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AGRICULTURAL POLICY ANALYTICAL OPPORTUNITIES¹

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1. Introduction

The focus of the 1990 AEASA Annual Conference was efficiency in agriculture. This paper discusses problems that arise in the identification and measurement of economic efficiency as it pertains to agricultural policy analysis. The following questions are considered:

- i) What is the role of economics in public policy analysis?
- ii) What is the relevance of the "economic calculation debate" (ECD) in achieving a productive economy?
- iii) How do information problems limit the usefulness of marginal efficiency conditions for public policy purposes?
- iv) What are the implications of the subjectivity of costs and benefits in measuring economic efficiency?
- v) Is there an alternative to the cost-benefit approach in public policy analysis?
- vii) What are the implications of the analysis of this paper for the work agenda of agricultural economists?

2. Role of economic theory in agricultural policy analysis

It is appropriate to begin any public policy course with a discussion of alternative ways of achieving social co-operation. There are five basic economic functions that must be performed in any society. There must be some means of determining what to produce, how to produce, how to distribute income, how to retain goods and services, and how to provide for economic progress (Knight, 1933). Consideration of these tasks leads into a discussion of alternative ways of organising economic activity.

Knight (1933) discusses four possible forms of economic organisation, but the only two methods possible in a modern society are the market system and central direction (or socialism). Any discussion of the relative merits of these two methods of coordinating economic activity leads to consideration of the ECD that raged during the 1920s and 1930s. The economic issues in the ECD, although widely neglected, are both timely and highly significant in evaluating farm policies, especially collectivist agricultural production and marketing systems throughout the world.

2.1 The economic calculation debate

Austrian economist, Ludwig von Mises launched the calculation debate in 1920 by contending that socialism was incompatible with rational economic planning (Mises, 1935). Mises was responding to various socialist proposals of the early 1900s to replace markets with central planning as the means of resource allocation in production planning. He argued that in the ab-

2.2 Implications of Hayek's insights for public policy analysis

The information problems identified by Hayek also limit the use of the marginal efficiency conditions (MEC) of economic theory for public policy purposes. The MEC are "that the marginal rates of substitution between any two commodities or factors must be the same in all their different uses" (Hayek, 1948:77). It is shown in welfare economics that these conditions are achieved when individuals and firms optimise under "perfect competition" (Hirshleifer, 1988:467-468).

The MEC are useful to the decision maker in agriculture in what Buchanan (1979:41) refers to as "logic of choice". If a farmer understands the efficiency conditions for input use, for example, he will weigh alternatives more carefully and search more diligently for alternatives. These efficiency conditions have proven useful in a wide variety of applications. Common examples in agricultural economics include the analysis of the most profitable amount of nitrogen to use in maize production and the least cost combination of grain and hay in producing milk. In these and many other situations, knowledge of the MEC by the decision maker may produce "better" choices as evaluated by his own standards.

As Hayek (1948:77) emphasises, however, the MEC are not the solution to the economic problem facing society. The economic problem is to secure the best use of resources known to the various members of society for ends whose relative importance is only known by them (Hayek, 1948:78). That is, it is the problem of how best to utilise knowledge that is not fully given to anyone.

The data necessary to apply the efficiency conditions in policy applications cannot be obtained for reasons Hayek emphasises - economic data are highly specific to time and place and are constantly changing. When the planner is considered to have been given the information necessary for economic planning, as in "market socialism", the economic problem is assumed away. The conclusion is that information problems are the Achilles' Heel of central planning, whether the issue is land use planning, planning of agricultural production, or economic planning affecting all sectors. Information problems also pose insurmountable problems in public policy analysis.

3. Criteria in public policy analysis

Efficiency and equity are the most widely discussed criteria in public policy analysis.

