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Ethical aspects in the economic modeling of water policy options

ABSTRACT

Model-based ecological-economic studies on water management can be a valuable source of information for policy decisions on water-related issues; however, disputable normative assumptions may be involved. Deliberately or unintentionally, such assumptions can make these studies policy-prescriptive. Using the conceptual design of a spatially explicit agro-economic model as an example, this article introduces and employs a framework for analyzing normative assumptions in applied economic studies to increase transparency. We argue that the many value-laden issues identified in the studies cannot be - and should not be - avoided. Instead, if used properly and transparently, they can increase the policy-relevance and usability of model-based studies without being policy-prescriptive or "subjective." This requires analyzing and comparing the practical consequences of alternative policy goals or other value-laden assumptions. Therefore, this article secondly demonstrates, through an example, how researchers can deal more constructively with normative assumptions; our model calculations indicate different consequences of alternative ethical assumptions on how water-intensive agricultural products could be globally distributed. Finally, we argue that applied economic studies can improve their coverage of the ethical aspects of water policy, including (1) social equity, (2) inter-generational justice and (3) ecological sustainability.

Keywords:

Normative assumption, Agro-economic model, Policy analysis, Water management

25 **1 Introduction: Policy-relevance without policy-prescription?**

26 Agriculture has a significant impact on freshwater resources; 70% of global withdrawals are used for
27 irrigated agriculture (Molden 2007). The growing population, changing consumption patterns (Pingali
28 2007), climate change and economic growth will most likely increase pressure on water resources for
29 agricultural production in the future (Rosegrant and Sombilla 1997, Vörösmarty 2000, Gerten et al.
30 2011). Water policy options in the context of agricultural production include the enhancement of (i)
31 water-use efficiency in irrigated and rain-fed systems, (ii) overall agricultural productivity, (iii) water
32 infrastructure and access, and (iv) trade for better allocation of agricultural production. Being well
33 informed about the policy options at stake, as well as their possible practical consequences including
34 costs, risks and trade-offs, is decisive for responsible policy decisions in this field.

35 Regarding the high complexity, trade-offs and socioeconomic importance of the future scarcity of water
36 resources in the context of agricultural production, quantitative scientific analyses (e.g., Fader et al.
37 2013) are valuable for policy-making in this field. Advanced tools for such policy-relevant analyses are
38 models that integrate biophysical, agricultural and economic systems in a single framework (e.g.,
39 Hertel 1998, Rosegrant et al. 2001, Lotze-Campen et al. 2008, and Havlik et al. 2011). Such models
40 can be helpful for better understanding possible future developments of regional water scarcities, as
41 well as their drivers and consequences, and for directly evaluating different water management options
42 to tackle these scarcities on different scales. This is why science should aim to achieve policy-
43 relevance, in the sense of providing scientific expertise that informs the discussion on public policy
44 priorities and options.

45 However, there are considerable perils and pitfalls. In particular, non-transparent normative
46 assumptions in model-based applied economic studies may - usually unintentionally by scientists - lead
47 to the misguided political use of expertise. Sometimes, experts even deliberately act as “stealth
48 advocates” for particular policy options through their studies (Pielke 2007). Under the guise of
49 allegedly value-free facts, experts can impose, deliberately or unintentionally, their ethical values or
50 interests on others by being policy-prescriptive in a concealed manner (Jasanoff 1990, Schneider 1997,
51 Sarewitz 2004, Pielke 2007, Douglas 2009, Ackerman et al. 2009). In the case of water management,
52 many controversial ethical values and sectional interests are advocated for by various stakeholders
53 through their political standpoints (Armstrong 2006), even though most players would probably agree
54 on the central, yet unspecified, goal of reducing water scarcity. To mention just a few examples, some
55 advocate for economic welfare maximization, while others emphasize liberty rights, social equity and
56 the integrity of the environment. Thus, the perils of non-transparent biases towards particular
57 viewpoints in scientific studies for policy are obvious from a democratic point of view.

58 Cash et al. (2003) argue that, due to the value-ladenness of policy issues, researchers often make trade-
59 offs between (a) achieving valuable policy relevance and (b) being politically unbiased, which suggests
60 that the latter is easier to achieve when scientists focus on “pure” science rather than policy analyses.
61 Yet, even when scientists do not intend to inform policies through their publications, public officials
62 might be aware of these publications, and articles frequently find their way into large-scale scientific
63 assessments for policy (WWAP 2012, UNEP 2012, IPCC 2007, etc.) where they become politically
64 relevant. Moreover, “pure science” can sometimes imply ethical values and can quickly lose political
65 innocence and neutrality as many studies show (e.g., Pielke 2007, Putnam 2004, Douglas 2009).

66 With that said, making disputed ethical assumptions transparent is certainly among the minimum and
67 widely accepted requirements for scientific studies (van der Sluijs 2002, Pielke 2007, Ackerman et al.
68 2009, Kloprogge et al. 2011, Hall 2011). Although there is much literature on the ethical aspects of
69 economic models (e.g., Streeten 1950, Sen 1988, Schneider 1997, Hausman and McPherson 2006, Hof

70 et al. 2008, Peil and van Staveren 2009, Beckerman 2011, Putnam and Walsh 2012) and on the policy-
71 relevance of applied economic models and scenarios in general (e.g., White et al. 2010, M'barek 2012),
72 considerable research gaps still exist. First, specific normative assumptions in water-related ecological-
73 economic models are rarely identified and discussed in the literature, also because there is a lack of an
74 appropriate conceptual framework to identify value-related biases. Kloprogge et al. (2011) present a
75 convincing framework to identify, review and prioritize value-laden assumptions in model-based
76 environmental assessments jointly with stakeholders and the public, and Robert and Zeckhauser (2011)
77 provide a useful taxonomy of disagreement at the science-policy interface. These helpful frameworks
78 can, however, be enhanced by a typology of normative assumptions that is systematically based on the
79 philosophy of science; some relevant normative assumptions might otherwise be missed both in the
80 large-scale assessment processes and the underlying model-based studies.

81 Second, beyond the need for transparency and public participation in scientific knowledge production
82 (e.g., Maasen and Weingart 2005), it is still unclear for many researchers how they can deal more
83 precisely with and make legitimate use of value-laden issues in applied economic modeling in order to
84 overcome the trade-off between policy-relevance and politically unbiased research (Cash et al. 2003).
85 This may also be due to a fundamental philosophical confusion about the nature and treatment of
86 normative issues in scientific research (Hands 2001, Putnam 2004, Douglas 2009).

87 Based on these two interrelated research gaps, the dual goal of this paper is first to help avoid the
88 pitfalls of concealed policy-prescription and ethical bias in model-based ecological-economic analyses
89 of water policy options. For this, we introduce a novel framework and typology that facilitates
90 increased transparency of normative assumptions there. At the same time, we also aim to enhance the
91 valuable political and societal potential of such model-based studies by proposing a strategy for dealing
92 with normative assumptions based on recent findings in the science-policy literature, thus addressing
93 the second research gap identified above. Both the typology and the strategy of normative assumptions
94 will be systematically explored and exemplified in this article using the land- and water-use model
95 MAgPIE.

96 The purpose of this paper is neither to criticize MAgPIE or similar models (rather, their socio-political
97 utility shall be enhanced), nor to discuss the appropriateness of individual normative assumptions.
98 Instead, we aim to provide a useful method for researchers to better identify and more constructively
99 deal with normative assumptions in their studies.

100

101 **2 The MAgPIE model and its relevance to water policy**

102 **2.1 MAgPIE model description**

103 This article uses the Model of Agricultural Production and its Impact on the Environment (MAgPIE),
104 an agro-economic model, to exemplify both the identification and the improved treatment of normative
105 assumptions in such models. MAgPIE is a global, spatially explicit, economic land and water use
106 model that solves in a recursive dynamic mode (Lotze-Campen et al. 2008) (a flow-chart of the model
107 can be found in the Appendix (*Figure 2*)).

108 The model distinguishes between 10 world regions on the demand side and solves grid-specific
109 (aggregated units of 0.5 degree resolution) on the supply side. With income and population projections
110 (based on van Vuuren et al. 2009) as exogenous inputs, required demand is projected for the future.

