



Asian Journal of Plant Sciences

ISSN 1682-3974

science
alert

ANSI*net*
an open access publisher
<http://ansinet.com>

Energy Efficiency and Econometric Analysis of Hops Production in Turkey

Erdemir Gündoğmus

Department of Agricultural Economics, Ankara University, Faculty of Agriculture, Ankara, Turkey

Abstract: The aim of this study is to determine the energy input/output ratio and parameter values of inputs affecting production amount. The data for this study were obtained from 25 hops producing households in Bilecik Province in Turkey. A face-to-face questionnaire was conducted in the production year 2011/2012. From the questionnaire, data to determine the cost of hops production, farmers' selling prices, the productivity and profitability of fruit, the usage level of labour, machinery, diesel-fuel, chemical fertilisers, pesticides, water for irrigation and electricity, were analysed. A total energy input of 37,258.65 MJ ha⁻¹ was required for hops production. Chemical fertilizer, the single highest source of energy input, accounted for 38.86% of the total energy input. The two next highest energy sources were human labor (20.227%) and electricity (19.24%). The values of energy efficiency, energy productivity, specific energy and net energy were 1.59, 0.19, 5.36 and 21,875.13 MJ ha⁻¹, respectively. Estimates made using econometric models showed that human labor, machinery and pesticides energy inputs had significantly positive effects on energy yield. The results of a sensitivity analysis of the energy inputs showed that the Marginal Physical Productivity (MPP) value of human labor was the highest, followed by pesticides and machinery.

Key words: Energy efficiency, econometric model, benefit/cost ratio, hops plantations, Turkey

INTRODUCTION

Hops have been known to mankind for a very long time. The female inflorescence of the hop plant have been used for flavoring fermented malt beverages at least since the Middle Age (Neve, 1991). Depending on the cultivar, hops will produce various levels of alpha acids, beta acids and oils. The level of these compounds classifies each hop cultivar as either an aromatic hop (for aroma) or a bittering hop (for flavour).

The main hops producing countries are Germany, Ethiopia, USA and China. Although hops are also produced in Czech Republic, Poland, Slovenia and Turkey, these countries do not have a major input in the world hops trade. The world hops production shows fluctuations depending on the climatic conditions from year to year. Total hops production in the world has increased in parallel with Germany's production. While Germany's average hops production is 34,429 tones, this value has reached up to 39,675 tones in recent years. The production of Ethiopia, additional important producing country, varies between 22,000 and 32,000 tones (FAO, 2012). World hops production is approximately 130,000 tones and every year 40,000 tones are subject to foreign trade with 350 million US dollars (FAO, 2012).

The main objective in agricultural production is to increase yield and decrease production costs. In this respect, the energy budget is important. Energy budget is the numerical comparison of the relationship between

input and output of a system in terms of energy units. In general, increases in the agricultural production on a sustainable basis and at a competitive cost are vital to improve the farmer's economic condition.

Although many previous experimental studies have investigated the use of energy in fruit production, no previous studies have analyzed the energetics of hops production (Gezer *et al.*, 2003; Ozkan *et al.*, 2004; Gundogmus, 2006; Goktolga *et al.*, 2006; Demircan *et al.*, 2006; Akcaoz *et al.*, 2009; Rafiee *et al.*, 2010; Mohammad *et al.*, 2010; Banaeian and Zangeneh, 2011). The main aims of this study are to analyze the energy used in hops production, to evaluate the associated relationship between inputs and output and to compare input energy use with input costs, using data from hops plantations in Bilecik Province, Turkey.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

The selection of case study farms, the methods of data collection, energetics of hops production and methods of econometric model were explained in the following sub-headings.

Selection of case study farms and data collection: The data for this study were obtained from 25 hops producing households in Bilecik Province. The only hops production is in Bilecik Province in Turkey. A face-to-face questionnaire was administered in the production year

Table 1: Components of a hope cone

Components	Percentage
Water	10.0
Total resins	15.0
Essential oil	0.50
Tannins	4.00
Monosaccharides	2.00
Pectins	2.00
Amino acid	0.10
Lipids and wax	3.00
Proteins	15.0
Ash	8.00
Residual carbohydrate (cellulose, lignin)	40.4

(Parkes, 2002). Hops chemistry: Homebrew science, <http://byo.com/stories/article/indi,cgs/18-brewing-science/853-hop-chemistry-homebrew-science>, available at 15.10.2012

2011/2012. A stratified random sampling method was used. The sample size was calculated using the Neyman method (Yamane, 1967):

$$n = \frac{N \cdot \sum N_h \cdot S_h^2}{N^2 D^2 + \sum N_h \cdot S_h^2} \quad (1)$$

where, N_h is the number of producers in the h^{th} stratum, S_h^2 is the variance of the h^{th} stratum, D^2 is the value of $(d/t)^2$, d is the amount of permissible error around the population mean and $t = 1.96$ for 95% confidence limits. The number of total hops producer is 457. A sample size of 25 was obtained with the use of this method. Accordingly, 25 hops producers were randomly selected from the population.

