Technical efficiency and technology gaps of sorghum plots in Uganda: A gendered stochastic metafrontier analysis

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ABSTRACT

Sorghum plot managers in different locations have varying levels of resource endowment that in turn influence technical efficiency (TE). Therefore, plot managers operate at different levels of technology. The present study applied a stochastic metafrontier approach to assess TE and technology gaps of female, male and jointly-managed sorghum plots. A two limit-Tobit model was subsequently applied to assess determinants of TE. Results indicate that male-managed sorghum plots had the highest metafrontier technical efficiencies (MTEs) (61%, 56% and 15%) and technology gap ratios (TGRs) (98%, 92% and 20%) for Lira, Serere and Kumi districts, respectively compared to female and jointly managed plots. However, jointly managed plots had higher TE and TGRs compared to female plot managers but lower than those of the male-managed plots. Age, distance to plot and farmer group membership influenced TE positively while household size, years of farming sorghum and access to credit had negative effects on efficiency.

1. Introduction

Empirical analysis of farm technical efficiency (TE) gives useful insights on how farmers are utilizing the available inputs while technology gap ratios (TGRs) account for technology heterogeneity among producers (Battese and Rao, 2002). There is mixed literature about TE of plot managers. Most studies have documented that female plot managers have lower TE and TGRs compared to their male counterparts (see for example, Tesfaye et al., 2015; Sell et al., 2018; Danso-Abbeam et al., 2020). However, other studies such as Simoyan et al. (2015) show contrary results. The differences have often been linked to constraints that female farmers encounter in accessing and utilizing farm inputs (Gomez et al., 2020); For instance, Sell et al. (2018) attributed the low TE and TGRs for female plot managers to lack of official land titling that acts as a hindrance to accessing micro-credit since most mainstream banks require collateral for loans. Due to this, purchase of improved farm inputs and access to agricultural innovations becomes a challenge thus negatively affects women's efficiency (Sell et al., 2018). However, Doss (2018) noted that in situations where differences in access to inputs is controlled for, female farmers are as equally productive as their male counterparts. Several past studies on gender gaps in TE and TGRs such as Marinda et al. (2006), Dadzie and Dasmani (2010) and Tesfaye et al. (2015) concentrated on female and male-owned plots. While other studies such as Sell et al. (2018) have assessed differences in TE among male, female and jointly managed plots in Uganda, empirical analysis of TGRs along gender lines on crops such as sorghum that receive little policy attention and are thus relegated to orphan-crops status, remain limited as most previous studies focused on staple cereals like maize.

In Uganda, sorghum is an important dryland cereal after maize and wheat in terms of production (Wang et al., 2015). It is majorly grown in the lowland areas of North and Eastern region and the South-Western highlands. The land under sorghum cultivation has increased from 280,000 ha to 370,000 ha in the last decade and it serves as a traditional delicacy mixed with legumes, as fermented or unfermented porridge and locally brewed beer. Industrially, it is used to produce sorghum syrup, starch, alcohol and edible oils (Adebo, 2020). The main sorghum varieties grown in Uganda include NAROSOG-1, NAROSOG-2, NAROSOG-3, NAROSOG-4, SESO-1, SESO-2 and SESO-3 that are good for human food, forage, yeast and brewing (Lubadde et al., 2019). Production is done under pure and mixed stands and occupies approximately 400,000 ha of the total arable land (Tenywa et al., 2018).
The agricultural sector in Uganda accounts for 72% of all the employed women and nearly 76% of all rural women while around 65% of men in rural areas are employed in the sector (FAO, 2018). Despite the high percentage of women working in agriculture, only 20% own registered land (Sanjines et al., 2018). However, the over-emphasis of current agricultural policy and institutional support services in Africa on maize (Abdulai et al., 2018) and the neglect of sorghum provides an important justification to empirically assess TE and TGRs along gender perspective in order to inform food security and livelihood development initiatives for sustainability.