3.1 Economic Efficiency

Economic efficiency is easy to define but difficult (or impossible) to measure (Pasour, 1990). It is a measure of useful output in relation to the value of inputs used. Thus, efficiency of any activity varies with changes in valuations of inputs or outputs. Consequently, efficiency is subjective because the values of the inputs and outputs are those of the decision maker (Pasour, 1981a, 1981b). Consider the example of whether it is more efficient for an individual to ride a bicycle or drive a car to work. The answer hinges on the values placed by the decision maker on the inputs and outputs in each case. Consequently, it may be efficient for Professor Jones to ride his bicycle and for Professor Smith to drive his car, although Smith and Jones live in adjacent houses and work in the same building. This example illustrates the importance of recognising the subjective character of economic data in policy analysis.

Buchanan (1969) emphasises that opportunity cost is subjective. The cost of any action is the value of the sacrificed alternative. However, the alternative forgone is never actually experienced and its value exists only in the mind of the decision maker. The fact that costs and benefits are subjective means

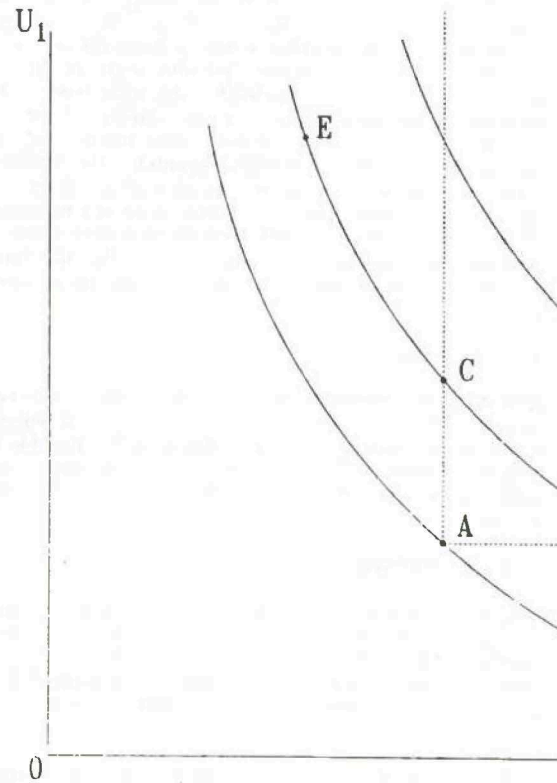


Figure 1: Criteria for making welfare judgements - the

However, the values of the gains and losses are not comparable and there is no legitimate way to make such interpersonal comparisons of utility. Consequently, unless compensation is actually made, the Pareto criterion is violated by public policies that benefit some people at the expense of others. Although the compensation principle is often used in welfare analyses of tariffs, price supports, and other government restrictions on competition, any such analyses inevitably involve invalid interpersonal utility comparisons.

3.2.3 Social welfare function

The "social welfare function" (SWF) is another approach devised to analyse the welfare effects of policies that harm some people while benefiting others. A social welfare function can be visualised as an indifference map ranking different combinations of utility to different members of society (Baumol, 1977:530). The line U_1 in Figure 1 represents one such level of no help in the evaluation of public policies. If such information were available, then the move from A to E in Figure 1 would improve welfare because E is on a higher indifference curve of the social welfare function. The SWF is a good example of what Professor Coase (1988:29-30) refers to as "blackboard economics".

"Economic policy involves a choice among alternative social institutions, and these are treated by law or dependent upon it. The majority of economists do not see the problem in this way. They paint a picture of an ideal economic system, and then comparing it with what they observe (or think they observe), they prescribe what is necessary to reach this ideal state without much consideration for how this could be done. The analysis is carried out with great ingenuity but it floats in the air. It is ... "blackboard economics". There is little investigation of how the economy actually operates, and in consequence