Energetics of producing hops: Hops yield ($kg\ ha^{-1}$) was used as the output. Hops energy was determined by using Eq. 2:

$$\text{Hops energy} = \frac{P \cdot f_p + F \cdot f_f + C \cdot f_c}{100} DM \cdot Y \quad (2)$$

where, Y is the hops yield ($kg\ ha^{-1}$), DM is the dry matter (%), P is the protein content (%), f_p is the protein enclosed energy, F is the fat content (%), f_f is the fat enclosed energy, C is the Carbohydrate content (%) and f_c is the Carbohydrate enclosed energy.

All the enclosed energies presented at Eq. 2 were referred in FAO (2012). In order to calculate hops energy, the components of a hope cone was shown in Table 1. According to protein, fat and carbohydrates contents of a hope cone, the energy coefficient of hops is calculated.

In the survey area, the input energy sources for hops production were human labor, machinery, diesel-fuel, electricity, chemicals, electricity, cotton rope and irrigation water. Energy equivalents shown in Table 2 were used for estimating hops energy inputs and output. The total input

Table 2: Energy equivalents of inputs and outputs on hops production

Equipment/input	Unit	Energy coefficients	
		(MJ/unit)	Reference
Inputs			
Human labor	h	1.96	Singh and Singh (1992)
Machinery (h)	h	62.70	Singh and Singh (1992)
Chemical fertilizers	kg		Singh and Singh (1992)
Nitrogen		60.60	Singh and Singh (1992)
Phosphorus		11.10	Singh and Singh (1992)
Pesticides	kg		
Fungicides		92.00	Hessel (1992)
Herbicides		238.00	Hessel (1992)
Diesel-fuel	L	56.31	Singh and Singh (1992)
Water for irrigation	m^3	0.63	Yaldiz <i>et al.</i> (1993)
Electricity	kWh	11.93	Singh and Singh (1992)
Cotton rope	kg	143.00	Alcom (2001)
Output			
Hops (cone)	kg	8.51	Calculated

energy equivalent can be calculated by adding up the energy equivalences of all inputs in Mega Joule (MJ).

The input energy in agricultural systems can be divided into direct and indirect or renewable and non-renewable forms. The sources of direct energy include human labor, diesel-fuel, electricity and water for irrigation, whereas the indirect energy sources include chemical fertilizers, pesticides, electricity cotton rope and machinery.

Renewable energy includes human labor. The sources of nonrenewable energy are machinery, diesel-fuel, pesticides, electricity, water for irrigation, cotton rope and chemical fertilizers. The energy input-output ratio (energy use efficiency), energy productivity, specific energy and net energy were calculated by using the total energy equivalent of inputs and outputs per unit area ($MJ\ ha^{-1}$) and fruit yield ($kg\ ha^{-1}$) according to the following equations (Gundogmus, 2006):

$$\text{Energy use efficiency} = \frac{\text{Energy output}(MJ\ ha^{-1})}{\text{Energy input}(MJ\ ha^{-1})} \quad (3)$$

$$\text{Energy productivity} = \frac{\text{Hops output}(kg\ ha^{-1})}{\text{Energy input}(MJ\ ha^{-1})} \quad (4)$$

$$\text{Specific energy} = \frac{\text{Energy input}(MJ\ ha^{-1})}{\text{Hops output}(MJ\ ha^{-1})} \quad (5)$$

$$\text{Net energy} = \text{energy output} (Mj\ ha^{-1}) - \text{Energy input} (Mj\ ha^{-1}) \quad (6)$$

Econometric model: A mathematical function is needed to specify an exact relationship between input energies and yield. The Cobb-Douglass production function was considered to be the best function for this purpose. It represents an attractive choice in terms of the statistical significance and expected signs of the parameters.