From a conceptual point of view, most previous studies have used household headship as the gender indicator in the efficiency model (Tesfaye et al., 2015; Addison et al., 2016; Gebremariam et al., 2019). This ignores the possibility that other household members besides the household head could be in charge of daily decisions on plot activities. Therefore, using the household head as the gender identifier constrains matching the individual in charge of the plot activities to input use and productivity (Peterman et al., 2011). In addition, while recent studies such as Osanya et al. (2020) offer insights on intra-household decision making on resource sharing, the existing literature on TE is predominantly based on farm-level data rather than plot-level data; this ignores the possibility of a farmer having multiple plots with varying characteristics (Owusu et al., 2017). The current study contributes to the literature on efficiency by using sex of the plot manager as the gender indicator on plot-level data.

2. Methodology

2.1. Sampling and data collection

The study used sex-disaggregated farm-level data that was categorized into female, male and jointly managed plots. This data was collected from a multistage sample of 362 farmers by the International Crops Research Institute for the Semi-Arid Tropics (ICRISAT) in Uganda. First, three districts (Lira, Serere and Kumi district) were purposely chosen because they are major sorghum growing regions in Uganda. Lira district is located on the Northern region which contributes approximately 49% of the total production while Serere and Kumi districts are located on the Eastern region which contributes about 40% (Lubadde et al., 2019). Second, within the three districts, smaller administrative units with higher concentration of sorghum farms namely; Amach and Agali sub-counties in Lira, Katete in Kumi and Mukongoro in Serere were chosen. Finally, a probability proportionate to size method was used to distribute the sample across the three sites; 171 in Lira, 111 in Serere and 80 respondents in Kumi districts. A semi-structured questionnaire (ICRISAT, 2017) was applied in data collection using the Open Data Kit (ODK). Although this study did not involve use of human and/or animal samples/experiments, necessary ethical approval was obtained from the Institutional Ethics Committee (IEC) at ICRISAT. Further, informed consent was sought from all farmers before they were interviewed and assurance was given to them that any information collected would be treated with utmost confidentiality.

2.2. Analytical framework

Technology differences among farms can be accounted for using either a stochastic metafrontier approach or latent class model (Alvarez and Corral, 2010; Battese and Rao, 2002). In this study, we choose the metafrontier approach since it is applicable for analysis of either cross sectional data (which is available in this case) or panel data (Battese et al., 2004). As noted by Otieno (2011), the use of latent class modelling is limited to panel data.

First, the stochastic frontier for male, female and jointly managed sorghum plots assuming there are $n$ regions were specified as:

$$Q_{iz} = f \left( X_{iz} : \beta_i \right) e^{u_i} i = 1, 2, \ldots, N ; j = \text{Female managed plot} (1),$$

$$\text{Male managed plot} (2), \quad \text{Jointly managed plot} (3)$$

$Q_{iz}$ represents sorghum output of the $i$th plot for the $k$th plot manager group, $X_{iz}$ represents a vector for the $i$th variable input used in the $i$th plot for the $k$th plot manager group involved in the $i$th region, $e^{u_i}$ is a vector of coefficients associated with the independent variables for the stochastic frontier for the $k$th plot manager group involved in the $i$th region, $e^{u_k}$ is a composite error term made of statistical noise $v_{ik}$ and inefficiency term $u_{ik}$ (Aigner et al., 1977).

Following Battese and Corra (1977), the variation of output from the frontier due to $u_{ik}$ is defined by:

$$\gamma = \frac{\sigma^2_{uk}}{\sigma^2_{u_k}}$$

and $0 \leq \gamma \leq 1$

where $\sigma^2 = \sigma^2_{uk} + \sigma^2_{u_k}$

As noted by O’Donnell et al. (2008) the estimation of stochastic frontiers requires specification of the functional form since this can influence the efficiency estimates. Therefore, a likelihood ratio (LR) test was performed to test which functional form between Cobb-Douglas and trans-log fits the data well. The likelihood ratio test was specified as shown in Eq. (3) to test the null hypothesis that Cobb-Douglas provides a better fit for the data (Battese et al., 2004):

$$LR = -2 \left\{ L(\text{H}_0) - L(\text{H}_1) \right\}$$

where $L(\text{H}_0) = \text{Log likelihood of Cobb Douglas functional form and } L(\text{H}_1) = \text{Log likelihood of the alternate translog functional form.}$