111 The model simulates time steps of 10 years and uses the optimal land-use pattern from the previous
112 period as the initial condition. On the biophysical side, the model is linked to the grid-based dynamic

113 vegetation model LPJmL (Bondeau et al. 2007) which simulates potential crop yields depending on
114 climatic conditions on a 0.5 degree resolution. LPJmL also transfers information, such as water
115 availability and requirements per grid cell and crop type, to MAgPIE; based on this, the model can
116 calculate spatial patterns of agricultural production.

117 The objective function of MAgPIE is to minimize global costs, which include production costs for
118 agricultural commodities, technological change costs and land expansion costs. Production costs are
119 derived from the GTAP database (Narayanan and Walmsley 2012). The endogenous implementation of
120 technological change (TC) is based on a surrogate measure for agricultural land-use intensity (see
121 details in Dietrich et al. (2012)). Expanding croplands is the alternative to increasing the production
122 level. The expansion involves land-conversion costs for every unit of cropland, which account for the
123 preparation of new land and basic infrastructure investments (Krause et al. 2012). Land conversion
124 costs are based on country-level marginal access costs generated by the Global Timber Model (GTM)
125 (Sohngen et al. 2009).

126 To allocate the demand to supply regions, international trade is considered in MAgPIE by using
127 flexible minimum self-sufficiency ratios at the regional level. Self-sufficiency ratios describe how
128 much of the regional agricultural demand quantity is produced within a region (see details in Schmitz et
129 al. 2012). A detailed representation of areas of blue water scarcity is possible through a spatially
130 explicit representation of water supply and agricultural water demand for irrigation, using LPJmL. The
131 simulated water shadow prices - which indicate how much global agricultural production costs would
132 decrease if an additional unit of water was available - can be interpreted as an agro-economic water
133 scarcity indicator that considers both economic forces and biophysical limitations in the agricultural
134 system.

135 **2.2 A MAgPIE-based study on water policy options**

136 With MAgPIE and similar models, certain water policy options can be scientifically explored. Schmitz
137 et al. (2013) have conducted a water-related, MAgPIE-based study which we will refer to below when
138 analyzing normative assumptions. Schmitz et al. (2013) use MAgPIE to investigate the effects of
139 potential future trade liberalization and of a potential change in global diets on local water scarcity. The
140 authors compare a scenario where trade barriers are reduced by 10% per decade from 2015 until 2045
141 with a scenario where no additional trade liberalization takes place. Additionally, they look at the
142 impacts of a less meat-intensive global diet, by assuming that every citizen on earth will derive only
143 20% of their daily calories from livestock-based products until 2045. To estimate the impact of these
144 potential future changes on water scarcity, the authors use the MAgPIE-generated water shadow price.

145 When comparing a business as usual scenario to one with liberalized trade in 2045, the authors find that
146 water scarcity is alleviated almost everywhere. This positive effect results from the possibility of water-
147 scarce regions to import water intensive agricultural goods from places where water is less scarce;
148 hence, the pressure on scarce water is reduced and the water shadow price decreases.

149 The study also finds that if the amount of livestock-based products in the global diet converges until
150 2045 and the total consumption of livestock-based products is reduced in such a way, water scarcity
151 would be generally alleviated. Here, the effect can be explained by the relatively high necessary input
152 of resources (such as water) for the production of a calorie of livestock products compared with the
153 necessary input of resources for the production of a plant-based calorie.

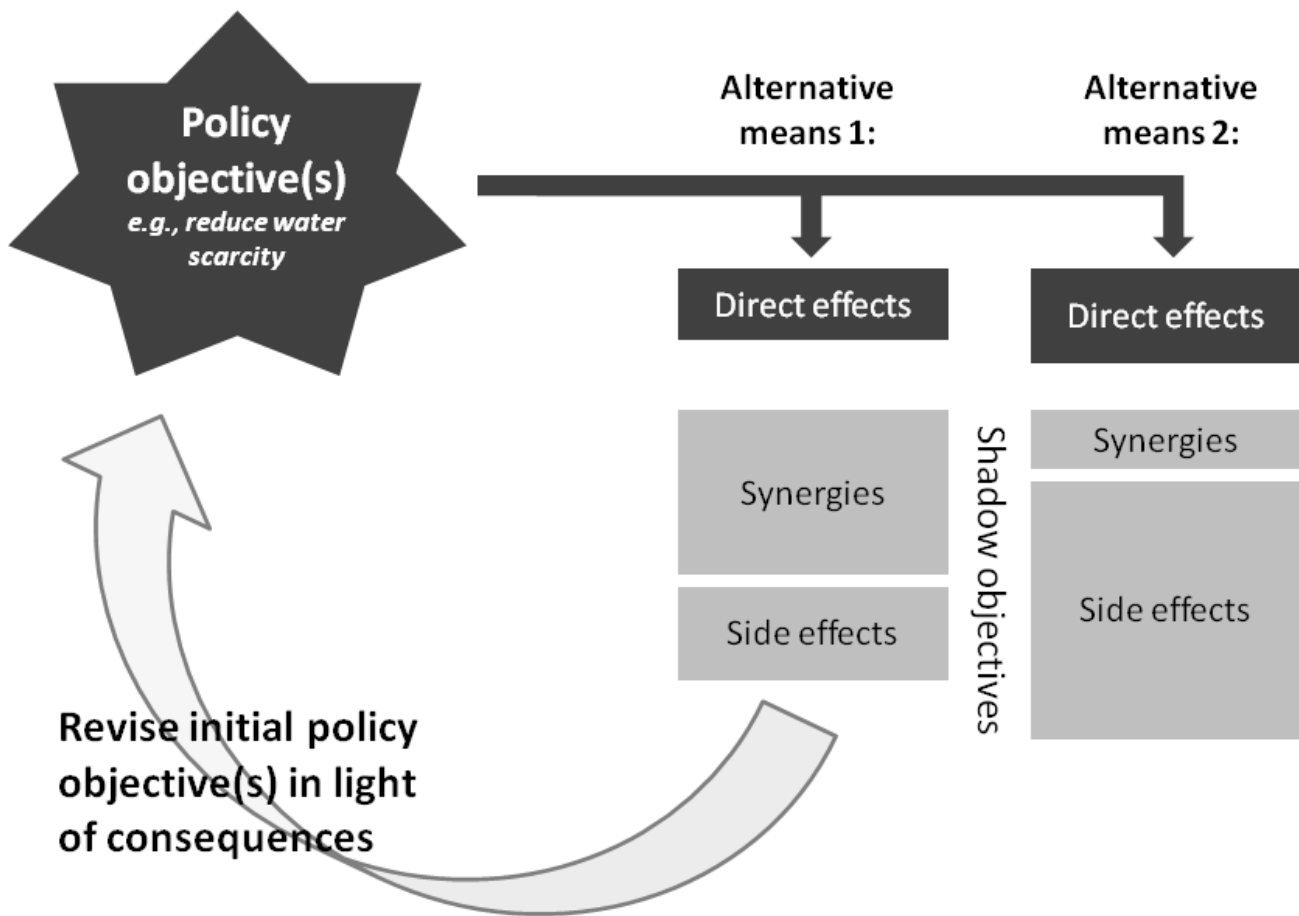
154 **3 Identifying and dealing with normative assumptions**

155 **3.1 Framework for making normative assumptions transparent**

156 The transparency of normative assumptions in such or other model-based applied economic studies is
157 important to avoid concealed policy-prescription. By normative assumptions in scientific studies, we
158 mean ethical assumptions that tell us what to do (e.g., in public policy) or how to evaluate a certain
159 situation or policy option. They can be ethical beliefs, cultural and social norms, or individual and
160 sectional interests—or are at least based on them. Moreover, normative assumptions can occur in the
161 form of policy objectives (i.e., policy ends). Like other model assumptions, virtually all normative
162 assumptions in studies on water management options have implications for the key results of these
163 studies. Hence, one-sided normative assumptions can influence the results and render these studies
164 policy-prescriptive, in the broad sense that such studies indirectly prefer specific policies to others.
165 Although other types of normative implications in scientific studies exist (e.g., epistemic and cognitive
166 values, see Douglas 2009), the above type, on which we focus in this article, is the most disputed one at
167 the science-policy interface. Key normative assumptions are often made transparent in applied
168 economic studies. Yet, the framework and typology of normative assumptions, outlined in the
169 following, may make researchers, policymakers and stakeholders more aware of other implied
170 normative assumptions; they often fail to notice them, as this requires some interpretation. The
171 normative bias in model-based studies is therefore mostly unintended.