The Cobb-Douglass function has been used by several authors to investigate the relationship between

input energies and production yield (Banaeian and Zangeneh, 2011; Heidari and Omid, 2011). The Cobb-Dougllass production function is expressed as follows:

$$Y = f(x) \exp(u) \quad (7)$$

This function can be expressed as a linear relationship by taking the natural logarithms of both sides of the Cobb-Douglas equation and substituting as follows:

$$\ln Y_i = a + \sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_j \ln(X_{ij}) + e_i \quad i=1,2,\dots,n \quad (8)$$

where, Y_i denotes the yield by the i^{th} farmer, X_{ij} is the vector of inputs used in the production process, a is a constant term, the α_j represent coefficients of inputs which are estimated from the model and e_i is the error term. This model assumes that yield is a function of the input energies and allows the impact of each source of input energy on hops yield to be investigated. For each farmer i , Eq. 8 can be expanded in the following form:

$$\ln Y_i = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 \ln X_1 + \alpha_2 \ln X_2 + \alpha_3 \ln X_3 + \alpha_4 \ln X_4 + \alpha_5 \ln X_5 + \alpha_6 \ln X_6 + \alpha_7 \ln X_7 + e_i \quad (9)$$

where the X_i ($i = 1, 2, \dots, 7$) represent the input energies from human labor (X_1), machinery (X_2), chemical fertilizer (X_3), pesticides (X_4), diesel-fuel (X_5), electricity (X_6), water for irrigation (X_7) and cotton rope (X_8). In addition, the impacts of DE and IDE sources and RE and NRE sources on the yield were investigated. For this purpose, the Cobb-Dougllass function was again selected and used in the following forms:

$$\ln Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \ln DE + \beta_2 \ln IDE + e_i \quad (10)$$

$$\ln Y_i = \gamma_0 + \gamma_1 \ln DE + \gamma_2 \ln IDE + e_i \quad (11)$$

where, Y_i is the i^{th} farmer's yield and β_i and γ_i are the coefficients of the exogenous variables. DE and IDE are direct and indirect energies, respectively. RE is renewable energy and NRE is nonrenewable energy.

In this study, the return-to-scale index was determined in order to analyze the proportional changes in output due to a proportional change in all the inputs (supposing that all inputs increase by a constant factor). The values of the return to scale for Eq. (9-11) were determined by computing the elasticities. These quantities correspond to the regression coefficients in the Cobb-Douglas production function. A sum greater than,

equal to, or less than unity implies increasing, constant, or decreasing returns to scale, respectively (Rafiee *et al.*, 2010).

A finding of increasing, constant or decreasing returns to scale indicates that when the energy inputs are increased by a factor X , then the yield of hops production increases by more than, exactly or less than X , respectively.

In the final portion of the research, the Marginal Physical Productivity (MPP) method, based on the response coefficients of the inputs, was used to analyze the sensitivity of hops yield to the energy inputs. The MPP of a factor indicates the change in the total output with a unit change in the factor input, assuming that all other factors are fixed at their geometric mean value. A positive value of MPP for any input variable shows that the total output is increasing with an increase in input. This property implies that one should not stop increasing the use of variable inputs so long as the fixed resource is not fully utilized. A negative value of MPP of any variable input indicates that every additional unit of input starts to diminish the total output of previous units. It is therefore preferable to keep the variable resource in surplus rather than utilizing it as a fixed resource. The MPP of the various inputs was calculated using the α_j of the various energy inputs as follows (Rafiee *et al.*, 2010):

$$MPP_{x_j} = \frac{GM(Y)}{GM(X_j)} \times \alpha_j \quad (12)$$

where, MPP_{x_j} is the marginal physical productivity of j^{th} input, α_j is the regression coefficient of the j^{th} input, $GM(Y)$ is the geometric mean of the yield and $GM(X_j)$ is the geometric mean of j^{th} input on a per-hectare basis. Eqs. (9)-(12) were estimated using the Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) technique.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Management practices for hops production in turkey:

The first documented instance of hop cultivation was in 736, in the Hallertau region of present-day Germany, although the first mention of the use of hops in brewing in that country was 1079 (Unger, 2004) Not until the 13th century in Germany did hops begin to start threatening the use of gruit for flavoring. In Britain, hopped beer was first imported from Holland around 1400, but hops were condemned in 1519 as a "wicked and pernicious weed" (Bamforth, 1998). In 1471, Norwich, England, banned use of the plant in the brewing of ale (beer was the name for fermented malt liquors bittered with hops; only in recent times are the words often used as synonyms) and not

until 1524 were hops first grown in southeast England. It was another century before hop cultivation began in the present-day United States, in 1629. The cultivation of hops in Turkey started in 1965 (Oruc, 1989). The need for this plant has increased rapidly in parallel with the development of beer industry. In recent years, hops have been used in pharmaceutical and cosmetic industry. The single hops producing province is Bilecik. Today totally 1759 tones hops cone is produced in 357 ha production area (TSI, 2012).