The Cobb-Douglas production frontier for male, female and jointly managed sorghum plots was therefore specified as shown in Eq. (4):

$$\text{male managed plots (2), Jointly managed plot (3)}$$

where $Q_{iz}$ represents sorghum output (kg), $X_{iz}$ denotes vectors for variable inputs used in the plots such as sorghum seeds (kg), plot size (acres), family labour (person hours) and hired labour (person hours), $\beta_i$ represents the constant term, $\beta_{ik}$ denotes coefficients of the inputs used, $v_{ik}$ is statistical noise and $u_{ik}$ is technical inefficiency.

The TE of the $i$th plot in the $z$th region with respect to the specific stochastic frontier is defined as the ratio of the observed output $Q_i$ to $Q_{iz}$ assuming there are no inefficiencies in the production (Aigner et al., 1977; Battese et al., 2004):

$$TE_i = Q_i / Q_{iz} = f \left( X_{iz} : \beta_i \right) e^{u_i} / f \left( X_{iz} : \beta_i \right) e^{u_k} = e^{-u_k}$$

(Battese and Coelli, 1988) noted that the most appropriate predictor of TE can be derived by re-writing Eq. (5) above as follows:

$$TE_i = E[\exp(-u_k)] \quad 0 \leq TE_i \leq 1$$
metafrontier, which is assumed to be a smooth function that envelopes the specific male, female and jointly managed plots’ stochastic frontiers (Battese and Rao, 2002). However, metafrontier estimation requires parameters obtained from initial stochastic frontier analysis. The metafrontier of the pooled sorghum plots’ managers is given by:

\[
\ln Q^i_{z} = \beta_0^z + \sum_{j=1}^{n} \beta_j^z \ln X_j^z + \epsilon_j^z, \quad j = 1, 2, 3, \ldots, j
\]  

(7)

where;

- \(Q^i_{z}\) represents the metafrontier output from 2nd regions, \(X_j^z\) denotes vectors for variable inputs used in the plots such as seeds (kg), plot size (acres), family labour (person hours) and hired labour (person hours), \(\beta_j^z\) represents the constant, \(\beta_j^z\) denotes parameters to be estimated, * represents the metafrontier and \(\epsilon_j^z\) denotes the error term.

In this model, only the output and input variables were included. The metafrontier approach accounts for deviation between an observed level of output and the highest output that is realized in the group frontiers given a specific input level as well as accounting for the differences in technology (Battese et al., 2004).

The parameters \(\beta_j^z\) of the metafrontier were estimated by solving a linear minimization problem, which was expressed as:

\[
\min_{\beta_j^z} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \left| \ln f(X_i; \beta^z) - \ln f(X_i; \beta^z) \right|
\]

(8)

subject to \(\ln f(X_i; \beta^z) \geq \ln f(X_i; \beta^z)\)

where \(\ln f(X_i; \beta^z)\) denotes the metafrontier and \(\ln f(X_i; \beta^z)\) are the plot manager frontiers (Battese et al., 2004).

With reference to the metafrontier, the observed sorghum output of the 2nd plot with the 3rd plot manager in the 2nd region measured using the stochastic frontier shown earlier in Eq. (6) is given by Eq. (9):

\[
Q^i_{z} = e^{-\epsilon_i} \cdot \frac{f(x_{i, k}; \beta)}{f(x_{i, k}; \beta)} \cdot e^{\epsilon_i}
\]

(9)

In Eq. (9), \(\frac{f(x_{i, k}; \beta)}{f(x_{i, k}; \beta)}\) refers to the technology gap and it is a measure that lies between 0 and 1, hence:

\[
TGR_{ak} = \frac{f(x_{i, k}; \beta)}{f(x_{i, k}; \beta)}
\]