172 We regard philosophical pragmatism in the tradition of John Dewey (Dewey 1986, 1988, Putnam 2004)
173 as a particularly convincing methodological starting point for such a framework. Pragmatism is
174 basically a theory of valuation; it is increasingly accepted among scholars (Khalil 2004).

175 Dewey's variant of pragmatism particularly offers two provoking hypotheses that are relevant to the
176 framework aspired to in this paper: (1) Scientific findings are always and inevitably value-laden, and
177 they very often include normative assumptions as defined above (Putnam 2004). (2) It is nonetheless
178 possible to come to highly plausible or even objective, though always fallible statements—even on
179 controversial, value-laden issues (Putnam 2004), such as competing water policy objectives. For
180 Dewey, assessing disputed and value-laden policy objectives, and the means to achieve them, requires
181 scrutinizing the whole range of relevant practical consequences of the means. With a focus on policy
182 analysis, the following figure interprets and depicts this “ends-means rationality,” as discussed in detail
183 by Dewey (1986, 1988). This rationality has many implications for the identification of normative
184 assumptions in applied economic studies.



185

186 *Figure 1: Simplified scheme of evaluating policy means or policy objectives in light of the practical*
 187 *means-consequences. The star represents the initially given policy objectives (all related elements in*
 188 *dark gray). The dark gray arrows represent two different possible means that are supposed to achieve*
 189 *these objectives. The rectangles represent the various kinds of quantitative and qualitative practical*
 190 *consequences of the means (respectively) that are to be identified once possible means have been*
 191 *proposed. The rectangles' thickness indicate their weights; those in light gray are related to additional*
 192 *objectives, i.e. the shadow objectives. If it turns out that even the best available means (here:*
 193 *“alternative means 1”) have severe side effects, the initial policy objectives have to be revised or*
 194 *abandoned.*

195 Think, for example, of reducing water scarcity in a particular region as a policy objective. Alternative
 196 means (i.e., policy instruments and measures) to this policy objective include trade liberalization,
 197 changing consumption patterns, etc. These alternative means have different kinds of practical
 198 consequences: First, there are the direct effects of the means, as determined by the policy objective
 199 (i.e., reducing or even increasing water scarcity). Second, there are (a) unwanted side effects (including
 200 risks and economic costs) and (b) desirable synergies. Both side effects and synergies are determined
 201 by “shadow objectives”. In contrast to “policy objective(s),” we define “shadow objectives,” which can
 202 also include general ethical values, as objectives that are relevant for society, but that are not being
 203 taken into account initially and explicitly in a particular model-based study (see Section 4 for
 204 examples). Third, there may be further practical consequences of the means, which are irrelevant,
 205 because they affect neither the given policy objective nor the existing shadow objectives.

206 The different practical consequences of the means obviously vary in their strengths and ethical weights
207 (i.e., welfare units), which are hypothetically indicated in a highly simplified manner by the thickness
208 of the rectangles that represent the consequences in Figure 1. Comparing the total outcomes, the
209 “alternative means 1” seem more appropriate in this example, although the “direct effects” are stronger
210 (i.e., thicker rectangle) with “alternative means 2,” because of the higher synergies and lower side
211 effects.

212 Yet, the crucial point is that if the best available means to given policy objectives have severe side
213 effects, then the initial policy objectives would have to be revised and completed with the identified
214 shadow objectives. In extreme cases, they may even have to be abandoned. Hence, this ends-means
215 rationality implies that policy objectives cannot be evaluated a priori, but only by assessing the
216 expected or actual practical consequences of their means. In contrast to most types of cost-benefit
217 analysis, the objectives and related evaluative criteria are not to be regarded as fixed (instead, they need
218 to be revised if there are severe side effects) and the full range of practical consequences is to be
219 assessed, including the non-quantifiable consequences. This interdependency between objectives,
220 means and their various consequences is the main characteristic of the pragmatist ends-means
221 rationality and is highly relevant for the analysis of normative assumptions.

222 This general ends-means rationality reflects widespread common sense rationality that is often
223 employed in daily life (Dewey 1988). It should sensitize us to the fact that not only assumed (policy)
224 objectives, constraints and the related, explicit evaluative criteria could render scientific studies policy-
225 prescriptive. Rather, analyses of policy means and their practical consequences could also easily result
226 in policy-prescription, given the ends-means rationality. A rough typology of normative assumptions
227 can be developed based on the pragmatist ends-means rationality; it will become clearer through the
228 examples in Section 4. Thus, the typical kinds of normative assumptions directly given or implied in
229 ecological-economic studies and particularly in the underlying models are:

- 230 **1.** Directly (explicitly or implicitly) suggested policy objectives, or more general ethical values
231 and goals;
- 232 **2.** Normative assumptions about policy means and policy objectives through the (sometimes
233 implicit) evaluation of means and their consequences;
- 234 **3.** Implied normative assumptions through the treatment of model simplifications, uncertainties
235 and ambiguities regarding hypotheses on policy objectives, means or consequences.

236 The first type includes most of the examples presented in the literature on normative assumptions in
237 economics. This type mainly refers to normative assumptions (a) given in the objective function of an
238 economic model and its basic constraints or (b) in particular policy objectives or constraints assumed
239 by scenarios. Even if a study does not value policy objectives explicitly, the sheer “descriptive”
240 scientific analysis of a particular policy objective can give this objective some political weight
241 (Schattschneider, 1960), if at the same time being tacit about alternative policy objectives. Furthermore,
242 as often missed in the literature, problem definitions (e.g., “water scarcity”) and other guiding concepts
243 used in the study (e.g., “efficiency”) can also have (intended or unintended) normative implications of
244 this first kind.

245 The second type includes normative assumptions in scientific studies related to statements on policy
246 means and their consequences. Such statements are often regarded as value-neutral. However, if a study
247 finds that certain means are appropriate (or inappropriate) for a given policy objective, then it may
248 indirectly suggest that the related policy objective is desirable (or undesirable) as well, according to the

249 ends-means rationality explained above. This could become policy-prescriptive, particularly when
250 promising alternative means are tacitly omitted, or when the study fails to evaluate adequately the full
251 range of practical consequences of the given means, including all relevant effects regarding the many
252 shadow objectives in a given society. Moreover, the policy-relevant description of practical means-
253 consequences (i.e., costs, risks, benefits, etc.) always requires value-laden concepts (Putnam 2004;
254 Douglas 2009). Furthermore, similar to the argument made for the first type, merely mentioning certain
255 means and the omission of relevant alternatives may, as such, create bias towards certain policy means.

256 While for the two previous types of normative assumptions the scope of the addressed policy
257 objectives, means and their consequences is decisive, the third type is about the scientific quality of the
258 hypotheses of applied economic studies regarding the policy objectives, means or practical
259 consequences. Thus, this type is about (a) model simplifications, (b) uncertainty (in both the results and
260 the choice of methods, data or theoretical assumptions) and (c) ambiguities in the interpretation of the
261 results. Much has been written about scientific uncertainties (e.g., van der Sluijs 2010). The point here
262 is not that uncertainties, model limitations and ambiguities are normative assumptions as such, but
263 rather that their treatment in scientific studies often requires value-laden choices that can have a
264 considerable impact on the evaluation of policy objectives or means. If these crosscutting issues are
265 concealed and only one possible interpretation is presented, a study's conclusions regarding policy
266 objectives, means and consequences may become policy-prescriptive.