Hops are a climbing plant. They are trained to grow up strings or wires which support the plants and allow them significantly greater growth with the same sunlight profile. As with all perennial vines, hops die back in the winter and come back in the spring.

Hop is adapted to a wide range of climatic conditions; ample moisture early followed by warm, dry weather is ideal. In areas where rainfall is lacking and the water table is more than 5 ft deep, irrigation may be required. A deep sandy loam is best. Poorly drained, strongly alkaline or saline soils should be avoided.

Hop plants are propagated from runners that arise from the crown just below the soil surface. The runners are cut into pieces 6 to 8 in. long, each bearing at least two sets of buds. Cuttings should be planted immediately or if not, stored in a cool, moist, well ventilated place.

The soil should be tilled to create a weed-free field prior to planting. Cuttings are planted in hills with a spacing of approximately 8×8 ft at a planting density of between 4,800 and 5,200 seedlings per hectare. Hop is grown on an overhead trellis system that may be designed to facilitate mechanical harvest.

When the young vines are about 2 ft long, two to six vigorously growing vines are selected for each hill and the rest are removed. One to three vines may be trained up each of two strings staked to the hill and extending up to the stringing wires of the trellis overhead. When the vines reach the stringing wires, the lowest 4 ft of foliage and lateral branches are removed to aid in prevention of disease, especially downy mildew. The removal of lower leaves (stripping) must be done carefully to avoid damaging the stem. Shoots arising from the crown are continually removed early in the season in order to promote the growth of the selected vines. Allowing the suckers to remain later in the season seems to promote hardiness of the crown.

Fertilizer should be applied and incorporated prior to planting. Mechanical cultivation should begin early and continue until the lateral branches are well developed. Deep cultivation (6 to 10 in.) early is recommended to incorporate surface organic matter, followed by shallow cultivation (2 to 4 in.) later in the season to avoid damaging the shallow feeder root system.

Table 3: Management practices of hops plantations

Production processes	Hops plantations
Common variety	Brewers Gold, Cluster
Number of seedlings (ha)	4,800-5,200
Soil cultivations	First tilling is applied between March and April, the second is applied between September-October using garden hoeing machine
Average tilling number	2.3
Pruning period	March-April
Fertilization period	April-May
Average number of fertilization	2.1
Spraying period	April-June
Average number of spraying	2.7
Hoeing period	March-April
Average number of hoeing	2.0
Irrigation period	May-July
Average number of irrigation	3.8
Harvesting period	August-September

The pesticide applications are made between April and June and while it is done 3.9 times (Table 3). Chemical weed control in hop is usually necessary. Only one herbicide is registered for use in this crop in Bilecik. Hand hoeing is done twice in the period between March and May. Weed control normally lasts 4 to 6 weeks or more. When weeds appear, cultivate as necessary.

Disease problems can be minimized by selection of resistant varieties and removal of diseased plant tissues. Removing lower leaves on the bines at training time will help prevent the spread of disease. Pruning should be performed with clean tools. The hop downy mildew fungus survives the winter as winter spores in infected roots or crowns. The Cluster varieties are particularly susceptible to root and crown infection.

Hop harvest in Bilecik usually runs from mid-August to mid-September. Hop cones are picked by hand. Hop is in prime condition for picking for only 5 to 10 days. Premature harvest results in loss to the grower from dry-down (weight loss during drying). After the crop has reached full ripeness, shattering loss increases and cones rapidly become discolored. Because harvesting can be a lengthy process, growing varieties of differing maturities allows for a longer season of harvest.