(10)

Therefore, \(TE_{ak}^z\) can be derived through multiplying the TE from the stochastic frontier of the individual group by the TGR such that:

\[
TE_{ak}^z = TE_{ak} \times TGR_{ak}
\]

(11)

After estimation of MTEs, a two-limit-tobit model was applied to analyze determinants of TE because efficiency scores are bounded between 0 and 1 (Wang and Schmidt, 2002). While we recognize the observation by Schmidt (2011) that such a two-stage estimation procedure lacks consistency in assumptions regarding the distribution of inefficiencies, our approach is similar to the non-neutral stochastic frontier model proposed by Huang and Liu (1994). Specifically, Huang and Liu (1994) used a hybrid model comprising a stochastic frontier regression to obtain TE scores and a subsequent truncated regression to identify sources of efficiency. Moreover, in our case, the two-limit tobit approach is preferred over a single stage stochastic frontier model since it accounts for technology differences (Chen and Song, 2008; Otieno et al., 2014). The two-limit tobit model was expressed as follows.

\[
u' = X\beta + e\]

(12)

where \(v'\) denotes a continuous latent value of the TE score, \(u\) represents the observed value of the metafrontier TE score, \(X\) is a matrix of various socio-economic characteristics of sorghum farmers and other independent variables that may affect efficiency, \(\beta\) represents vectors to be estimated and \(e\) is the random term.

The empirical data analysis involved use of the statistical package for social scientists (SPSS) to generate descriptive measures such as means and standard deviations for key variables; Frontier 4.1 software for TE analysis and; Shazam 11.1.4 software to estimate TGRs and bootstrapping technique to derive robust standard errors from the metafrontier parameters.

3. Results and discussions

3.1. Descriptive statistics

Majority of sorghum plot managers across the three study sites were adults with significant differences in average age. The plot managers had low formal education; less than 6 years of schooling on average (Table 1). This indicates that sorghum plot managers only attained primary level education.

The mean years of sorghum growing in the three study sites was over 7 years for all plot managers, with male plot managers having grown the crop for a longer period. The average sorghum plot size across all plot managers in the three study areas was significantly different, but less than 1 ha; hence they are assumed to be smallholder farmers. This is consistent with Cervantes-godoy (2015) who defined smallholder farmers as those owning less than 2 ha of land.

There are significant statistical differences among the three study areas in usage of farm inputs except fertilizer. Male plot managers had the highest average quantity of seed used and the mean person hours of family labour used across all the three districts. This corroborates the observation by Gobere et al. (2019) that male plot managers have greater access to farm inputs compared to female plot managers. There was no evidence of fertilizer use, except in Lira district where male plot managers recorded a minimal use of fertilizer perhaps due to contract farming with the brewery industry. This conforms with the observation by Tonywa et al. (2018) who found that fertilizer usage in sorghum growing especially in developing countries like Uganda is minimal. Even though Franke et al. (2018) observed that use of fertilizer increases the overall yield of cereals, Mbowa et al. (2015) showed that only less than 8% of farmers use the commonly available fertilizers in the market such as Diammonium Phosphate (DAP) and Calcium Ammonium Nitrate (CAN) (Mbowa et al., 2015).

The results showed significant statistical differences in institutional support services among the three study areas apart from access to credit. Generally, male plot managers across the study areas had the highest access to institutional support services variables compared to female plot managers. However, in a few cases, joint plot managers had a higher access compared to male plot managers. For example, in Kumi district, 63.16% of joint plot managers had access to extension services. Joint plot management was the most common type of sorghum plot management while the least was male plot management across the three districts.