267

268 **3.2 The constructive treatment of normative assumptions in applied economic studies**

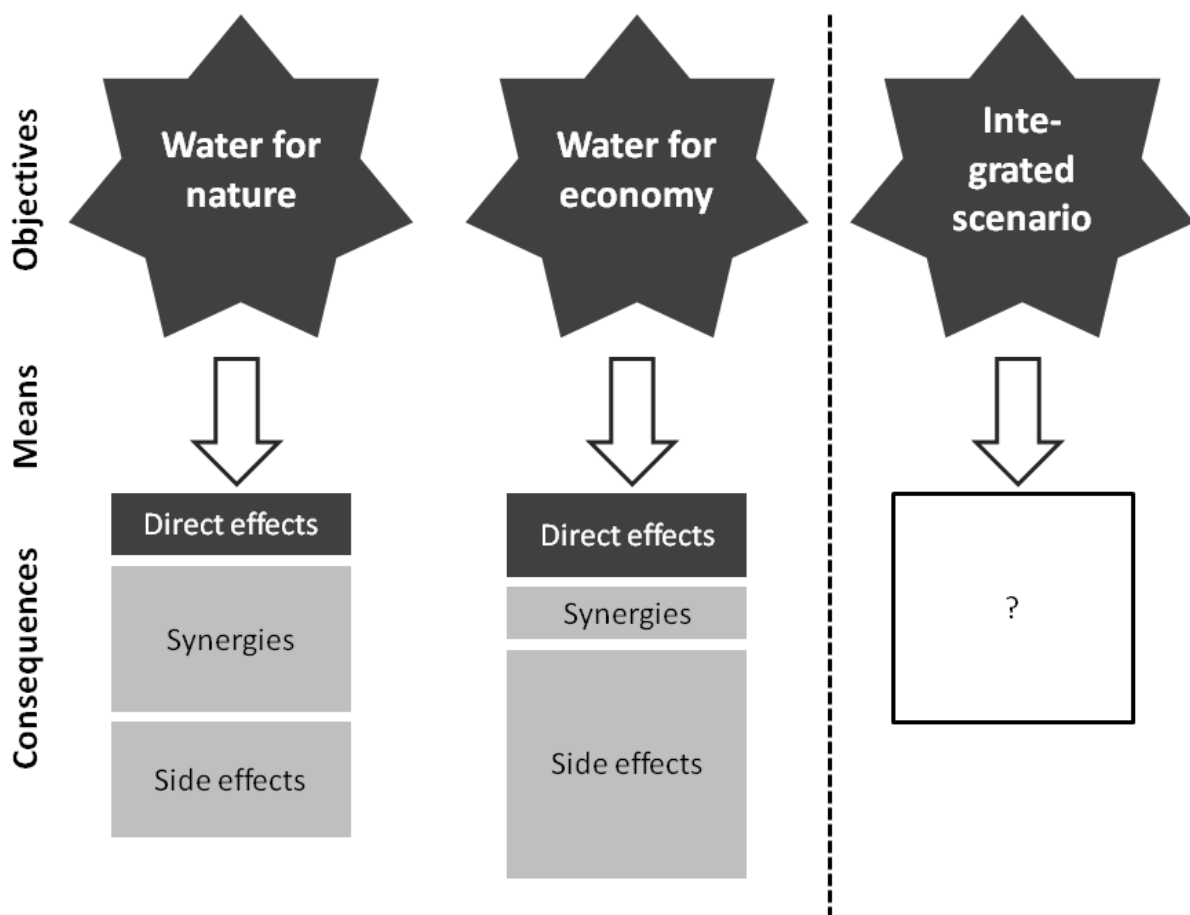
269 For model-based applied economic studies, the above framework and typology will help increase
270 transparency of the - virtually unavoidable - normative assumptions. Yet, transparency alone, although
271 crucial and indispensable from a democratic perspective, cannot avoid the possible policy-prescription
272 of such studies; transparency can only reveal and defang policy-prescription while the normative
273 assumptions are still there. The question remains how researchers—beyond transparency—can
274 constructively deal with normative assumptions, i.e. how they can reduce policy-prescription in such
275 studies, while effectively informing water policy-making, without cuts in scientific credibility (see
276 Cash et al. 2003 for a justification of these criteria). Our response to this question builds on an
277 approach that further elaborates the pragmatist ends-means rationality outlined above and that was
278 developed by Edenhofer and Kowarsch (submitted); we will only point out the basic idea here and
279 apply it to model-based ecological-economic studies on water management.

280 This approach claims that the exploration and presentation of several *alternative* policy objectives or
281 other normative assumptions reduces policy-prescription in scientific studies, although still normative
282 assumptions are involved. Moreover, if also the various practical consequences of these alternative
283 normative assumptions are explored in an interdisciplinary manner, high policy-relevance can be
284 achieved and social learning about these disputed issues can be facilitated (Edenhofer and Kowarsch,
285 submitted). Although, according to pragmatism (Dewey 1986, 1988), the best policy objectives and
286 means could theoretically be determined through comparing the practical consequences of alternative
287 ends-means combinations, high uncertainty and complexity exist in practice and make objective
288 scientific statements on these policy issues frequently impossible. This is why policy alternatives and
289 their practical consequences should be explored and presented, also in order to let policymakers - rather
290 than scientific experts - make the political decisions. Obviously, however, not every normative
291 assumption in an applied economic study and not all possible policy objectives or means can be subject
292 to a full analysis of practical consequences - reasonable choices have to be made. A single study can

293 only explore a very small part of the full political solution space. Policy-prescription can, thus, be
 294 further reduced and policy-relevance can be increased through a dialogue with stakeholders and the
 295 public on which relevant alternative policy objectives, values, etc. to select for the analyses,
 296 particularly in scientific assessments (for a discussion of stakeholder engagement see Callon, 1999;
 297 Durant, 1999; Scoones, 2009; Renn, 2009).

298 Figure 2 expands on Figure 1, which only assumed one initial set of policy objectives. In a simplified
 299 manner, it depicts the idea of exploring the full political solution space by critically comparing the
 300 practical consequences of the means to achieve alternative sets of policy objectives (and other
 301 normative assumptions) - allowing for a rational discourse about normative assumptions:

302



303
 304 *Figure 2: Scheme for a fruitful and constructive treatment of normative assumptions in terms of*
 305 *comparing alternative policy objectives (as an example for normative assumptions) via the various*
 306 *consequences of the best available means. The figure indicates the analysis and comparison of two*
 307 *competing water policy objectives (“water for nature” and “water for economy”) in terms of their*
 308 *practical means-consequences, also to better understand where trade-offs occur more precisely.*
 309 *Beyond that, the challenge is to develop a scenario (i.e., the “integrated scenario”) for a policy*
 310 *pathway that takes several policy objectives and shadow objectives into account, while creating strong*
 311 *overlap (i.e., no-regret options) between the competing policy pathways through multi-functional, well-*

312 *designed means.*

313 Instead of denying normative assumptions in science or endless disputes about abstract values, the here
314 proposed approach allows for a more constructive treatment of controversial normative assumptions in
315 applied economic studies. Scientifically exploring and comparing the practical consequences of
316 disputed normative assumptions, such as policy objectives, can enlighten and inform public discourses;
317 it may result in a revision and enhancement of the normative assumptions. As an example, think of the
318 competing water policy objectives: (1) maximum water usage for economic growth (“water for
319 economy”) and (2) very strict protection of water resources for ecological reasons (“water for nature”).
320 The trade-offs may become clearer and solutions can be identified more easily if the practical
321 consequences of these normative assumptions are explored thoroughly. Yet, if possible, it would be
322 most useful if researchers could also develop scenarios for a policy pathway that includes several
323 objectives and creates strong overlap between the competing policy pathways through multi-functional,
324 well-designed means.

325 This exercise of comparing and evaluating the practical consequences of alternative policy objectives
326 or more general social values will be called an “ethical sensitivity analysis” in this paper. Transforming
327 shadow objectives into thoroughly analyzed, alternative policy objectives is one possibility (among
328 others) for how a scientific comparison of value-laden issues can provide valuable information to
329 policymakers. The public would then be considerably more enlightened about future policy paths and
330 their various practical consequences.

331

332 **4 Results: Normative assumptions in MAgPIE and the exploration of** 333 **policy alternatives**

334 We are now prepared to demonstrate the identification (Sections 4.1 - 4.3) and the more constructive
335 treatment (Section 4.4) of normative assumptions in model-based applied economic studies, using
336 MAgPIE.

337 **4.1 The Normative assumptions in terms of policy objectives**

338 Many normative assumptions of the first type explained above (Section 3.1) are often made transparent
339 in model-based applied economic studies because they are relatively obvious. Yet, to clarify the
340 meaning and the broad scope of this first type, we will provide some examples to increase transparency
341 even more.

342 At the core of MAgPIE lies an objective function that minimizes the costs of producing agricultural
343 goods and is subject to many constraints. The goal function, together with the minimum constraint of
344 global agricultural production, is responsible for fulfilling the two central policy objectives implied in
345 the model: (1) producing a pre-defined global demand for agricultural goods and (2) doing this at
346 minimum costs. Even if one argues that MAgPIE’s objective function merely attempts to describe the
347 actual behavior of players in the real world, this can be misinterpreted by policymakers in normative
348 terms.