Analysis of the input-output energy used in hops production: Table 4 presents the amounts of inputs and output associated with hops production and their energy equivalents. The study found that the quantities of labor and machine power required for hops production were 3,843.54 and 12.32 h ha⁻¹, respectively. Most human labor was used during harvesting (65%). Likewise, most of the use of machinery occurred during cultivation (76%). The study also found that 70.28 L diesel-fuel, 189.55 kg nitrogen, 269.87 kg phosphate, 2.10 kg fungicides, 1.50 kg herbicides, 1,594.08 m³ irrigation water, 600.86 kWh electricity and 12.52 kg cotton rope per

Table 4: Amount of inputs, outputs and their energy equivalences in hops production

Input	Quantity per unit area (ha)	Total energy equivalent (MJ ha ⁻¹)	Percentage of total energy input (%)
Inputs			
Human labor (h)	3,843.54	7,533.34	20.22
Machinery (h)	12.32	772.46	2.070
Chemical fertilizers (kg)		14,482.29	38.86
Nitrogen	189.55	11,486.73	
Phosphorus	269.87	2,995.56	
Pesticides (kg)		550.20	1.48
Fungicides	2.10	193.20	
Herbicides	1.50	357.00	
Diesel-fuel (l)	70.28	3,957.47	10.62
Water for irrigation (m ³)	1,594.08	1,004.27	2.700
Electricity (kWh)	600.86	7,168.26	19.24
Cotton rope (kg)	12.52	1,790.36	4.81
Total energy input (MJ)		37,258.65	100.00
Output			
Hops (cone)	6,948.74	59,133.78	

hectare were used for hops production. The average hops yield in the study area was approximately 6,948.74 kg ha⁻¹. The total energy equivalents of the inputs and output were calculated by multiplying the quantity per unit area by the equivalent energy value. The total energy input and energy output were calculated as 37,258.65 and 59,133.78 MJ ha⁻¹, respectively.

The relative percentages of energy consumption for hops production were 38.86% for chemical fertilizer, 20.22% for human labor, 19.24% for electricity, 10.62% for diesel-fuel, 4.81% for cotton rope used, 2.70% for irrigation water, 2.07% for machinery and 1.48% for pesticides (Table 4). Chemical fertilizers accounted for the largest share of the energy input. This result is consistent with the published findings of Gundogmus (2006), Goktolga *et al.* (2006), Demircan *et al.* (2006), Mohammad *et al.* (2010) and Banaeian and Zangeneh (2011) for apricot, peach, cherry, kiwi fruit and walnut production, respectively. The results showed that in terms of energy input, the consumption of chemical fertilizer and diesel-fuel was high for hops production in the region studied.

The energy efficiency, energy productivity, specific energy and net energy found for hops production are listed in Table 5. A value of 1.59 was found for the energy use efficiency (energy ratio). This value indicates that the energy consumption of hops production in the region was efficient, i.e., that energy production was greater than energy utilization.

Several authors have reported the energy ratio for different crops and fruits. These values include 0.96 for cherry production (Demircan *et al.*, 2006) and 0.93 for peach production (Goktolga *et al.*, 2006) in Turkey, 1.54 for kiwi fruit (Mohammad *et al.*, 2010) and 2.90 for walnut

Table 5: Energy input-output ratio in hops production

Items	Unit	Quantity ^a
Energy use efficiency	-	1.59
Energy productivity	kg MJ ⁻¹	0.19
Specific energy	MJ kg ⁻¹	5.36
Net energy	MJ ha ⁻¹	21,875.13
Direct energy ^a	MJ ha ⁻¹	19,663.54 (52.78%)
Indirect energy ^b	MJ ha ⁻¹	17,595.11 (47.22%)
Renewable energy ^c	MJ ha ⁻¹	7,533.54 (20.22%)
Non-renewable energy ^d	MJ ha ⁻¹	29,725.11 (79.78%)
Total energy input	MJ ha ⁻¹	37,258.65

^aIncludes human, diesel fuel, electricity and water for irrigation, ^bIncludes fertilizers, pesticides, cotton rope and machinery energy sources, ^cIncludes human labour, ^dIncludes diesel fuel, electricity, pesticides, fertilizers, machinery, cotton rope and water for irrigation, ^eFigures in parentheses indicate percentage of total energy input

in Iran (Banaeian and Zangeneh, 2011), 1.25 for orange, 1.06 for lemon and 1.17 for mandarin in Turkey (Ozkan *et al.*, 2004).

The energy productivity, specific energy and net energy for hops production were found to be 0.19, 5.36 and 21,875.13 MJ ha⁻¹, respectively.

The distribution of input energy in hops production in terms of direct, indirect, renewable and nonrenewable energy forms is shown in Table 5. Direct and indirect energy account for 52.78 and 47.22% of the total energy input, respectively. Chemical fertilizer exhibits the highest share (81.16%) of indirect energy, followed by machinery (10.82%). Renewable and nonrenewable energy account for 3.97 and 96.93% of the total energy input, respectively. Several studies have shown that the contribution of indirect energy is higher than that of direct energy and that the share of nonrenewable energy is more than that of renewable energy in the production of different agricultural products (Gundogmus, 2006; Goktolga *et al.*, 2006; Banaeian and Zangeneh, 2011; Akcaoz *et al.*, 2009).