3.2. Technical efficiency and technology gap ratios of female, male and jointly managed sorghum plots

Table 2 shows a comparative assessment of TE scores, TGRs and MTEs for Lira, Serere and Kumi districts. Male plot managers have the highest mean TE scores in Lira district. This is similar to the findings by Sell et al. (2018). However, female plot managers in Serere and Kumi districts have the highest mean TE with a low variation in standard deviation of
Table 1. Gender-disaggregated socio-economic characteristics of plot managers.

|                  | Kumi                  | Lira                  | Serere    |                  |
|------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------|------------------|
|                  | Male plot managers    | Female plot managers  | Joint plot managers | Male plot managers | Female plot managers | Joint plot managers | Male plot managers | Female plot managers | Joint plot managers |
| Age              | 45.25                 | 46.08                 | 48.17     | 44.35            | 40.7               | 43.52               | 51.35                | 45.54             | 47.64             | 0.097***          |
| Years completed  | 5                     | 4.7                   | 4.9       | 5.9              | 5.2               | 4.8                 | 4.9                  | 5.5               | 5.3               | 0.737             |
| Average years of growing sorghum | 17.37               | 15.09                 | 18.68     | 7.48             | 8.92              | 9                   | 20.41               | 17.57             | 15.32             | 0.000***          |
| Pot size (mean Ha) | 0.51                 | 0.39                  | 0.41      | 0.42             | 0.53              | 0.56                | 0.37                 | 0.41              | 0.42              | 0.0002***         |
| Average quantity of seed used (Kgs) | 6.2                  | 6.9                   | 8.2       | 19.38            | 9.22              | 16.12               | 13.89               | 17.28             | 0.0001***         |
| Average amount of fertilizer used (Kgs) | 0.0                  | 0.0                   | 0.26      | 0.20             | 0.00              | 0                   | 0                   | 0.00              | 0.00              | 0.5708            |
| Hired labour (average person hours) | 6.63                 | 3.85                  | 9.26      | 0.9             | 0.9               | 7.07                | 15.64               | 6.86              | 5.74              | 0.0001***         |
| Family labour (average person hours) | 25.5                 | 26.13                 | 29.16     | 44.65            | 30.92              | 37.54               | 31.5                | 24.59             | 28.39             | 0.0203**          |
| Access to credit (% yes) | 0.000004             | 0.000004              | 0.14604   | 0.26467          | 0.87591            | 0.36936             | 47.64               | 17.65             | 38.6              | 0.3594            |
| Farmer group membership (% yes) | 40                   | 23.58                 | 23.68     | 52.73            | 48.39             | 45.88               | 24.32               | 23.53             | 36.84             | 0.0001***         |
| Access to extension service (% yes) | 50                   | 44.12                 | 63.16     | 40               | 32.26             | 41.18               | 45.95               | 29.41             | 43.16             | 0.0329**          |
| Type of plot manager (%) | 10                   | 42.5                  | 47.5      | 18.13            | 32.16             | 49.17               | 15.32               | 33.33             | 51.35             | 0.535             |

***, ** denote statistical significance at 1% and 5% levels, respectively.

Source: Survey Data (2017).

Table 2. Metafrontier results for female, male and jointly managed plots.