349 The model treats the value of feeding the world as even more important than minimizing production
350 costs, which implies the ethical judgment that food security should have the highest political priority.
351 Put differently, providing every person with food now and in the future is formulated as an a priori goal
352 to be fulfilled at any cost and for every scenario. However, the amount of food provided differs, as the
353 model’s exogenously given calorie demand is different for each of the ten world regions and at various

354 points in time. Calorie demand increases over time depending on the specific regional developments of
355 diets in the past and on projections for regional income in the future (Bodirsky et. al, submitted). This
356 assumption leads to the continued unequal global distribution of calorie consumption in the future.
357 Although this assumption can be justified by the assertion that global distribution patterns will likely
358 remain as they are now, it implies that the world's calorie distribution is not regarded as ethically
359 problematic.

360 The general assumptions about population and income (measured as GDP) predetermine the global
361 food demand in the model. Although relatively realistic, these status quo-related assumptions have
362 normative implications that are similar to the assumption of unequal future calorie distribution, in the
363 sense that they suggest there will not be any ambitious population policy nor any economic de-growth
364 policies.

365 Minimizing global production costs is a second policy end implied in the model. An important ethical
366 aspect of this is the value to be optimized. In economic models, this value is often monetary costs (as in
367 MAgPIE) or utility (as in welfare-maximizing models). Yet, one could theoretically also optimize all
368 the other variables considered in the model - e.g., water scarcity (interpreted as the relation between
369 water withdrawal and water availability), the water shadow price or the use of additional land for
370 agriculture in MAgPIE.

371 Indirectly suggesting that everyone follows the same rationality (such as cost minimization) is a very
372 strong and controversial assumption (e.g., Beckerman 2011, Rodriguez-Sickert et al. 2009, Hands
373 2001). This is especially true for reflecting on a mainly local problem such as water scarcity, because
374 its solution often also depends on specific socio-cultural conditions which differ a lot between regions.
375 The ethical relevance of this assumption is not only that it suggests that players *actually* behave
376 according to this rationality, but there is also a (often unintended) normative implication that people
377 *should* strive for the particular rationality (Hands 2001).

378 Moreover, cost minimization implies that the *aggregated* costs for all producers are decisive ethically,
379 instead of, for instance, trying to minimize costs for a particular (e.g., very poor) group of producers.
380 This ethical judgment seems to stem from classical utilitarianism, where aggregated utility counts more
381 than, e.g., the equal distribution of utility among individuals (e.g., Bentham 1907).

382 Besides the core policy objectives in MAgPIE's goal function, also envisaging certain model outputs
383 can imply normative policy ends. For example, the calculation of local water shadow prices with
384 MAgPIE implies that water scarcity is regarded as ethically problematic, because irrigation water for
385 agricultural production is assumed to be limited in the model and its usage can lead to water scarcity at
386 the local level.

387 In addition to the policy ends implied in the model *structure*, model-based studies often add further
388 normative assumptions. An example is Schmitz et al. (2013) where the policy end of reducing water
389 scarcity is *explicitly* analyzed. However, there are different possible definitions of water scarcity which
390 should be made transparent. Schmitz et al. (2013) identified water scarcity using the water shadow
391 price. Falkenmark (1989) investigated water scarcity using per capita water availability. Smathkin et al.
392 (2004) examined the water requirements for sustaining a certain ecological system. The normative
393 character of defining a problem such as water scarcity is obvious, as any definition values (explicitly or
394 implicitly) different possible uses of water (see the ethical discussions in Brown and Smith 2010).

395

396

397 **4.2 Normative assumptions implied in the evaluation of policy means**

398 International trade of agricultural goods with differing degrees of trade liberalization is one of the two
399 means examined by Schmitz et al. (2013) to achieve the policy end of alleviating global water scarcity.
400 However, besides the analyzed direct effects, these means can also have unwanted side effects which
401 were not analyzed by Schmitz et al. because they had to focus. However, these side effects could have a
402 significant influence on the appraisal of the means and the ends in question. Therefore, Schmitz et al.
403 provide a good example for how such studies can imply normative assumptions of the second type,
404 which are typically less obvious and not always made transparent.

405 Potential side effects of liberalized agricultural trade could include an undesired change in land-use
406 patterns and an increase in greenhouse gas emissions. Van Meijl (2006), Eickhout (2009) and Schmitz
407 (2012) show that trade liberalization without special forest protection leads to additional deforestation
408 in developing countries, especially in the ecologically sensitive tropical rainforest, which again has
409 strong implications for the concentration of greenhouse gases in the atmosphere. In addition to the
410 environment, global and national economies are also affected by trade liberalization. While the
411 literature seems to confirm that more liberalized trade has synergies for the global economy (Hertel et
412 al. 2007) and that the pressure on global food prices will decrease (Schmitz 2012, Federico 2005), the
413 impact on developing countries is unclear. Some authors argue that trade liberalization will worsen the
414 economic situation in poor countries without additional adjustments (e.g., Bouët 2004, Panagariya
415 2005), while others say, freer trade may improve economic prosperity in poor regions (Anderson 1993,
416 Martin and Winters 1996).

417 The second means considered in the study by Schmitz et al. (2013) is the change in global livestock
418 consumption. Since this assumption implies that most people will eat less meat, the synergies of this
419 means include health benefits for people (Pimentel and Pimentel 2003). These and many other possible
420 side effects and synergies are related to shadow ends, which were not analyzed by Schmitz et al.
421 (2013). A full evaluation of the assumed policy objectives, however, would require taking the full range
422 of relevant means-consequences into account. This needs to be made transparent.

423 In addition to making the unintended side effects and the synergies of policy means transparent, it is
424 also crucial that scientific studies highlight the existence of alternative means to achieve policy
425 objective(s). Alternative means to reduce water scarcity in the context of the study by Schmitz et al.
426 (2013) can include investments in water-related technologies, efficiency improvements in agricultural
427 production and irrigation, and education on water use (WWAP 2009). Comparing these alternative
428 means in terms of their practical consequences with the practical consequences of trade liberalization
429 and changing consumption patterns (i.e., the two means analyzed in Schmitz et al. 2013) may change
430 one's opinion about the adequacy and ranking of the means in question.

431 **4.3 The treatment of model simplifications and uncertainties**

432 The sections above suggested that it is clear what the practical consequences of means could be and
433 only discussed whether they were made transparent or not. However, scientific models and their results
434 are prone to: (1) simplifications due to the complexity of real world processes; (2) uncertainties due to
435 our limited knowledge of the world; and (3) ambiguous interpretations of the results.

436 The third type of normative assumptions is difficult to analyze because there is a high number of such
437 simplified, uncertain or ambiguous assumptions in the models and virtually *every* assumption
438 influences the results. Thus, we will limit ourselves to (1) model simplifications and (2) some
439 uncertainties in the model structure. We will examine these in terms of water scarcity.

440 The economic units in MAgPIE are reduced to ten world regions due to data limitations and to make
441 the model computationally feasible. One consequence is that there are no trade barriers within regions.
442 Therefore, trade volumes are overestimated as long as national trade barriers exist. Since trade barriers
443 influence local water scarcity (as shown in Schmitz et al. 2013), this simplification influences the
444 model results regarding water scarcity.

445 Aggregating all countries into ten economic world regions also implies that all country-based economic
446 input information, such as factor costs, GDP and population scenarios, have to be aggregated at the
447 regional level. Consequently, the economic differences between the countries in each region are
448 averaged out. This affects the model results regarding local water scarcity because water-related
449 technological developments such as drip water irrigation, dams, rainwater harvesting and
450 desalinization, which reduce water scarcity, depend on a country's economic development. For
451 example, while Israel uses advanced irrigation techniques and reuses a large part of its wastewater,
452 neighboring countries in the same region are still behind on implementing such water-saving
453 techniques (Bakir 2001, Friedler 2001).

454 The examples above show how simplifications can distort model output; we will now discuss the
455 consequences of some uncertainties in the model assumptions.

456 Agricultural yield is one of the determinants of water consumption and, hence, water scarcity. Since the
457 limits of plant growth is a controversial issue and is highly uncertain (Dietrich et al. 2012, van Ittersum
458 1997), the indirect limit to yield growth—implemented through a factor in the yield growth function,
459 which leads to exponentially rising production costs—may result in an inaccurate estimation of
460 production, thus influencing the level of water scarcity.

461 The actual prices for irrigation water are similarly problematic. Since there is hardly any valid data on
462 observed prices (Berbel 2007) and since they certainly vary among countries, they are provisionally set
463 to zero in the model (while shadow prices are computed). Prices are an important factor for water
464 consumption in the real world; therefore, the lack of costs can lead to an over-simulation of water use
465 and, thus, an overestimation of local water scarcity.

