.8 million tonnes of vegetables from 5.9 million hectares of land. India shares about 13 per cent of the world output of vegetables from about 2.8 per cent of the cropped area in the country. Fruits and vegetable crops receive considerably high quantity of pesticides and with a cropped area of 3 per cent they consume 13 per cent of total pesticides in the country. In Kerala, vegetable cultivation is taken on a commercial basis and the common vegetables cultivated are bittergourd, snakegourd, ivy gourd, amaranthus, tomato, chillies, cucumber etc. Bitter gourd is an important vegetable crop cultivated in the state mainly because of its excellent nutritional values. Bitter gourd is cultivated in the state on a commercial basis in an area of 2162 hectares of which Palakkad and Thrissur districts contribute 11.65 per cent and 12.16 per cent respectively to the total area. The usage of pesticides in the crop is found to be more when compared to other vegetables as the pest attack is severe in the crop. In this context, the present study was undertaken with the objective of analysing the costs and returns, pesticide use pattern, socio-economic issues in pesticide use and the consumer awareness regarding pesticide use in bittergourd.

The study was undertaken in Palakkad and Thrissur districts and from these districts Nemmara and Pazhayannur panchayats were selected purposively. From the list of farmers cultivating bittergourd, a sample of 40 farmers were selected from each panchayat which were categorized into three groups based on the area under bittergourd as Class I (<50 cents), Class II (50-100 cents) and Class III (>100 cents). The data was collected from the farmers through personal interview method using well-structured and pre-tested interview schedule. A separate schedule for consumer survey was prepared and the data on the consumer awareness regarding pesticide use in bittergourd and the willingness to pay for pesticide-free bittergourd from 75 consumers belonging to different income groups in Thrissur was collected. The cost of cultivation was worked out using

operation wise approach and input wise approach by employing the ABC cost concepts of farm management. The issues related to pesticide use was analysed using the gross income function and pesticide expenditure function. The technical efficiency of the farmers was analysed for both the areas using frontier production function and the factors influencing the overuse of chemicals was assessed by fitting a linear function. The consumer awareness regarding the pesticide use in bittergourd was analysed by assessing the Willingness To Pay Premium (WTPP) for pesticide free bittergourd using logistic regression.

Bittergourd is an important vegetable crop and the common varieties cultivated in the study area were Preethi, Priya and Priyanka. The different inputs and operations in bittergourd cultivation were identified and the input wise and operation wise costs were worked out for both Nemmara and Pazhayannur. At the aggregate level, the input wise cost of cultivation at cost C_3 was found to be Rs 109241 in Nemmara and Rs 106901 in Pazhayannur. Class wise analysis revealed that in Pazhayannur the cost was highest in Class II followed by Class III and Class I and in Nemmara the cost of cultivation showed an increasing trend from Class I to Class III. Human labour accounted for the highest share among the inputs in both the areas. The contribution of plant protection chemicals was found to be higher in Nemmara as compared to Pazhayannur. At the aggregate level, the contribution of plant protection chemicals was found to be 4.01 per cent in Nemmara and 3.21 per cent in Pazhayannur.

The analysis of operation wise cost of cultivation revealed that manuring and fertilizer application contributed the highest share in all the three classes and at the aggregate level. The results showed a similar trend in both the areas. The application of plant protection chemicals which includes both the cost of chemicals and labour charges contributed a share of 5.64 per cent in Nemmara and 5.00 per cent in Pazhayannur. In both the areas, only family labour was engaged in this operation.

At the aggregate level the yield and returns per hectare was found to be 22190 kg per hectare and Rs 177520 per hectare in Nemmara and 21551 kg per hectare and Rs 172408 per hectare in Pazhayannur. The cost of production was found to be Rs 492 per quintal at cost C_3 for Nemmara and Rs 496 per quintal in Pazhayannur.

The socioeconomic issues in pesticide use was analysed by fitting function for identifying the factors influencing the overuse of plant protection chemicals and the consumer willingness to pay for pesticide residue free bitter melon. The gross income function was fitted to assess the contribution of pesticides to gross income. The results showed that in Nemmara, area was found to be significant at 1 per cent level and plant protection chemicals and organic manure at 5 per cent level. In Pazhayannur area, plant protection chemicals and organic manure were significant at 1 per cent level. The analysis revealed that plant protection chemicals play a significant role in the gross income of the farmer.

The factors influencing the pesticide expenditure was analysed using a log linear function with expenditure on plant protection chemicals as dependent variable. It was found that area was significant at 1 per cent level in both Nemmara and Pazhayannur. Fertilizers and income were found to be significant at 5 per cent level in Nemmara and Pazhayannur respectively. The significant relationship between PPC expenditure and size of holding indicates that the usage of plant protection chemicals increases with the size of holding. So also in the case of fertilizers and income which exhibited a positive relationship with plant protection chemicals expenditure.

Technical efficiency of bitter melon was estimated using the stochastic frontier production function. The analysis of efficiency revealed the mean technical efficiency of Nemmara and Pazhayannur as 0.79 and 0.84 respectively. The OLS estimates showed that human labour and PPC was significant at 1 per cent level in both the areas and manures at 5 per cent level in Nemmara. The

Maximum Likelihood estimates gave similar results γ was found to be 0.6142 for Nemmara and 0.6636 for Pazhayannur. The frequency distribution of sample farmers according to the farm specific technical efficiency showed that 50.60 per cent of the farmers in both the areas lie in an efficiency level of 80-90 per cent. However, farmers of Pazhayannur were found to be more technically efficient than Nemmara.