Econometric model estimation of energy inputs for hops production:

To investigate the relationship between the energy inputs and the yield associated with hops production, the Cobb-Douglas production function was chosen and its parameters estimated using the ordinary least squares (OLS) technique. This model assumed that the hops yield (endogenous variable) was a function of human labor, machinery, pesticides, chemical fertilizers, diesel-fuel, electricity, cotton rope and water for irrigation (exogenous variables). The Durbin-Watson test was used to test for autocorrelation in the residuals from the regression analysis of the data used in this analysis. The value of the Durbin-Watson test statistic was 2.15 for Eq. 9. This result indicated (at a 1% significance level) that no autocorrelation was present in the estimated model. The R² (coefficient of determination) was 0.91 for this linear regression model. The regression results of Eq. 9 (Table 6) revealed that the contribution of human

Table 6: Econometric estimation results of inputs affecting hops production

Exogenous variables	Coefficient	t-ratio	MPP
*Model 1			
Constant	0.28	0.37	
Human labour	1.97	7.83 ^a	
Machinery	0.16	0.37 ^a	
Chemical fertilizers	-0.05	-1.74 ^b	-0.06
Pesticides	0.24	8.33 ^a	0.41
Diesel-fuel	-0.25	-3.35 ^a	-0.33
Electricity	-0.61	-9.02 ^a	-0.75
Water for irrigation	-0.23	-2.73 ^a	-0.36
Cotton rope	-0.02	-4.13 ^a	-0.03
Durbin-Watson	2.15		
R ²	0.91		
Return to scale	1.21		

*Model 1: $\ln Y_i = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 \ln X_1 + \alpha_2 \ln X_2 + \alpha_3 \ln X_3 + \alpha_4 \ln X_4 + \alpha_5 \ln X_5 + \alpha_6 \ln X_6 + \alpha_7 \ln X_7 + \alpha_8 \ln X_8 + e_i$, ^aIndicates significance at 1% level., ^bIndicates significance at 10% level

labor, machinery, pesticides, diesel-fuel, electricity, cotton rope and water for irrigation were statistically significant at the 1% level. The impact of chemical fertilizer input was significant at the 5% level. The values of the estimated coefficients indicated that all energy inputs except those associated with human labor, machinery and pesticides had negative impacts on hops yield. These results show that excessive amounts of chemical fertilizer, diesel-fuel, electricity, water for irrigation and cotton rope were used in hops production. Human labor had the highest impact (1.97) of all the inputs analyzed for hops production. This result indicates that under the conditions of the study, an increase in the input energy associated with human labor tended to increase the yield. The results showed that a 100% increase in the energy value of human labor corresponded to a 197% increase in hops output. The second important input, pesticides were found to have an elasticity of 0.24. Mohammad *et al.* (2010) analyzed an econometric model for kiwi fruit production in Iran. They reported that human labor, machinery, total fertilizer and water for irrigation produced significant improvements in the yield of kiwi fruit. In a study of walnut production, Banaeian and Zangeneh (2011) found that human labor, transportation, farmyard manure, chemical fertilizer, electricity and water for irrigation had significant impacts on fruit yield.

The MPP values of the variables in the model are shown in the last column of Table 6. The MPP of human labor, pesticides and machinery were found to be 2.42, 0.41 and 0.26, respectively. These findings indicate that an increase of 1 MJ in each input of human labor, pesticides and machinery would lead to an additional increase in yield of 2.42, 0.41 and 0.26 kg ha⁻¹, respectively. The value of return to scale for the model (1), calculated from the regression coefficients, was 1.21.

Table 7: Econometric estimation results of direct, indirect, renewable and non-renewable energies

Exogenous variables	Coefficient	T-ratio	MPP
Model 2: $\ln Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \ln DE + \beta_2 \ln IDE + e_i$			
Constant	6.23	46.19 ^a	
Direct energy	0.29	12.16 ^a	0.32
Indirect energy	0.05	3.46 ^a	0.06
Durbin-Watson	2.16		
R ²	0.87		
Model 3: $\ln Y_i = \gamma_0 + \gamma_1 \ln RE + \gamma_2 \ln NRE + e_i$			
Constant	6.35	34.43 ^a	
Renewable energy	0.31	9.82 ^a	0.38
Non-renewable energy	0.09	3.15 ^a	0.09
Durbin-Watson	2.57		
R ²	0.82		

^aIndicates significance at 1% level, ^bIndicates significance at 5% level

The regression coefficients of direct, indirect, renewable and nonrenewable forms of energy input in relationship to the yield of hops production in models (2) and (3) were estimated using Eq. (10 and 11), respectively. The results of this analysis are shown in Table 6. The regression coefficients of the direct, indirect, renewable and non-renewable energy forms were positive and significant at the 1% level.