466 Global data sets are always afflicted with uncertainty. As an example, data on the water productivity of
467 crops are provided for each crop on a 0.5 grid basis. These data are model outputs from the biophysical
468 model, LPJmL, where the specific water productivity is calculated for each crop and grid based on
469 climatic conditions (precipitation, radiation and temperature) and soil (Bondeau 2007). Uncertainties in
470 these data affect model outputs, such as water consumption and water scarcity, but cannot be avoided.

471 All of these examples might distort policymakers' opinions about the suitability of certain water policy
472 ends or means.

473 **4.4 Dealing with normative assumptions: The example of future food distribution**

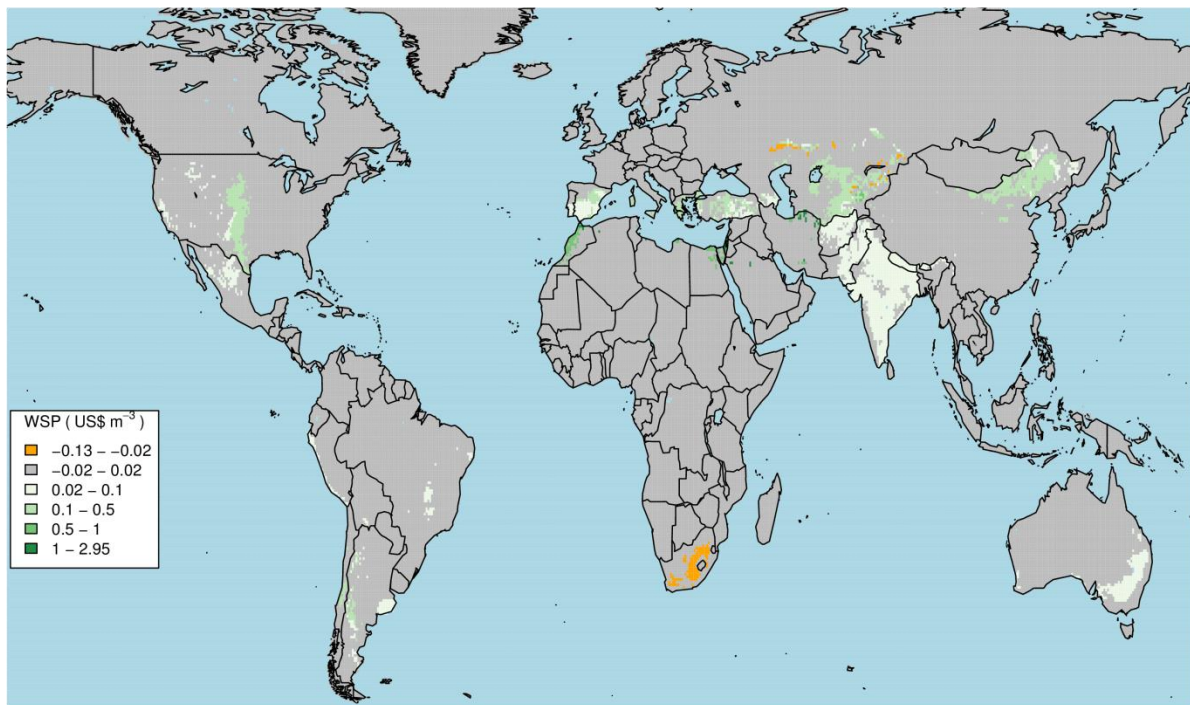
474 This section provides an example of how to deal with *other* conflicting value-laden issues - besides the
475 initial water-related objectives in a model-based study. The example is the comparison between two
476 different assumptions about future global food distribution and their practical implications. This
477 example illustrates (1) that normative assumptions can have a high impact on model results and (2)
478 what a single paper's contribution to an exploration of the full political solution space of water policy
479 (see Section 3.2) could look like more specifically. It is important to note that the ethical sensitivity
480 analysis introduced here lacks a comprehensive analysis of the implied normative assumptions (e.g.,
481 side effects of the assumed policy means) because its only purpose here is to sketch how a full-fledged
482 ethical sensitivity analysis could be conducted.

483 What and how much people eat influences their environments and societies because the extent of
 484 agricultural production is closely related to the usage of land, water and food prices. This is why
 485 exogenous model assumptions about the amount and composition of human food intake matters. The
 486 future demands for food and livestock in each of MAgPIE’s ten world regions are developed according
 487 to a historical functional relationship between GDP and demand (Bodirsky et al. submitted, Valin et al.
 488 2014, see section. 2.1). For our ethical sensitivity analysis, we construct a scenario where political
 489 actions regarding food waste management and health education in developed countries, as well as
 490 political decisions taken to provide a sufficient amount of food in developing countries, will lead to a
 491 globally equal diet of 2600 kcal per day and person in 2045. Approximately 2200 kcal per day satisfies
 492 the metabolistic energy requirements of an average person (Smil 2000, Bodirsky et al. 2014) and the
 493 remaining 400 kcal are considered unavoidable waste. Additionally, we assume that the share of animal
 494 based calories in the globally equal diet will converge to 10% by 2045. We call this the “Equal diet
 495 scenario,” and the model default scenario with the calorie and livestock share development determined
 496 by the regional GDP growth is called the “Reference scenario.” As already argued above (Section 4.1),
 497 even this reference scenario can have normative implications.
 498 The model results show that in the equal diet scenario in 2045, global crop production is about 40%
 499 lower than in the reference scenario, and global crop land decreases by approximately 10%. The release
 500 of pressure on agricultural systems through a global common diet also reduces global water scarcity
 501 (the average water shadow price decreases by almost 30%) and food prices (food price index is reduced
 502 by 15%) (see Table 1). This effect can be derived from the reduction in the direct demand for crops, as
 503 well as from the lower demand for crops as livestock feed.

Table 1: Comparing the global impact of a globally equal diet scenario to a regionally differentiated reference diet in the year 2045 (WSP=Water shadow price, FPI=Food price index).

Scenario	Crop production (Exa Joule)	Crop area (mio ha)	WSP (US\$/m ³)	FPI (1995=100)
Reference	139	1768	0,0162	143
Equal diet	101	1604	0,0117	121

504



505

Figure 1: Magpie-simulated difference between the water shadow price for the reference scenario and the equal diet scenario in 2045 (US\$ m⁻³) on a 0.5 grid basis.

506

507 Looking at the locally specific impacts of the two different food demand scenarios on water scarcity
 508 (figure 1), we see that in many of the world's water scarce regions, water shadow prices decrease when
 509 comparing a global equal diet to a regionally differentiated diet. In Spain and Portugal, water shadow
 510 prices decrease because the export of irrigated cereals decreases due to a reduction in global demand.
 511 In North America, the reduction of cereal exports leads to less water consumption in the area of the
 512 Ogallala Aquifer where groundwater is already over-exploited (Custodio 2002). In India, the reduced
 513 demand for food alleviates the massive exploitation of groundwater (Tiwari 2009).

514 While water scarcity in most parts of the world decreases, it increases in South Africa because Sub-
 515 Sahara Africa is the only region where food demand increases compared to the reference scenario.
 516 However, the additional food required cannot be imported due to model-based trade restrictions and,
 517 therefore, has to be produced locally.

518 This section shows that different normative assumptions about future global food distribution and
 519 consumption patterns can lead to different practical consequences—and their exploration makes model-
 520 based studies relevant to policy making.

521

522

523 **5 Discussion**

524

525 **5.1 The appropriate role of normative assumptions**

526 Normative assumptions seem to be ubiquitous in scientific assessments, even in seemingly innocent
527 “descriptive” studies, such as “business as usual” future projections. Normative assumptions, like those
528 in MAgPIE, can be found in other applied economic models. Economic models that are based on
529 aggregated or individual welfare maximization usually make more obvious normative assumptions than
530 cost-minimizing and partial equilibrium models, such as MAgPIE (Robinson 2006, Beckerman 2011).
531 We argue, however, that it is particularly important to analyze normative assumptions in models like
532 MAgPIE where normative assumptions are not so obvious and often missed.

533 The existence of normative assumptions in model-based studies is not a failure of scientists, nor is it a
534 bad thing per se. In fact, it is hardly possible to refrain from normative assumptions in scientific studies
535 (Putnam 2004, Douglas 2009). This contradicts the still prevailing view that scientific studies must be
536 value-free. Moreover, uncertainties are unavoidable in policy-relevant economic modeling, and
537 knowledgeable simplifications are precisely what the art of modeling is about.

