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TRANSFORMING DEVELOPING A BASIS FOR GROWTH

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This paper examines recent contributions to the study of economic growth in the developing regions of South Africa. New growth theory suggests that government does not establish the correct economic and political environment for the growth observed in certain low-income countries has more to do with lack of investment in physical and human capital. A brief comparison of the new growth theory reveals some fundamental problems facing developing countries, implementing strategies that will produce the institutional environment, uncertainty in commercial transactions, and ensure that the consequences of poor governance.

1. INTRODUCTION

This paper examines some recent contributions to the study of economic growth and attempts to draw inferences relevant to agriculture in the developing regions of South Africa. The aim is to identify fundamental problems inhibiting agricultural development in these regions.

Agriculture should, and could, make a contribution to economic growth in the homelands¹ of South Africa. At present these less-developed areas are net importers of food, and are characterised by extensive rather than intensive land use despite extreme population pressure and high rates of unemployment. Past efforts to improve homeland agriculture were confined largely to public investment in extension and training, credit programmes, irrigation projects and machinery services. Current agricultural policy proposes greater public investment in the developing sector, and a realignment of research and extension resources to better serve the interests of small-scale farmers.

It is well known that economic growth produces negative externalities like pollution and congestion, but these problems are not insurmountable and pale in comparison to the misery caused by poverty. Of course, there is not a perfect link between economic growth and poverty, but it is difficult to imagine a significant decline in poverty in the absence of economic growth. Sections 2 and 3 of this paper review pertinent contributions to the theory of economic growth, and section 4 summarises recent empirical findings. The relevance of this work to local conditions is demonstrated in section 5, and the paper concludes with comment on the role of government and the need for objective policy research.

2. NEW GROWTH THEORY

Economic growth played a central role in the development of economic theory. In 1776, Adam Smith published his inquiry into the nature and causes of the wealth of nations. Smith attributed economic growth to the division of labour, the accumulation of capital and technical progress. He also recognised the importance of a stable legal framework within which markets could function. In 1817, David Ricardo formalised the concept of diminishing marginal returns - a concept readily adopted by neoclassical growth theorists during the 1950s. The neoclassical model postulates that growth in response to increasing physical inputs would slow and eventually halt unless there was technical progress.

Under these conditions, economic growth may well depend more on institutions and policies that minimise uncertainty than on the accumulation of physical resources and capital. This thesis certainly helps to explain why the highest rates of economic growth have been achieved not by rich countries but by a subset of poor countries that have managed to narrow the gap between their actual and potential income by adopting relatively good institutions, policies and institutions (Olson, 1996).

3. INSTITUTIONS AND GOVERNANCE POLICY

Institutions refer to arrangements among economic agents that influence uncertainty in exchange and transactions costs (North, 1990b). The legal, regulatory and institutional framework, of which property rights are a fundamental element, determine the opportunities and incentives for economic players in both economic and political exchanges (North and Swinnen, 1995). The relevant question is whether good governance yields optimal public policy and economic performance?

According to Beghin and Fafchamps (1996), good governance requires government policies and institutions that promote competitive markets and which ensure efficiency in exchange by reducing transaction costs. For example, property rights must be secured and the law enforced so that private returns on investment in exchange are predictably allocated. Good governance is facilitated by *economic and political openness*. This means economic openness as the commitment to let the market discipline work and to ensure the sectoral and international mobility of resources. This allows private agents to exit against bad governance by *exit* - that is, by the mobility of resources across sectors and boundaries. Political openness refers to the contestability of political markets and the service provision, the participation of pressure groups in policy decisions, and the transparency of the political process. Political openness makes it possible for individuals and groups to *voice* their opposition to bad governance.

The theory of endogenous policy asserts that political decisions are determined by the political power of individuals and groups, subject to constraints (Zusman, 1996). These constraints are determined largely by the LRI. For the behaviour of all political players is constrained by the threat of exit if the prevailing LRI sustains bad governance. Our stock exchange and currency market have shown that even the most respected leaders are not immune to economic censure. Political openness, accountability and respect of the rule of law also place limits on rent-seeking behaviour, thereby defining the set of implementable policies. The implication is that economic and political openness lead to more *predictable* policy because the State can be penalised for bad governance through voice and exit (Beghin and Fafchamps, 1996).

While it is true that predictable policy is a characteristic of western democracies, democracy is neither a sufficient nor a necessary condition for good governance, especially in times of political transition. History has shown that dominant coalitions and benevolent dictators can produce a mix of economic and political openness that stimulates economic growth. De Gorter and Swinnen (1996) conclude that the *credibility* of government's commitment to protect property rights and commercial rules is more important than political pluralism, at least in the early stages of economic development.