The impact of direct energy was higher than that of indirect energy (0.29 versus 0.05). This result implies that a 100% increase in direct energy inputs produced a 129% increase in yield, whereas a 100% increase in indirect energy produced an 5% increase in yield. The results also show that the impact of renewable energy (0.31) was more than that of non-renewable energy (0.09) in hops production.

Several authors have reported that the impact of direct energy is higher than that of indirect energy (Banaeian and Zangeneh, 2011) and that the impact of renewable energy is higher than that of non-renewable energy (Mohammad *et al.*, 2010).

The statistical results for models (2) and (3) are shown in Table 7. The values of the Durbin-Watson were 2.16 and 2.57 for Eq. (10 and 11), respectively. These results indicate that no autocorrelation occurred (1% significance level) in the estimated models. The R² values were 0.87 and 0.82, respectively.

Table 7 shows that the MPP values of direct, indirect, renewable and non-renewable energies were 0.32, 0.06, 0.38 and 0.09, respectively. These results indicate that an additional use of 1 MJ in the direct, indirect, renewable and non-renewable energies would lead to additional increases in yield of 0.32, 0.06, 0.38 and 0.09 kg ha⁻¹, respectively.

The results revealed that the cost of production per hectare was 11,296.13 /ha⁻¹. The net profit of hops was

calculated by subtracting the production cost from the gross product value. The net profit value for hops production was found to be 6,560.97 \$ ha⁻¹. In the research, the benefit–cost ratio (B/C) of hops production was calculated by dividing the gross value of the product by the total cost to determine economic efficiency. The results indicate that hops production has higher (1.58) B/C ratio.

Several investigations have done in economic analysis of crops production and benefit-cost ratio was concluded (2.37 for orange, 1.89 for lemon and 1.88 for mandarin (Ozkan *et al.*, 2004), 1.11 and 1.19 for small and large farms of apricot, respectively (Gezer *et al.*, 2003) and 1.83 and 2.21 for greenhouse and open-field grape, respectively (Ozkan *et al.*, 2007), 2.13 and 2.14 for organic and conventional dried apricot production (Gundogmus, 2006), 1.94 for kiwi-fruit in Iran (Mohammad *et al.*, 2010), 2.1 for walnut production (Banaeian and Zangeneh, 2011).

CONCLUSION

According to the econometric results of this study, hops producers should reduce their uses of especially chemical fertilizers, electricity, diesel-fuel, irrigation water and cotton rope to attain optimal values for their plantations. This optimization scheme can be expressed in mathematical form as a linear programming problem. The current study can be extended to distinguish efficient growers from inefficient ones, identify wasteful uses of energy inputs by inefficient growers and suggest the quantities of input from each energy source that should be used by each inefficient grower. Further studies of these questions are currently underway.

Optimum energy use in agricultural systems is reflected in two ways. Productivity can increase at the existing energy input levels. Alternatively, energy can be conserved without affecting productivity. Energy management acquires increasing importance if the energy used must be economical, sustainable and productive.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This work would have been impossible without the cooperation of the participating producers, all of whom generously shared their time and knowledge. I also thank the reviewers of this study.

Nomenclature

n	= Required sample size	X ₈	= Energy input from cotton rope
N	= No. of holdings in target population	e _i	= Error term
s	= Standard deviation	a _i	= Coefficients of the variables
D	= Acceptable error (permissible error was chosen as 5%)	β _i	= Coefficients of the variables
T	= Confidence limit (1.96 in the case of 95% reliability)	γ _i	= Coefficients of the variables
Y _i	= Yield level of the ith farmer	DE	= Direct energy
X ₁	= Energy input from human labor	IDE	= Indirect energy
X ₂	= Energy input from machinery	RE	= Renewable energy
X ₃	= Energy input from chemical fertilizer	NRE	= Nonrenewable energy
X ₄	= Energy input from pesticide use productivity of j th input	MPP _{ij}	= Marginal physical
X ₅	= Energy input from diesel-fuel	a _j	= Regression coefficient of j th input
X ₆	= Energy input from electricity	GM(Y)	= Geometric mean of yield
X ₇	= Energy input associated with use of irrigation water	GM(X _j)	= Geometric mean of j th input energy