538 However, many normative assumptions are rather controversial; therefore, transparency is required to
539 avoid undemocratic policy-prescriptions, which can occur unintentionally. A lack of transparency of
540 assumptions can also (indirectly) limit scientific quality (Kloprogge et al. 2011).

541 The most politically important and disputed normative assumptions should be made transparent.
542 Although most studies make their core model assumptions and analyzed policy objectives transparent,
543 there is still considerable room for improvement along the lines discussed above. On the other hand,
544 some of the normative assumptions identified above are subject to interpretation and policy-
545 prescription is often only indirectly implied in model-based studies.

546 Normative assumptions should not be disparagingly regarded as inevitable evils that can at best be
547 made transparent. Rather, applied economic studies should make use of normative assumptions in the
548 politically fruitful and legitimate manner outlined above (Section 3.2). This presupposes, but goes
549 beyond making normative assumptions transparent, in the sense that alternative normative assumptions
550 should be deliberately selected to represent a broad range of societal viewpoints and that their practical
551 consequences should be thoroughly explored to facilitate social learning in a pragmatist sense.

552 The mere existence of normative assumptions does not automatically make scientific studies policy-
553 prescriptive. The example in Section 4.4 showed that model-based studies can use normative
554 assumptions (i.e., different policy objectives) constructively without being policy-prescriptive. This
555 way of dealing with normative assumptions is not only democratically tolerable and legitimate, but also
556 reasonably informs water policy debates. Ethical sensitivity analyses like the one indicated in Section
557 4.4 are multi-scenario analyses that explicitly explore the practical implications of the alternative
558 normative assumptions that are relevant to political debates.

559

560 **5.2 An outlook on possible model enhancements**

561 Based on the ethical discussions in the literature (e.g., Kowarsch and Gösele 2012, or Armstrong 2006
562 and Groenfeldt 2013 for a more specific discussion on water ethics), modelers could include a broader
563 range of normative assumptions and explore their practical consequences. However, there is a trade-off
564 in covering a wider range of issues on the one hand, and accounting for their increasing complexity

565 (possibly leading to more errors in the model results), low transparency and the difficulty of
566 understanding them on the other hand.. Although a relatively small number of issues can be explored in
567 model-based studies, we argue that they should attempt to better address the most heated and
568 fundamental normative issues in water management debates. Among these are conflicts between
569 economic, ecological and social arguments. For instance, think again of the conflict between “water for
570 economy,” which ensures water availability for agriculture etc., and “water for nature,” which ensures
571 environmental water flows in rivers (Aiken and LaFollete 1995). In general, distributional aspects are
572 hard to address with models like MAgPIE, but these issues are usually most relevant for political
573 debates on sustainability governance.

574 So far, MAgPIE has not been able to analyze intra-generational distributional effects. Malnourishment
575 and starvation cannot be simulated because the exogenously given demand in the model means that
576 there is sufficient food for all. In order to tackle this problem, it would be necessary to introduce
577 flexible demand functions that react to changes in food prices and depict the fact that people with
578 different living standards react to changes in their incomes differently (see Engel curve in Lewbel
579 2007, Deaton and Muellbauer 1980). Such an implementation would help identify an income threshold
580 below which it is not possible to purchase all necessary calories, thus simulating starvation. Price-
581 induced changes in demand lead to a different production pattern for food, which affects local water
582 scarcity.

583 Another important topic to be explored in the scenarios is inter-generational justice. To simulate
584 accurately, for instance, the sustainable use of a slowly renewable resource, such as fossil groundwater
585 resources, over time, it is necessary to use an inter-temporal optimizer that simulates the optimal path
586 for resource use and preserves resources for future generations without constraining current generations
587 too much. Limited computational resources are the main impediment to implementing inter-temporal
588 optimization in spatially explicit models like MAgPIE.

589 The importance of being informed about the full range of means-consequences has already been
590 highlighted several times. Therefore, in order to enhance the policy-relevance of model-based studies,
591 it is necessary to enlarge the scope of the study to include more shadow ends and related means-
592 consequences. The more policy ends are analyzed (i.e., former shadow ends), the more practical means-
593 consequences can be identified, and the better linkages between different policy fields can be analyzed.
594 The aspects discussed in Section 3.2 (i.e. the specific shadow ends, related means-consequences, and
595 omission of means) provide further ideas for enhancing the scope of MAgPIE-based analyses in order
596 to make them more policy-relevant.

597 Assuring policy-relevance in a substantial sense requires model-based studies on water management to
598 incorporate (in a transparent manner) disputed normative assumptions and explore their respective
599 implications. The point is not to create huge, complex models that can answer any question, but to
600 identify the issues that are most relevant. Different models could potentially focus on different aspects
601 to make this task more feasible, and the comparability between the model results would be decisive.

602

603 **6 Conclusion**

604 We have shown that there are many explicit and implied normative assumptions in ecological-
605 economic studies, such as those based on the MAgPIE model. This could lead to policy-prescription in
606 a complex field where so much is at stake ethically. Avoiding concealed policy-prescription requires the
607 transparency of relevant and not-so-obvious normative assumptions that are often missed, such as those

608 related to policy means and their various practical consequences. Normative assumptions are frequently
609 unintended by scientists and can hardly be avoided. Yet, there is no need to shy away from value-laden
610 issues in scientific studies. Referring to the pragmatist ends-means rationality, we argue that
611 contributing to the scientific exploration of the full political solution space, including alternative policy
612 objectives and means, allows researchers to make constructive use of normative assumptions in their
613 model-based studies. This would inform policy-making processes in a socially valuable, scientifically
614 reliable and politically relevant manner without being policy-prescriptive. The role of researchers
615 should not be to make decisions about policies, but to explore alternative viable policy paths jointly
616 with policymakers and the public. Some modifications and enhancements of applied economic models
617 might be helpful in this regard.

618 Going beyond the existing literature, this article offers: (1) the theoretical tools and concrete examples
619 to identify the normative assumptions in model-based applied economic studies and (2) a promising
620 strategy to constructively deal with them. Both scientists and practitioners at the science-policy
621 interface could benefit from that the result of this article.

622 However, two remarks regarding the science-policy interface are required here. First, the impact of
623 scientific studies on policy should neither be overestimated nor misinterpreted (Shulock 1999).
624 Policymakers rarely make decisions based on scientific results. Yet, it is also absurd to argue that
625 research does not have an impact on the political realm. Instead, policy-prescriptive scientific papers
626 and assessments can have undesirable implications for political debates (Pielke 2007; Sarewitz 2004).
627 Second, individual applied economic studies cannot explore the whole political solution space and,
628 therefore, should not be overstated. Large-scale scientific assessments are required for an integrated
629 and comprehensive policy appraisal, e.g., regarding water management. However, these assessments
630 only work if there is a high quality of scientific material; therefore, individual applied economic
631 publications should address at least some aspects related to the political solution space. In other words,
632 assessments are dependent on the appropriate scientific material.