Table 1: Measures of governance and institutional arrangements

Concept	Measures
Transaction costs	Ethnic, religious and language diversity Weak communication infrastructure
Political openness	Favourable ranking on Gastil's index Electoral support for opposition parties Low incidence of political violence
Economic openness	Ownership of foreign currency, services Volume of <i>impersonal</i> exchanges Freedom of movement in one's own country Few restrictions on the ownership of land

Source: Adapted from Beghin and Fafchamps (1995).

More relevant to the topic though, are the implications of the new growth theory when applied to the less-developed regions within the country. Accordingly, policy which provides better access to resources, information and training may elicit only a muted response from rural households if local institutions do not provide opportunities and incentives for farmers. There are some indications that policy-makers share this view. For example, the green paper on land reform recognises the importance of secure land tenure, and emphasises new legislation intended to upgrade property rights to land held by communities (Department of Land Affairs, 1996:43). Of concern however is the extent to which existing and alternative institutional arrangements satisfy the criteria for economic growth.

The balance of this paper attempts to focus attention on the nature of institutional problems in the less developed regions of South Africa that warrant objective analysis by agricultural economists in South Africa. Most of the examples which follow are based on empirical research, but some are drawn from the more subjective realm of personal experience. Even so, the list is far from complete.

5.1 Land tenure and management institutions

Property rights to agricultural land in the developing regions have been the source of academic controversy for some time. Recent literature has challenged the view that customary land tenure is secure, and Thomson (1996:88-98) provides convincing evidence that private returns on investment and exchange are not predictable. It is significant that Thomson's findings relate to arable land which is characterised by relatively well-defined and exclusive individual property rights. However these property rights are not well enforced and farmers risk severe crop losses due to theft and damage caused by livestock. On a more positive note, Thomson has shown that adaptations to the local LR framework are not only possible but also that small improvements in tenure security and in the application of laws governing contracts have a pronounced impact on the rental market for land, leading to more intensive land use and welfare gains for both lessors and lessees. Importantly, he recognises that these institutional changes would not have been possible without a firm commitment and visible support from credible leaders in his study area - in this instance, the Nkosi (chief) and his tribal councillors.

Property rights to grazing land pose a far more complex problem and it would be naive to propose that communal grazing should be reassigned to individuals. It is also naive to assume that communal grazing is common property and

1994). It took several decades and a concerted effort by government to transform large groups of co-owning credit-worthy management institutions. Not surprisingly, these 'new' institutions resembled private companies. If this outcome is not precluded by local policy, it is not compatible with the idea of registering overlapping individual rights to the same parcel of land (Department of Land Affairs, 1996:45), nor is it likely to transpire without strong guidance.

The implications for research and extension are illustrated by a problem facing researchers investigating rotational grazing systems for small-scale farmers in KwaZulu-Natal. Assuming that a profitable rotational system has been discovered, to whom should the findings be disseminated: to areas where stock-owners share grazing land but not their own herds? Under these circumstances, the adoption and maintenance of new husbandry techniques is unlikely in the absence of centralised management.

5.2 Market transaction costs

Markets produce the objective information that underpins economic decisions taken by farmers, financiers and those that produce technology. Missing and imperfect information lead to divergencies between private decisions and those considered desirable by society. One example is the tendency for rural households in overcrowded homelands to adopt time-saving rather than land-saving farm technologies because the private opportunity cost of agricultural land is extremely low in the absence of an efficient rental market. Efficient markets require low transaction costs (Dowling, 1964).

Lack of adequate infrastructure is an obvious cause of high transaction costs, and few analysts would dispute the need for improved road, postal and tele-communication networks in the homelands. A recent comparison of tribal wards in KwaZulu homeland revealed that the poorest wards were those furthest removed from markets and main roads (Fitschen and Klitgaard, 1996). Significantly, the results of this study showed that differences in physical and resource endowments did not explain the bulk of the variation across tribal wards. While some of the variation was attributed to distance from markets and roads, the data were not rich enough to consider other factors such as the quality of infrastructure or the quality of institutions in tribal areas.

Legal uncertainty is also an important source of high transaction costs. Many of the homelands host dual legal systems. Individuals have recourse to national law for disputes involving local contracts and property rights usually handled by tribal courts. Case studies have revealed an absence of firm legal precedents for commercial contracts, uncertainty about fees charged and compensation awarded, weak enforcement of court rulings, and the fact that claimants are personally liable for the cost of services provided by tribal police (Thomson, 1996:92-96). As a result, the expected level of compensation for damages resulting from a breach of rights seldom warrants the cost of seeking legal redress, even for cases that would be resolved as clear-cut in other parts of South Africa. This perception increases the risk attracted by impersonal transactions, especially when contracts involve moral hazards. For example, Ouattara and Graham (1996:9&47) note the virtual absence of impersonal credit transactions within the homelands. In general, commercial contracts are concluded either highly personalised or strictly cash transactions characterised by a short marketing chain and few economies of scale. Barriers to entry and transaction costs

referring to the former independent states and self-governing territories of South Africa.

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