REFERENCES

- Akcaoz, H., O. Ozcatalbas and H. Kizilay, 2009. Analysis of energy use for pomegranate production in Turkey. *J. Food Agric. Environ.*, 7: 475-480.
- Alcom, A., 2001. Embodied energy and CO₂ coefficients for NZ building materials. Report Series Centre for Building Performance Research. http://www.victoria.ac.nz/cbpr/documents/pdfs/ee-co2_report_2003.pdf.
- Bamforth, C.W., 1998. Beer: Tap into the Art and Science of Brewing. Plenum Press, New York, Pages: 245.
- Banaeian, N. and M. Zangeneh, 2011. Modeling energy flow and economic analysis for walnut production in Iran. *Res. J. Applied Sci. Eng. Technol.*, 3: 194-201.
- Demircan, V., K. Ekinci, H.M. Keener, D. Akbolat and C. Ekinci, 2006. Energy and economic analysis of sweet cherry production in Turkey: A case study from Isparta province. *Energy Convers. Manage.*, 47: 1761-1769.
- FAO, 2012. FAOSTAT-agriculture statistics. <http://faostat.fao.org/site/567/default.aspx#ancor>.
- Gezer, I., M. Acaroglu and H. Hacisferogullari, 2003. Use of energy and labour in apricot agriculture in Turkey. *Biomass Bioenergy*, 24: 215-219.
- Goktolga, Z.G., B. Gozener and O. Karkacıyer, 2006. Energy input use on peach production: Case of Tokat Province. *J. GOP Agric. Faculty*, 23: 39-44 (in Turkish).

- Gundogmus, E., 2006. Energy use on organic farming: A comparative analysis on organic versus conventional apricot production on small holdings in Turkey. *Energy Conversion Manage.*, 47: 3351-3359.
- Heidari, M.D. and M. Omid, 2011. Energy use patterns and econometric models of major greenhouse vegetable productions in Iran. *Energy*, 36: 220-225.
- Hessel, Z.R., 1992. Energy and Alternatives for Fertiliser and Pesticide Use. In: *Energy in World Agriculture*, Flick, R.C. (Ed.). Elsevier Science Publishing, pp: 177-210.
- Mohammad, A., S. Rafiee, S.S. Mohtasebi and H. Rafiee, 2010. Energy inputs-yield relationship and cost analysis of kiwifruit production in Iran. *Renewable Energy*, 35: 1071-1075.
- Neve, R.A., 1991. Hops. Chapman and Hall, London, Pages: 266.
- Oruc, S., 1989. Chemical fertilizer demand of hops production in conditions of bilecik province. General Directorate of Rural Services, Eskisehir Research Institute, Publication No: 212, Ankara, pp: 79, [in Turkish].
- Ozkan, B., C. Fert and F. Karadeniz, 2007. Energy and cost analysis for greenhouse and open-field grape production. *Energy*, 32: 1500-1504.
- Ozkan, B., H. Akcaoz and F. Karadeniz, 2004. Energy requirement and economic analysis of citrus production in Turkey. *Energy Convers. Manage.*, 45: 1821-1830.
- Parkes, S., 2002. Hops chemistry: Homebrew science. <http://byo.com/european-dark-lager/item/848-hop-chemistry-homebrew-science>.
- Rafiee, S., S.H.M. Avval and A. Mohammadi, 2010. Modeling and sensitivity analysis of energy inputs for apple production in Iran. *Energy*, 35: 3301-3306.
- Singh, S. and G. Singh, 1992. Energy input crop yield relationship for four major crops of Northern India. *Agric. Mechanization Asia*, 23: 57-61.
- TSI, 2012. Turkish statistical institute database. <http://www.turkstat.gov.tr/PreTabloArama.do?metod=search&araType=vt>.
- Unger, R.W., 2004. Beer in the Middle Ages and Renaissance. University of Pennsylvania Press, Philadelphia, Pages: 100.
- Yaldiz, O., H.H. Ozturk, Y. Zeren and A. Bascentincelik, 1993. Energy use in field crops of Turkey. Proceedings of the 5th International Congress of Agricultural Machinery and Energy, Kusadasi, Turkey.
- Yamane, T., 1967. *Elementary Sampling Theory*. 1st Edn., Prentice-Inc., Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey, USA.