On the analysis of stochastic production frontier, it has been found that the farmers overused the chemicals and hence an attempt was made to analyse the factors influencing the overuse of PPCs. It was found that in Nemmara and Pazhayannur, gross income was significant at 1 per cent level. However, the coefficient was negative, indicating a negative relationship with the overuse of chemicals. The farmers having higher gross income, those applying more organic manure and those who consulted specialists displayed a tendency to use pesticides conservatively.

A consumer survey was conducted in order to analyse the awareness among them with regard to the pesticide residue in bittergourd and their willingness to pay premium (WTPP) for pesticide free bittergourd. On an average, the consumers were willing to pay Rs. 4.21 per kg more as price for pesticide free bittergourd. The price premium formed 52.63 per cent above the market price. A logistic regression was estimated to analyse the factors influencing the consumer WTPP for pesticide residue free bittergourd and the results showed that awareness with respect to pesticide residues and income were found to be highly significant, indicating that the WTPP was directly related to these variables. This means that the consumers who were aware of the pesticide residues and who had higher income level were willing to pay more as the price premium for pesticide free bittergourd.

The analysis of the WTPP revealed the scope of organic production of bittergourd. However, some constraints were identified in the organic

production. The main constraint was that the produce fails to find market when sold along with the inorganically cultivated bittergourd as the size of the bittergourd was small when compared to the bittergourd obtained from the inorganic cultivation. The farmers were also of the opinion that until the whole area practices organic pest management there would not be good results of the same. The yield obtained was low when compared to inorganic cultivation and the price received is lower than expected. The lack of separate markets for selling organically produced bittergourd at attractive prices was another constraint.

The major findings of the study are summarized as follows:

- The total cost of cultivation of bittergourd at aggregate level was Rs 109241 and Rs 106901 per hectare in Nemmara and Pazhayannur respectively.
- Among the inputs, labour charges constituted the major share followed by manures.
- Among the different operations, manuring and fertilizer application occupied the lion's share.
- The pesticide usage in the study area was found to be indiscriminate and the usage of plant protection chemicals was found to increase with an increase in holding size.
- The yield and returns per hectare was found to be 22190 kg and Rs 177520 in Nemmara and 21551 kg and Rs 172408 in Pazhayannur.
- The B:C ratio was found to be 1:63 in Nemmara and 1:61 in Pazhayannur.
- In the analysis of gross income function, area, PPC and organic manure was found to be significantly influencing the gross income.
- The analysis of factors influencing the pesticide expenditure showed that area, fertilizer and income were found to be the significant determinants.

- Technical efficiency studies indicated the overuse of chemicals and the mean technical efficiency was found to be 0.79 for Nemmara and 0.84 for Pazhayannur
- The factor significantly influencing the overuse of chemicals in both the areas was found to be gross income with a negative coefficient
- The consumer survey revealed that the average WTPP was Rs 4.21 per kilogram and it was 52.63 per cent above market price

Based on the above findings the following suggestions are put forth

- The indiscriminate use of hazardous chemicals should be regulated by suitable policy measures
There is vast scope for organic markets in bittergourd and hence the production on an organic basis should be taken up
- ❖ Extension activities to popularize the importance of non chemical methods of pest control like pheromone trap to be intensified
- ❖ Price differentiation for organically produced bittergourd to ensure better production and incentive to farmers
- ❖ Appropriate extension activities to give training support to farmers regarding safe application of pesticides
Regulation of indiscriminate supply of pesticides by the dealers to the farmers through suitable measures

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SOCIO-ECONOMIC ISSUES IN PESTICIDE USE: AN ANALYSIS IN BITTERGOURD

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ABSTRACT OF THE THESIS

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ABSTRACT

The present study on the Socio economic issues on pesticide use An analysis in bittergourd was conducted to study the economics analyse pattern of pesticide use and examine the socio economic issues in use of pesticides in bitter gourd The study was taken up in Palakkad and Thrissur districts where bittergourd cultivation is taken up on a commercial scale From the d stricts Nemmara and Pazhayannur panchayats were selected for the study

The total cost of cultivation per hectare at C₃ level in bittergourd cultivation was found to be Rs 109240 in Nemmara and Ps 106901 in Pazhayannur The benefit cost ratio was found to be 1.63 in Nemmara and 1.61 in Pazhayannur Among the inputs labour charges constituted the major share followed by manures Among the different operations manuring and fertilizer application occupied the lion s share

The pesticide usage in the study area was found to be indiscriminate and the usage of plant protection chemicals was found to increase with an increase in holding size The respondents in Pazhayannur were resorting more on non chemical methods of pest control The yield and returns per hectare was found to be 22190 kg and Rs 177520 in Nemmara and 21551 kg and Rs 172408 in Pazhayannur

In the analysis of gross income function area PPC and organic manure was found to be significantly influencing the gross income The factors influencing the pesticide expenditure were analyzed and the study showed that area fertilizer and income was found to have significant influence on pesticide expenditure In the estimation of technical efficiency using maximum likelihood estimates plant protection chemicals and human labour were found to be significant The mean technical efficiency in bittergourd production was found to be higher n Pazhayannur (0.84) as compared to Nemmara (0.79)

In the analysis of the factors influencing the overuse of pesticides the gross income was found to have significant influence on the overuse of pesticides. Consumer survey revealed that 82.5 per cent of consumers were aware of the pesticide residues and the Willingness To Pay Premium (WTPP) was found to be Rs 4.21 per kilogram of bittergourd.

The major constraints in the organic production of bittergourd was the lack of proper markets for selling organically produced bittergourd, non-uniformity in the cultivation practices in an area and small size of the produce obtained through organic cultivation.