| Model     | Lira | Serere | Kumi |
|-----------|------|--------|------|
|           | Female | Male | Jointly | Female | Male | Jointly | Female | Male | Jointly |
| TE w.r.t to plot management | | | | | | | | | |
| Mean      | 0.59394 | 0.61745 | 0.99799 | 0.60454 | 0.59424 | 0.73562 | 0.8985 | 0.71698 | 0.99858 |
| Min       | 0.10856 | 0.26531 | 0.99798 | 0.26358 | 0.11973 | 0.46525 | 0.87591 | 0.36936 | 0.99858 |
| Max       | 0.91904 | 0.82704 | 0.998 | 0.8482 | 0.95018 | 0.86889 | 0.91803 | 0.99981 | 0.99859 |
| SD        | 0.23363 | 0.14063 | 0.000004 | 0.14604 | 0.26467 | 0.083442 | 0.013209 | 0.28081 | 0.000002 |
| TE w.r.t to metafrontier (MTEs) | | | | | | | | | |
| Mean      | 0.45697 | 0.60525 | 0.59555 | 0.42112 | 0.55932 | 0.5198 | 0.086095 | 0.15021 | 0.10228 |
| Min       | 0.00355 | 0.26531 | 0.29045 | 0.14574 | 0.07382 | 0.22417 | 0.050182 | 0.61194 | 0.46166 |
| Max       | 0.869 | 0.82704 | 0.97636 | 0.74585 | 0.91304 | 0.84955 | 0.22315 | 0.28461 | 0.19182 |
| SD        | 0.23604 | 0.15065 | 0.15778 | 0.1476 | 0.26968 | 0.1489 | 0.02836 | 0.7127 | 0.37256 |
| TGRs      | | | | | | | | | |
| Mean      | 0.83843 | 0.98218 | 0.59675 | 0.69844 | 0.92298 | 0.78798 | 0.095811 | 0.20812 | 0.10243 |
| Min       | 0.20529 | 0.44761 | 0.29104 | 0.28656 | 0.53084 | 0.31165 | 0.056635 | 0.14792 | 0.046231 |
| Max       | 1.00000 | 1.00000 | 0.97834 | 1.00000 | 1.00000 | 1.00000 | 0.24806 | 0.28466 | 0.19209 |
| SD        | 0.21424 | 0.099213 | 0.02499 | 0.17319 | 0.14308 | 0.18458 | 0.03146 | 0.044289 | 0.037309 |

Source: Survey Data (2017).

0.000004 and 0.000002, respectively compared to male and jointly managed sorghum plots. The high mean TE in female-managed sorghum plots in these districts can be attributed to effective use of informal rotational labour groups locally referred to as ‘Aleya’ by female plot managers to overcome labour constraints as well as to share farming skills (Läderach et al., 2017). Jointly-managed sorghum plots have the highest mean TE across the three study sites.

The mean TE with respect to the metafrontier is lower across the three study sites for male, female and jointly managed sorghum plots compared to those with respect to the sorghum plot management frontiers. It is important to note that a higher TE does not necessarily translate to a high TGR because in real world there are other factors rather than technology that affect a farmers’ ability to produce optimally. The fact that all mean TE with respect to the metafrontier are lower than 1 shows that there is potential to improve sorghum production by enhancing proper use of the available technologies. The mean TGR is highest for male sorghum plot managers across the three study sites compared to female and jointly-managed sorghum plots. Further, all categories of plot managers in Lira have the highest overall TGRs compared to those in Serere and Kumi districts. This is due to commercialization of sorghum farming in Lira district where farmers have contract farming arrangement with leading alcohol brewers such as Nile Breweries Ltd, Century and Uganda Breweries Ltd (Busulwa, 2014). Therefore, they have relatively better access to farm inputs than farmers in other areas.

However, the maximum TGR is 1 for female, male and jointly managed plots in Serere district, as well as for female and male sorghum plot managers in Lira district. This implies that these farmers have exhausted the potential of existing technology (Battese et al., 2004) represented by sorghum variety in this case and therefore, further increases in sorghum production would require introduction of a better technology (sorghum varieties).

The distribution of TGRs is illustrated using kernel density plots. As shown in Figure 1, approximately 95% of male plot managers in Lira district had their TGRs between 0.85 to 1, 60% of the female plot
managers had their TGRs between 0.85 and 1, while the majority of joint plot managers (50%) had TGRs ranging from 0.45 to 0.65.

In Serere district, the TGRs of female plot managers and joint plot managers were concentrated between 0.45 and 0.65, while male plot managers had the highest TGRs ranging from 0.7 to 1 (Figure 2).

Majority of all sorghum plot managers in Kumi district had TGRs ranging from 0 to 0.25 as indicated in Figure 3. In common with Serere district, male plot managers in Kumi district had the highest TGRs compared to female and joint plot managers.

3.3. Determinants of technical efficiency

Considering that the metafrontier-tobit approach highlights determinants of efficiency while accounting for technology differences as opposed to one-step stochastic frontier model (Chen and Song, 2008; Otieno et al., 2014), we focus our discussion on the metafrontier results shown in Table 3. Nonetheless, we also provide the stochastic frontier results for completeness and comparison purposes.