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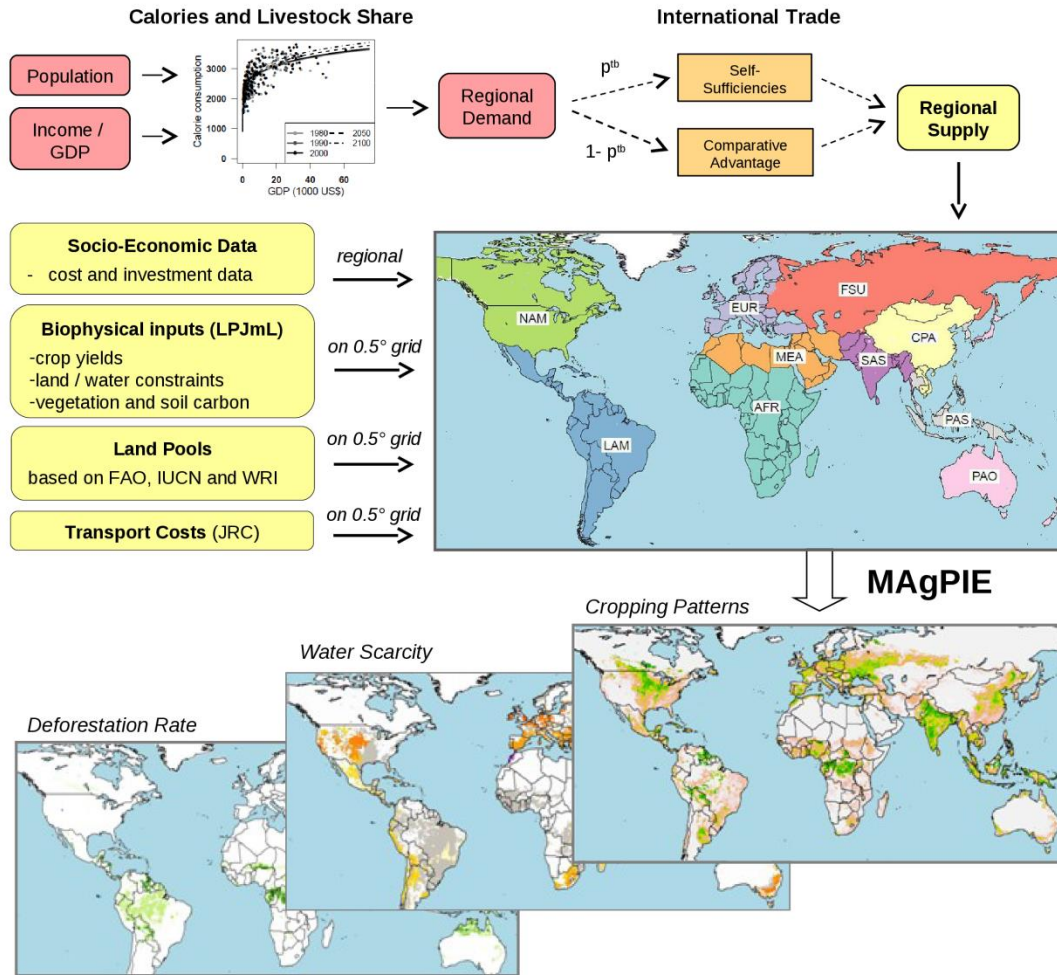
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645 **Appendix**

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647 **Appendix A: Graphical representation of MAgPIE**

648



649 *Figure 2: Simplified MAgPIE flow chart of key processes. Economic regions in MAgPIE: AFR=Sub-*
 650 *Saharan Africa, CPA=Centrally Planned China, EUR= Europe (incl. Turkey), FSU=FormerSoviet*
 651 *Union, LAM = Latin America, MEA=Middle East and NorthAfrica, NAM=North America,*
 652 *PAO=Pacific OECD(Australia, Japan and New Zealand), PAS=Pacific Asia, SAS=South (incl. India).*

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660 **Appendix B: Scenario assumption in the ethical sensitivity analysis**

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Table 2: Regional daily calorie intake per capita, 1995 and for both scenarios in 2045.

Scenario	Year	AFR	CPA	EUR	FSU	LAM	MEA	NAM	PAO	PAS	SAS
	1995	1998	27275	3216	2769	2606	2945	3458	2602	2291	2259
Reference	2045	2439	3441	3537	3296	3123	3170	3756	3050	2874	2859
Equal diet	2045	2600	2600	2600	2600	2600	2600	2600	2600	2600	2600

662

Table 3: Regional livestock share in the total diet, 1995 and for both scenarios in 2045.

Scenario	Year	AFR	CPA	EUR	FSU	LAM	MEA	NAM	PAO	PAS	SAS
	1995	0,06	0,15	0,27	0,23	0,19	0,09	0,27	0,18	0,07	0,07
Reference	2045	0,12	0,40	0,21	0,32	0,26	0,15	0,18	0,15	0,18	0,18
Equal diet	2045	0,10	0,10	0,10	0,10	0,10	0,10	0,10	0,10	0,10	0,10

663

Table 4: Regional food demand in Exajoule, 1995 and for both scenarios in 2045.

Scenario	Year	AFR	CPA	EUR	FSU	LAM	MEA	NAM	PAO	PAS	SAS
	1995	1,7	5,3	2,7	1,7	1,9	1,3	1,6	0,55	1,4	4,4
Reference	2045	6,3	8,8	2,9	1,4	3,7	3,2	2,2	0,63	2,8	9,9
Equal diet	2045	6,7	6,7	2,2	1,1	3,1	2,6	1,5	0,53	2,6	9,0

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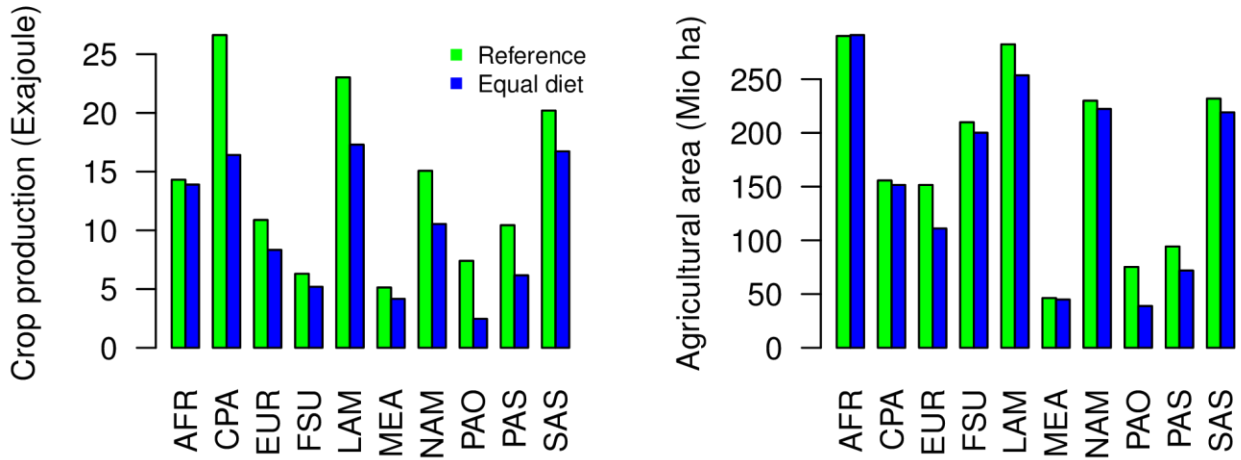
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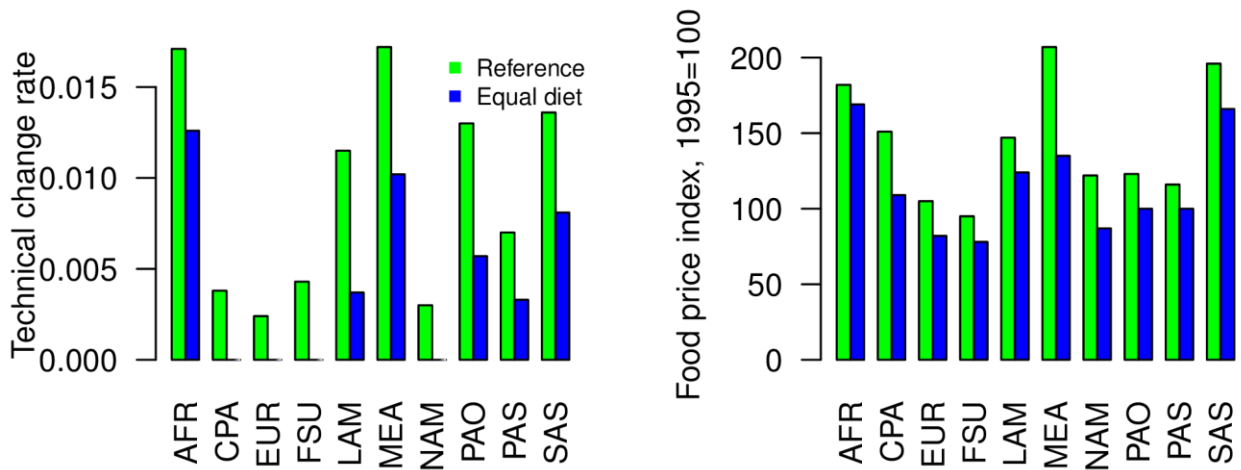
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Appendix C: Regional changes in crop production, area, technical change and food prices in the scenarios in the ethical sensitivity analysis



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Figure 3: Comparison of agricultural production and crop area for the reference and the equal diet scenario in 2045.



680

Figure 4: Comparison of the technical change rate and the food price indices of the reference and the equal diet scenario in 2045.

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