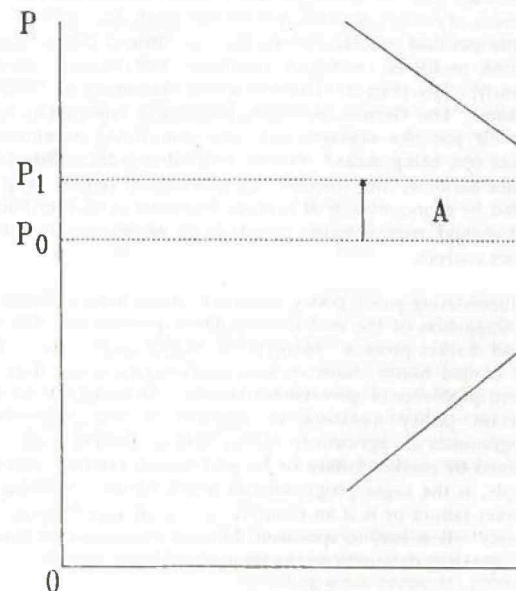


Figure 2: The welfare effects of a price support imple

There is no legitimate way, as Hayek (1979:201-202) emphasises, to measure and compare the benefits afforded to or the costs endured by different groups of people - because costs and benefits are subjective.

"Any attempt to construct a rigorous and universally applicable criterion for distinguishing what policy change is an economic improvement must founder on the problem of interpersonal comparisons. Where a policy change affects some persons favourably and others adversely, as is usually the case, there is no *a priori* way of weighing the net results" (Baumol, 1977:526).

The conclusion is that all policy recommendations involve value judgments. For example, there is no value-free procedure to justify the repeal of sugar production quotas in terms of gain of utility of consumers at the expense of producers by measuring producer surplus and consumer surplus.

What is the alternative to the CB approach in analyzing the effects of government restrictions on competition in agriculture or in other areas? Any defensible criterion must take into account the general utility of markets, and the fact that there is no principled philosophic difference between economic freedom and individual freedoms of other types (Bork, 1984:228).

Professor Coase (1974) shows that prohibitions on mutually beneficial exchange are not fundamentally different from restrictions on what are referred to as First Amendment Rights in the United States - freedom of speech, freedom of the press, freedom of assembly, and so on. Yet economic regulation is generally accepted by the public, even in North America and Western Europe, while there is a strong predisposition against government restrictions of speech, the press, and other "human rights."

What are the implications in policy analysis of not recognizing that costs and benefits are inherently subjective? Economic freedom frequently is an early casualty in the evaluation of public policies utilizing CB measurements. Moreover, CB analyses may implicitly support restrictions on economic freedom - or be used to justify government intervention.

economic and social area. This amendment would ensure that federal, state, or local governments do not infringe on the right of people to buy and sell legitimate goods and services on mutually acceptable terms.

If economic freedoms were legally protected, at least some of the objectives that narrowly focused interest groups attempt to achieve through the political process could be ruled out on constitutional grounds. Many of the current restrictions on competition in agriculture, including price supports, production controls, and import controls, clearly would be illegal under such an amendment.

The constitutional approach assumes that a strong case can be made for free trade and voluntary exchange, as argued by professor Coase (1974). He contends that freedom of choice in making decisions about employment, investment, and consumption opportunities is just as important for most people as freedom to participate in the political process. Thus, it is ironic that the relationship between human rights and economic freedom has been largely ignored. The constitutional approach is no panacea in public policy analysis. However, this approach focusing on the rules of the game warrants far more attention than it has received by economists - especially agricultural economists.

The constitutional approach assumes that individuals optimize within the constraints they face. Thus, the "rules of the game" are highly important. Indeed, the analogy of fairness in games of sport is helpful in considering equity questions in the economic sphere. How does one determine, for example, whether the outcome of a rugby game is fair? The question of fairness is determined not by the outcome of the game but rather by whether the rules were obeyed. The fact that a rugby team perennially defeats most of its opponents does not suggest that the game is unfair.