All production inputs are significant except plot size. The insignificance of land size shows that sorghum output depends more on how well available land is used rather than amount of land. A similar finding on land use was reported by Otieno (2011) in the case of beef cattle production in Kenya. Sheng et al. (2019) also found that small plots are more manageable thus, increasing efficiency in using farm inputs as well as enabling close monitoring of farm activities compared to larger plots. Family labour has a positive and significant effect on sorghum efficiency. This is similar to the finding by Njuki and Bravo-Ureta (2019) on the positive effect of labour on irrigation productivity. Hired labour and amount of seed used influence sorghum efficiency positively. These two findings can be explained respectively, by the strict urge to recover costs of hired labour and the monotonicity condition of rational production where increments in input use should not decrease output (Coelli et al., 2005).

Age has a positive effect on TE. This is similar to Chiona et al. (2014) and Saiyut et al. (2017) who found that an increase in the age of a farmer tends to increase TE due to experience gained and networks that a farmer can exploit to produce more output. Household size has a negative effect on efficiency. An increase in the household size increases expenditure that the household incurs, therefore there might be little or no resources left to invest in farms thus reducing the farmer’s efficiency level. This is similar to findings by Mango et al. (2015) in Zimbabwe where maize farmers who had larger households had lower TE. On the contrary, Mishra et al. (2015) found that household size increased TE of rice farmers in Bangladesh; perhaps due to availability of more free family labour.

Table 3. Metafrontier-Tobit results for determinants of technical efficiency.

| Variables                        | Metafrontier-Tobit Coefficient | Standard error |
|----------------------------------|--------------------------------|----------------|
| Production input parameters      |                                |                |
| Constant                         | 8.0059***                      | 0.0132         |
| Family labour                    | 0.0200***                      | 0.0071         |
| Hired labour                     | 0.0814****                     | 0.0079         |
| Seed                             | 0.2485***                      | 0.0325         |
| Plot size                        | 0.1200                         | 0.1625         |
| Efficiency effects               |                                |                |
| Gender (1 = male)                | 0.0143                         | 0.0101         |
| Age                              | 0.0007*                        | 0.0004         |
| Years completed in school        | 0.0028                         | 0.0058         |
| Household size                   | -0.0030*                       | 0.0016         |
| Years of farming sorghum         | -0.0019***                     | 0.0005         |
| Distance to plot (meters)        | 0.000019***                    | 0.0005149     |
| Access to credit (1 = yes)       | -0.0227**                      | 0.0112         |
| Access to extension (1 = yes)    | -0.0160                        | 0.0098         |
| Farmer group membership (1 = yes)| 0.0545***                      | 0.0105         |
| Constant                         | 0.1594***                      | 0.0273         |
| Log likelihood                   | 354.0122                       |                |

***, **, * denote statistical significance at 1%,5% and 10% levels, respectively. Source: Survey Data (2017).
The coefficient of years that a farmer has grown sorghum is negative and significant. This shows that as the years of growing sorghum increases, the TE of farmers tend to decline. This results to failure and reluctance of farmers to adopt modern innovations that are aimed at enhancing sorghum efficiency and they tend to stick to the old ways of sorghum farming. This is similar to the findings by Zalkuwi (2015) who noted that farmers who have grown sorghum for several years had lower productivity due to inefficiencies.

Distance of the sorghum plot from the homestead had a positive and significant effect on sorghum production efficiency. A longer distance indicates the possibility of farmers leasing in land for sorghum cultivation as well as having many scattered plots. Such farmers tend to be commercially oriented and they tend to use various farm inputs more efficiently thus leading to an increase in TE. This is consistent with the findings by Olarinde (2011) that maize farmers whose farm distance from the homestead was higher had a higher productivity, which was attributed to high TE of such farmers. Access to credit had a negative and significant effect on the TE of sorghum plot managers. This could due to the use of credit for non-sorghum activities such as household consumption smoothening, education and health expenditures. This result is in line with Abate et al. (2019) who argued that red pepper farmers in Uganda used credit for household expenditure. Membership to farmer groups positively influenced TE. Farmer groups are useful avenues for peer learning and sharing of skills that possibly increase farmers’ capacity to adopt new innovations such as crop varieties, thus improving their TE. Similarly, Abdulai et al. (2018) found that rice farmers in Ghana who belonged to farmer groups had high TE.

For completeness and comparison, results of the one-step stochastic frontier analysis are shown in Table 4 below.

The average TE for Serere, Lira and Kumi is 0.45 and approximately 50% of variation in sorghum output is due to technical inefficiency. The sum of coefficients for the input parameters is less than 1 meaning that sorghum producers in Uganda generally exhibit decreasing returns to scale. Also, plot size has a negative significant effect on TE; perhaps suggesting the difficulty of managing large land parcels as noted by Sheng et al. (2019). For brevity, we limit our discussion of these results since fewer variables are significant compared to those of the metafrontier-tobit analysis, besides the added advantage in the later model of capturing technology differences.

This study has made useful contributions to the literature in two fronts; analysis of TE and TGRs for a critical crop in developing countries’ household food security – sorghum, that was hitherto neglected in empirical research and development policy and; a gendered analysis using plot-level rather than farm-level data. We acknowledge as a limitation, the potential reduction of the consistency of estimates arising from two-step analysis procedure. Therefore, our results should be interpreted with some caution. Use of one-step equations when technology differences are not the focus of analysis and large sample sizes suggested by Kaplan et al. (2014) and Springate (2012) would improve the reliability of model results.

4. Conclusion and recommendations

The study applied a stochastic metafrontier approach to assess TE, TGRs and determinants of TE in sorghum plots in Uganda. Male managed sorghum plots across the three study areas had a higher MTE and jointly managed sorghum plots. However, the MTE and TGR of jointly managed plots were higher than female managed plots but lower compared to male managed plots. Results show that majority of the sorghum plot managers use the available technology sub-optimally, hence their output is lower than the potential levels. The age of plot managers and years completed in school influence TE positively, while the household size affects efficiency negatively.

There is need to provide technical support aimed at sorghum plot managers in order to facilitate appropriate use of the available technology by managers who are producing sub-optimally so as to increase sorghum yields. This includes interventions such as educating farmers on how to grow sorghum using modern techniques that incorporate climate smart agriculture, how to handle resistant pests and diseases. In addition, introduction of high yielding sorghum varieties that are favorable to each specific district enable sorghum plot managers who have exhausted the potential of available varieties by attaining maximum TGRs of 1, to achieve further productivity gains. In order to empower female sorghum plot managers and bridge the TE and TGRs gaps between them and the male-managed sorghum plots, development interventions that seek to build technical capacity of female sorghum plot managers are recommended.

Results highlight critical roles that farmer groups play in influencing TE. Policy interventions aimed at creating a conducive environment for farmer groups to operate such as legal registration and providing farmer group leaders with managerial and record keeping skills. Better targeting of credit by financial institutions through consideration of various types of farmers (subsistence, transitioning, contract, specialized and diversified commercial farmers) and continuous monitoring of credit recipients to ensure that the credit given is used appropriately for targeted farm-related activities are also suggested. Future research that make comparison of efficiencies of different cereal crops and/or livestock enterprises would provide useful insights on disparities among farmers in similar environments and technology space.

Declarations

Author contribution statement

Philip Miriti: Performed the experiments; Analyzed and interpreted the data; Wrote the paper.
David Jakinda Otieno, Evans Chimoita: Analyzed and interpreted the data; Contributed reagents, materials, analysis tools or data.
Edward Bikketi, Esther Njuguna: Conceived and designed the experiments; Contributed reagents, materials, analysis tools or data.
Chris O. Ojiewo: Conceived and designed the experiments.

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Data availability statement
Data will be made available on request.

Declaration of interests statement
The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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