Similarly, a strong case can be made that justice or fairness in the economic area should not be judged on the basis of economic outcomes. Wages and prices in decentralized competitive markets are "just" in the same sense that outcomes of sports games are fair. Indeed, Nozick's entitlement theory is consistent with this rules-based approach to equity problems (Nozick, 1974). The entitlement theory holds that given the initial position, a person's income is just, provided that the rules were followed in its acquisition. For example, a rugby player's income of 5 million rand per year is just if acquired through a process of voluntary sale of service. However, in considerations of whether the "economic game" is fair, quite often the focus is on outcome rather than rules. That is, unequal incomes are often taken as evidence that the economic system is unfair. The implication is that in discussions of equity, additional emphasis should be placed on the rules of the game, on the constitution, rather than on the economic outcomes. In considering the bedrock constitutional issues, the question of the appropriate role of government inevitably arises.

4. Market failure versus government failure.

An important public policy problem in any society is to determine which activities should be private and which should be public. To make this public policy decision intelligently, it is necessary to have information about both the private choice and collective choice decision-making frameworks. Conventional neoclassical economic theory focuses on private choice. Similarly, public choice theory involves the use of economic principles to explain the decisions of the various participants in the political process - including voters, politicians, and bureaucrats.

Using the norm of perfect competition, economists have identified numerous cases of "market" failure, including public goods, externalities and free riders, income distribution, monopoly, market instability, and so on (Pasour, 1990). However,

fice (Buchanan, 1989). The economist can make an important contribution to public policy by analyzing the effects of alternative constitutional constraints.

What are the implications for agricultural policy analysis? Agricultural economists should devote more effort to public choice theory and the entrepreneurial market process and spend more time on the limitations of conventional welfare economics in public policy analysis. Unless a background is firmly established as to how markets and political processes operate, it is easy for the policy analyst to become an apologist for rent-seeking programmes in agriculture. More time devoted to political economy, broadly defined, means less spent on optimization techniques (Buchanan, 1979).

Economic theory certainly has an important role to play in public policy analysis. First, public choice theory, the application of economic principles in the political arena, can help us understand actions in the political process as they affect public policy (Pasour, 1990). For example, the idea of highly concentrated benefits and widely diffused costs is helpful in understanding government farm policies. Similarly, public choice theory is helpful in understanding why the political process has a short-run bias (Aranson, 1981).

Second, economic theory can help trace out the direct as well as the indirect and unintended consequences of various public policies affecting agriculture, including price supports, production quotas, land taxes, and import controls. Indeed, this is the area that traditionally has received most emphasis by policy analysts in agricultural economics. And the importance of work in these areas should not be discounted. However, the implication of the preceding analysis that many agricultural policy studies are too narrow in scope - focusing too much on the short-run effects of policies as they affect the farm sector. As shown above, economic efficiency cannot be used to determine which public policies are best on the basis of an evaluation of outcomes. Instead, efficiency to be meaningful must deal with the process through which policies are developed. That is, efficiency must be concerned with the extent to which public policies are responsive to the values and choices of individual citizens (Wiseman, 1989:273).

What should the policy analyst do? Yeager's admonition is just as appropriate and timely for agricultural economists as it is for all other policy specialists: "We should appraise each proposed intervention, as best we can, for its likely legal, political, social, and ethical repercussions - for its repercussions on the system as a whole" (Yeager, 1976:569). Buchanan's advice to policy analysts also proposes a much broader focus than that characterizing most work in agricultural economics: "Economists should concentrate attention on the institutions, the relationships, among individuals as they participate in voluntary organized activity in trade or exchange broadly defined" (Buchanan, 1979:36).

The proposed approach suggests that the purported merits of a specific farm programme, narrowly assessed, are not the only relevant consideration - that the overall effects of the policy must be taken into account. This presents a formidable challenge for the education and training of policy analysts as emphasized by a number of leading economists. For example, Mill concluded that "A man is not likely to be a good economist if he is nothing else" (Hirsh and de Marchi, 1990). This sentiment was echoed by Hayek (1967:123): "But nobody can be a great economist who is only an economist - and I am even tempted to add that the economist who is only an economist is likely to become a nuisance if not a positive danger." A prime example of harmful policy analysis is that which rules out policies that do not correspond to some unattainable ideal.

Economic policy involves a choice among alternative institutional arrangements. But merely adopting a comparative institutions approach is not enough: "...without some knowl-

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